Leadership Training Manual for Women Leaders of Cooperatives

International Labour Office

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Leadership Training Manual for Women Leaders of Cooperatives

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Foreword

The ICA and ILO partnership dates back to as early as 1920, when technical cooperation and collaboration started between the two organizations. The Common Cooperative Agenda for ILO and ICA Joint Action, formalized on 10 February 2004, served to further consolidate the long standing partnership, towards achieving the common objective of combating social exclusion and poverty through cooperative development.

While enumerating the basic principles and implementation guidelines, the Agenda gives top priority to promoting gender equality in all programme operations. This is critical to realizing the principle of democratic member participation, which forms the very foundation for cooperative functioning. The ICA Statement of Cooperative Identity (1995), and the new ILO Recommendation for Promotion of Cooperatives (2002), seek to promote "the fullest participation in economic and social development of *all* people."

However, women's participation in formally registered mixed cooperatives remains low as compared to men. Socio-economic and cultural conditioning over the ages, account for their low confidence levels and lack of leadership skills, linked with the obvious lack of opportunities for education, training or exposure, communication and networking. Studies undertaken by the ILO on "Legal Constraints to Women's Participation in Cooperatives" (2002), reveal that while national laws are generally 'gender neutral', there remain other constraints linked to other related laws including customary law, which restrict women from conducting businesses independently or accessing positions of leadership and decision making.

The ICA-Asia Pacific, through its regional Women's Committee, launched a campaign to impress upon member cooperatives and Governments to adopt appropriate measures to enable the promotion of women's participation in cooperatives. Way back in May 1997, the ICA Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific (ICAROAP) and the Asian Women in Cooperative Development Forum (AWCF) organized a conference on "Women in Decision Making" and declared the need to build women's capacities for equal participation in cooperative functioning, leadership and decision making.

Towards this end, an ICA /ILO collaborative process was initiated in 1997, to produce a training manual to enable cooperative trainers towards facilitating women's leadership development in cooperatives. It may be argued that many training tools for women's empowerment and gender sensitization are already in existence. However, the specific requirements in terms of cooperative management procedures called for a training tool specific to women in cooperatives. The draft manual was jointly authored and was revised following a validation workshop in Bangkok in August 2001. The joint validation process resulted in a more concise format, with participatory, user friendly methodologies. The revised version has since been tested and successfully used by the ICA in four training programmes so far, namely in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia in October 2002, Pune, India in June 2003, Bandung, Indonesia in March 2004 and in Isfahan, Iran in June 2004. The programmes have been well received and need is now felt for its publication, for wider dissemination and use.

The Manual consists of seven modules, comprising several units, and draws upon existing ILO tools on gender analysis, equality and development. The topics broadly cover fundamentals of cooperatives, gender sensitization and self transformation, leadership, coping with challenges, organization and enterprise management. While the Manual aims at building women's capacities and may require only women's participation in some of the modules, in others, a general participation of both men and women is recommended towards securing a total commitment.

We trust the manual will be useful for cooperative trainers towards facilitating gender equity and equality and thereby ensuring a truly democratic process, with total gender integration and participation at all levels of cooperatives.

Rahaiah Baheran
Chairperson, ICA Regional Women's
Committee for Asia and Pacific
International Cooperative Alliance

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Introductory Remarks

The history of ICA Asia Pacific initiative for integrating women and gender concerns in cooperatives begins in the early eighties when this office introduced a special women's programme during the United Nations Women's Decade (1975-1985). The ICA-ROAP , through this programme, had been able to create awareness and conducive environment for enhancing women's participation in cooperatives.

In 1990, the Human Resources Development Project of the ICA identified need for gender integration and put women's participation as an important agenda with a view to answer the big question on gender integration-how? It was felt that there should be an effective and ongoing need based programme for capacity building of women as well as of the cooperatives. Since the region is full of socio-cultural diversity and needs of women are different in different countries, the ICA commissioned a study in 14 different countries in the region to identify the situation and requirements of women in cooperatives.

The situation analysis which emerged from the studies formed an important basis for developing need-based programmes. In order to finalize necessary actions based on the results and to sensitize the member cooperative organizations for gender integration, a regional consultation was held in Sri Lanka in 1992 followed by a more strategic Gender Planning Conference in Tokyo in 1993. During this time the ICA ROAP office was able to establish a specific gender programme unit in the office. Meanwhile, in 1995 the ICA adopted its identify statement, which mentioned the importance of gender for the first time. Thereafter, several Regional Consultations/Conferences were organized. As a result of continuous efforts and increasing activities on gender integration, ICA Regional Women's Committee for Asia and Pacific was formed in 1997. The ICA, with Asian Women in Development Forum, held a conference in Tagaytay, Philippines, in May 1997 focusing on capacity building of women as well as cooperatives for leadership development of women and gender integration at all levels of cooperatives in the region.

The event led to an effective collaboration between ICA ROAP and ILO COOPNET and a joint Regional preparatory workshop was held on Cooperative Leadership Training for Women (Dec. 1997). Both agreed to collaborate to develop a trainers' training manual for leadership development of women in cooperatives.

The manual was validated in 2001 and has already been tested in four Regional Trainers' Training Programmes. Though the manual suggests twelve days for the training programme, there is practical difficulty for trainees to spare two weeks at a stretch for the training. Therefore, the text can be reorganized to fit in 5 days of class room training and one day study visit to a successful cooperative.

The manual will be disseminated to all the members of ICA in the region. I hope this will be helpful in enhancing skills and capacity of women to take up leadership responsibilities in their cooperatives.

Shil Kwan Lee
Regional Director
International Cooperative Alliance – Asia Pacific

Leadership Training Manual for Women Leaders of Cooperatives

USERS' GUIDE

INTRODUCTORY SESSION

MODULE 1 : GENDER IN COOPERATIVES

MODULE 2 : FUNDAMENTALS OF COOPERATIVES

MODULE 3 : SELF TRANSFORMATION

MODULE 4 : WHAT IS EXPECTED OF A COOPERATIVE LEADER

MODULE 5 : COPING WITH CHALLENGES

MODULE 6 : COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE MANAGEMENT

MODULE 7 : COMMITMENT TO GENDER EQUITY AND EQUALITY IN COOPERATIVES

Users' Guide

Rationale

Though women members in many cooperatives in Asia have significantly grown in number, they continue to be inadequately represented in cooperative leadership. Unfortunately, even today gender bias and discrimination persist in most parts of the world, which systematically disadvantage women and cause their unsatisfactory representation and participation in cooperative leadership. Determining factors include :

- Low status due to persistent gender discrimination and gender stereotyping, where women are generally viewed to be unfit for leadership, and subsequent lack of support for women's entry to leadership structures;
- Limited opportunity to engage full time in activities outside the home due to unequal burden of care work that falls upon them;
- Lack of resources due to their economic dependence on their husbands or other male household heads; and
- Low self esteem and inadequate leadership skills and experience as a result of the above factors

This leadership training manual has been conceived and developed to help cooperatives, especially its women-leaders and members, to address the above gender issues.

Objectives

This training manual aims to assist trainers of cooperatives in the Asia-Pacific to:

1. Raise the awareness of women and men leaders and members of cooperatives on the manifestations of gender bias (against women) in cooperatives, and on the effects of discrimination against women on the personal and interpersonal growth of its leaders and members, as well as on the organizational development of cooperatives.
2. Build-up the capacity of current and potential women leaders of cooperatives by equipping them with knowledge and skills on the following:
   - Nature of cooperatives;
   - Effective and gender-responsive leadership;
   - Cooperative enterprise management;
   - Coping with challenges; and
   - Personal development.

Users of this Training Manual

This manual is designed for women-and men-trainers of primary, secondary and tertiary

cooperatives who conduct or want to conduct training activities on gender sensitivity and accountability, and on leadership capacity building of women in cooperatives. For an optimal use of this manual, these trainers must possess the basic criteria of an effective trainer on gender issues and concerns in cooperatives. These criteria are the following :

- With basic knowledge of cooperatives;
- With a substantial grasp of gender issues and concerns in the society;
- Sensitive to the manifestations of gender bias in cooperatives;
- Committed to the advocacy for gender equity and equality in society in general, and in cooperatives, in particular; and
- Willing and capable of training and mentoring current and potential women leaders in the effective management of cooperatives.

Target Trainees

The first module of this manual which is entitled, “Gender in Cooperatives,” is open to both women- and men-leaders and members of cooperatives. This is to help both women and men to understand that the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives is not an anti-men endeavor, but as something which both women and men, and the whole cooperative movement will benefit from. The module also emphasizes the importance of men’s involvement in bringing about gender equality.

The other six modules, on the other hand, are specifically developed for current and potential women-leaders of primary, secondary and tertiary cooperatives. The exclusiveness of these modules to women is meant to respond to the problem of insignificant representation of women in the leadership of cooperatives. It rests on the premise that men are substantially positioned in the leadership structures of cooperatives, and training assistance needs to exclusively target women to enable them to adequately position themselves in these structures.

To effectively participate in the training activities of this manual, the sole qualification sought from each trainee is functional literacy. Since this manual will be translated into the vernaculars of the trainees, functional literacy refers to the basic ability of the trainees to read and write in their own languages.

Structure and Contents

This manual starts with a list of suggestions on how to facilitate the opening of the training and the introduction of the trainees and the trainers, as well as the presentation of the objectives, contents and management of the training. All of these preliminary parts lead to the presentation of the seven training modules.

The first module entitled, “Gender in Cooperatives,” focuses on the discussion of gender issues and concerns in cooperatives, as well as of the different approaches on how to address the gender inequitable situation and on how to uplift the value and role of women in cooperatives to a level equal to men. This module is divided into five units or sessions. If all of the units will be taken up, the whole module is set to be completed in 13 1/2 hours or approximately 2 days.

The second module entitled, “The Fundamentals of Cooperatives,” equips the women-trainees with adequate knowledge on the basic features and functioning of cooperatives. The module is divided into four units or sessions. These four sessions are set to be taken up in 9 hours or approximately 1 1/2 days.

The third module, entitled “Personal Development,” provides the trainees with tools for self-analysis, reflection and development. This module is seen to be critical because the enhancement of the skills of women can only be translated into their more effective participation in leadership structures if they know how to constantly check themselves for deep-seated internalization of gender stereotypes, as well as to sustainably develop their self-esteem and confidence for leadership. The module has two units or sessions which are designed to be taken up in 6 hours or 1 day.

The fourth module entitled, “Requirements of Cooperative Leadership,” trains the women-trainees in key leadership skills. In schools of management, leadership skills are differentiated from management skills, as the former is seen to serve only as a part of the latter. Leadership skills refer essentially to people skills or skills on how to handle and lead the people, whereas management skills include not only leadership skills but as well as skills in other areas of the organization, such as the handling of financial and material resources, supervision of technological operations of the organization, and others. In cooperatives, however, leadership is seen to be more encompassing. Managers are seen to be responsible for the execution of the decisions of the Board of Directors and the day-to-day operations, whereas the Board of Directors are leaders in charge of the setting of the policies of the organization. This module includes five sessions that will train both leaders and managers in key leadership skills. These fives sessions are set to be taken up in 16 hours or approximately 2 days.

The fifth module entitled “Coping with Challenges, “ is designed to help women cope up with the challenges arising from their pursuance and assumption of leadership positions in cooperatives. This module is divided into four units or sessions. All of these sessions are set to be discussed in 12 1/2 hours or approximately 2 days.

The sixth module entitled, “Cooperative Enterprise Management,” seeks to equip the women-trainees with the necessary knowledge and skills that will make them capable of understanding the management of the business enterprise of their cooperative, and thereby effectively participate in decision-making processes pertaining to the operations of their cooperatives. This module is divided into four units or sessions which are set to be taken up in 19 hours or approximately 3 days.

The final module serves to sum-up the six preceding modules. It aims to elicit the commitment of women-trainees to the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives by working for the increase in the number of willing and capable women in its leadership positions.

In summary, the seven modules, including the introductory session, are designed to be conducted in a total of 12 days. Since it may be impossible for women to devote this straight number of days for training, the seven modules can be undertaken in a staggered schedule. *This means that the training schedule must be adapted to the time convenience of women-leaders. Adequate assistance for the practical gender needs of women must also be provided to make them available for the scheduled training days.*

Methodology

A variety of training methods are used to assist the trainees to actively and critically understand, and to harness their own views and skills on the different topics of the seven training modules. These training methods include: workshops, games, creative arts, creative lectures, modeling,

demonstration, role play and case studies. The underpinning learning principles of the use of these diverse methods are the following:

- The learners, as adults, carry with them their wealth of life experiences to the training process. To effectively stimulate their minds, the best if not the only way is to make the learning content and process relevant to these experiences.
- The brains of human beings are composed of the right and left hemisphere. The left hemisphere, which is more popularly known as the "left brain," functions in a logical and analytical way. It uses words as its language of expression. The right hemisphere, or more popularly called as the "right brain," on the other hand, is the creative or artistic side of the brain. It expresses itself through creative arts, actions and metaphors.

  When there is a balanced use of the right and left brain, the potentials of the human minds are expanded and maximized. Comprehension and retention are also optimally achieved at this state of mind. Based on this understanding of the workings of the human brain, the learning methods used in this manual attempt to equally activate the trainees' left and right brains.
- Trainees' attention to the learning contents is effectively achieved if the method not only excites their minds, but as well as entertains them. This manual, hence, tries to be very creative in selecting learning methods that amuse and tickle the playfulness and sense of humor of the trainees. Of course, the use of this learning principle should depend on the culture of the participants.

The steps in facilitating each unit or session, including games, workshops, roles plays and other structured learning exercises, of each of the seven modules are explained in detail in this manual. Nonetheless, to make the learning contents and process more adoptive to the specific culture, experiences and needs of the trainees, the trainers must be prepared with their own case studies which reflect the particular conditions of the participants. Since the conditions of the trainees vary, these case studies cannot be provided in this manual. As a form of assistance to the trainers, however, some guidelines in regard to the preparation and format of these cases, as well as on the use of the case approach in training are here provided.

Guidelines in Preparing and Using Case Studies for Training

Case studies for training have three parts: case report, case discussion and case analysis (Pigors & Pigors, 1961). Dividing the case studies into these three parts will enable the trainers to think deeply about how to effectively make use of this method in training. Each part has its own features and special ways of being done.

A case report is the content to be discussed and analyzed. It is, essentially, a narrative of a real-life situation where fictitious names of people and places are used to preserve the confidentiality of some information. A little deviation from the real situation is necessary if the case is controversial. This is to protect and respect the real people involved in the case. For a case report to be an effective teaching tool, it has to be:

- Specific. The situation, people and places, with fictitious names, must be concrete.
- Written in a structure and language that facilitates easy understanding and comprehension.
- Titled interestingly and opened dramatically to immediately attract the attention of the reader.

- Relevant to the learning topic being discussed.

Case reports can be classified according to its purpose, and length. Based on the learning purpose, the case can be on a model individual, group/organization, system or situation for emulation, or on a problematic case for resolution. Based on the length of case, a case can be short, written in two-page letter-size bond paper or less. This is usually called “caselet.” A case can also be long and detailed. This, on the other hand, is called a “comprehensive case.”

Case discussion is the process of clarifying to the trainees what the case report is all about. The case can be presented to the whole group orally, in writing, through role simulation, or a combination of all of these case presentation methods. Whatever is the case presentation method used, the discussion should end with small groups of participants having a list of the key points being supplied by the case.

Case analysis involves the listing — still in small groups — of the key messages of the case. If this is a problematic case, the key messages include issues and concerns. These issues and concerns are classified into major and secondary ones, then the decision-making areas are identified, and multiple options on how to resolve these issues are generated. The analysis of a problematic case ends with a final decision on how to resolve the issues. This process of analysis is done in the light of the objectives of the module and the specific session.

Guidelines on the Translation and Adaptation of the Manual Package

Since this manual was developed for trainers of cooperatives in the whole Asia-Pacific region, adaptation to the specific culture of a country and translation to the language of the trainers and trainees are very important. To keep the adaptation and translation faithful to this original version, however, some guidelines have to be followed. On the adaptation of the manual to a specific culture, the following serves as the guidelines:

- In some sessions, alternative activities to achieve the objectives are provided. The trainer may choose the set of activities that best fits the culture of the trainees.
- The use of cases, which reflect the particular experiences and culture of the trainees, is the best adaptation method in many sessions. The guidelines on the preparation and use of cases for training provided in this manual must, however, be followed. Moreover, the trainer must be sensitive to the appropriate time for the effective use of this training method. This means that the case method is not effective in all situations.
- A session guide can be modified to fit the culture of the trainees for as long as the session objectives are met, and the learning principles and goals of this manual in regard to the achievement of gender equity and equality in cooperatives are sustained.

Translation of this manual to the vernaculars of the trainers and trainees is very much welcomed. To keep this translation consistent with the original version, however, the translator must not only be familiar with the English language and the respective languages of the trainees, but must also have a basic knowledge of cooperatives, of gender issues and of the advocacy for gender equity and equality. These qualifications will help ensure that the use of words, sentences and paragraphs remains true to the original words and principles of this manual. Aside from these qualifications, ICA-ROAP and ILO’s written permission of the translation plan must also be sought.

Evaluation Forms

To assess the learning experiences — process and outputs as well as gains, affirmations, doubts and confusions — of the participants, per module evaluation forms can be developed, in accordance with the participants' level and distributed at the end of the module. If time allows and if the participants are willing, it will be more effective to let a committee of them formed during the introductory session, synthesize the answers to the evaluation questionnaires, and present the evaluation outputs to the participants and training staff.

Aside from the evaluation of each module, a quick check of the participants' learning experience can be done after each session. A list of questions is provided at the end of some of the session guides for quick checking, while more can be developed as per the needs and level of the participants.

Introductory Session

I. Objectives

1. To acquaint the participants with each other and with the training staff.
2. To create a conducive, comfortable learning atmosphere
3. To level-off the expectations of the participants with the prepared training design — contents and methods.
4. To set up a mechanism for managing the training seminar with the participants.

II. Preparatory Activities Before the Training Period

1. In the letter of invitation sent to targeted participants, specify a requirement for the invited participant to bring a 1x1 recent colored picture when attending the training.
2. During the registration of the participants, ask them to complete the participant's profile form and paste their 1 x 1 recent colored picture in the upper right corner of the form.
3. Prepare and place a cork board in a conspicuous place. Pin on this board the participants' and trainers' profile forms.
4. Title and arrange the board and profile forms in a way that attracts the attention of the participants.

UNIT 1
Getting to Know Each Other

Objectives:

1. To acquaint the participants with each other and with the training staff.
2. To create a conducive, comfortable learning atmosphere

Time: One hour

Materials Required :

1. Name tags with nicknames, acronyms of cooperatives, and place of origin of all participants and staff.
2. Manila paper, pentel pens, masking tapes
3. Places for small group discussion

Steps:

1. Form the participants into triads. Then instruct the members to share in their triads the following:
   - Name
   - Cooperative
   - Place of origin (country, province, municipality)
   - Most admired person
   - Most important or unforgettable event in life.
2. After all the triads have finished their task, reconvene them in the plenary hall. In the big group, request each triad to introduce their members — names, the names of their cooperatives and places of origin.
3. When everyone has been introduced, call on the person assigned to give the welcome and opening remarks.

Caution/Hints/Tips

Depending on their training practices and culture, the participants may expect a more lively and entertaining introductory session . If this is the case, you can choose from the alternative activities provided below or you can develop your own introduction format and style. Be aware of cultural sensitivities towards having male and female mixed groups, and deal appropriately.

Variations:

Aside from the above introductory activity, the following are alternative sets of activities to introduce the participants and staff to each other.

Option B: Introduction with Action and Group Dancing

1. Place all seats in a semi-circular arrangement. Number of chairs must be enough for all training staff and participants. Put a small table in front, and place all name tags on this table. Each name tag should contain the nickname, acronym of cooperatives, and province/country of origin of a participant/staff. Ensure that all participants and staff have name tags on the table.
2. Invite all the participants and staff to sit; then call on the moderator or anybody assigned to give the "Opening Remarks."
3. Facilitate an "Introduction and Welcome" Ritual. Explain the process, then immediately proceed with the ritual:
   - You will pick one name tag, and call on its owner creatively (i.e. you can say "the owner of this tag is someone who I will get to know the first time here in this seminar; and I am very excited to know her; she is _____; or if you already know her, you can say something about her in not more than three short sentences.)
   - The owner will stand up and introduce herself by saying her:
     – Complete name
     – Nickname
     – The name of her cooperative
     – Where she comes from (province and country)
     – Her feelings at the moment which she will share with an action.
   - Then everyone will stand up to welcome her by saying "Welcome _____ (nickname) while imitating her action when she shared her feelings.
   - Before returning to her seat, she, in turn, will pick up one name tag and call on its owner. The same process shall be followed.
4. When everyone has introduced herself, including the staff, then invite everyone to sing:

   Will you be my new friend?
   Will I be your new friend?
   Say yes and shake our hands. (Find someone to shake hands with.)
   (Repeat first two lines)

   Say yes and everybody shake our hands.
   La..la..la..la…. (invite everyone to dance)
   Repeat five times.
5. Let the participants rest for five minutes.

Option C: "Complete the Boxes" Game

1. Give the participants letter-sized (8" x 11") colored papers. There must be different colored papers such that only five participants will end up having the same colored papers. Each colored paper should contain the following*:

Participant who knows more than 2 languages or dialects	Involved in other organizations aside from cooperative	Participant who sings well
Board or committee member of a cooperative	Participant not from your country or province or cooperative	Potential leader of a cooperative (not yet occupying any leadership position)

* Contents can be changed by the trainers based on their knowledge of the participants.

2. Explain the following rules of the game:
   - Each participant will fill - up the boxes in his/her papers by looking for other participants who fit the characteristics specified in the boxes. One name should appear only once in the whole paper. Names of six participants must hence be gathered — one name for each box.
   - Once the six boxes have been filled up, the participant must look for the other participants with the same colored papers. The group with the same colored papers to first complete their boxes of names will win the game.
   - The winning group will receive a price from the trainers at the end of the training.
3. When the above rules and procedures are clear to all participants, tell them to start with the game.
4. When at least three groups have completed the tasks, reconvene all the participants. Then ask each small group to introduce their members:
   - Name/ Nickname
   - Name of Cooperative
   - Place of origin (country, province, municipality)
5. When all groups have introduced their members, call on the person assigned to give the welcome and opening remarks.

Quick Check:

- Can you remember the names of at least 5 people who you have met only in this seminar? Ask for 3 to 5 volunteers to mention names of 5 new acquaintances.
- Are there people whose names you can't remember at this point? Request for 2 volunteers to point people whose names s/he can't remember. Ask for these people to say their nicknames again.

UNIT 2
Leveling-Off of Expectations and Training Design

Objectives:

1. To identify expectations of participants that can be and cannot be satisfied in this training seminar.
2. To elicit the commitment of the participants to actively participate for the success of the training.

Time: One hour

Required Materials :

1. Simple drawing of a tree as big as a manila paper.
2. Two sets of 2" x 8" sheets of paper. One set is color brown, and the other set color green. Give one sheet per set to each participant (total of two sheets of paper per participant)).
3. Yellow papers cut in mango form (size — one fourth of a short bond paper). One per participant.
4. Blue papers cut like a cloud (size — one fourth of a short bond paper). One participant each.
5. Yellow circles (size — one fourth of a short bond paper)
6. Drawing of a cloud — size must balance with the tree;
7. Drawing of a sun — size must balance with the tree and cloud.
8. Board or wall where the illustrated tree, sun and cloud can fit together.

Steps:

1. Paste on the board the manila-paper size tree.
2. Give each participant a 2" x 8" brown paper, “2” x 8" green paper, yellow paper cut in mango form, a yellow circle, and a cloud-like cut paper.
3. Ask each participant to write in the 2" x 8" brown paper her expected contents of the training; in the 2" x 8" green paper her expected learning methods to be used in the training; in the mango-paper her expected outputs of the training; in the cloud-like paper her expectations from the training staff; and in the yellow circle her expectations from her co-participants.
4. When everyone has finished writing her expectations, divide the participants into five small groups. Assign the summarizing of the expectations to each small group — first group for the expectations on contents, second group on expected learning methods, third group on expected outputs, fourth group on expectations from the training staff, and the last group on expectations from co-participants. Each participant should hence give their accomplished papers to respective groups assigned for the topics written in the papers.

5. Ask each summary group to write the summary of expectations in the same types of papers. In the plenary reporting,
   - The brown papers — expected contents — shall be pasted at the roots of the tree.
   - The green papers — expected learning methods — at the trunk of the tree.
   - The mango papers — expected outputs — at the crown of the tree.
   - The clouds — expectation from staff — in the clouds.
   - Yellow circles — expectations from co-participants — in the sun.
6. Present the prepared design of the training — objectives, flow of contents, methods. Then identify which expectations can be and cannot be satisfied by the training.
7. Elicit the agreement of the participants to proceed with the training despite some limitations (if there are expectations that cannot be met.).

Variations

If you find the above activity complicated and time-consuming, you may do any of the following alternative activities:

Option B:

1. Divide the participants into small groups of five. Then ask each group to share and synthesize their expectations on the:
   - Contents and outputs of the training
   - Process and methods of training
   - Co-participants
   - Trainers and staff
2. Ask all the groups to share their synthesized expectations written in a manila paper to the big group.
3. Synthesize the answers of all the groups.
4. Present the prepared design of the training — objectives, flow of contents, methods. Then identify which expectations can be and cannot be satisfied by the training.
5. Elicit the agreement of the participants to proceed with the training despite some limitations (if there are expectations that cannot be met.).

Option C:

1. During the registration period, ask the registering participants to write their expectations in small sheets of paper provided for this purpose.
2. Gather all the answered sheets of papers, then synthesize the expectations of the participants.
4. Present the prepared design of the training — objectives, flow of contents, methods. Then identify which expectations can be and cannot be satisfied by the training.
5. Elicit the agreement of the participants to proceed with the training despite some limitations (if there are expectations that cannot be met.).

UNIT 3
Participatory Management of the Training

Objective:

To set a participatory mechanism of managing the training seminar.

Time: Fifteen minutes

Steps:

1. Identify training tasks that can be shared with the participants, such as:
   - Time keeping
   - Recap of activities and discussions of previous day;
   - Ice breakers
   - News update (what is happening inside and outside of the training venue)
   - Cultural/Solidarity Night
   - Physical Arrangement (Conference Hall)
   - Others
2. Divide the participants into small groups. Each group can be assigned a task to be done for the whole duration of the seminar, or a day to do all the tasks.
3. Present the house policies of the training venue.

Leadership Training Manual for Women Leaders of Cooperatives

MODULE

1

Gender in Cooperatives

MODULE 1
Gender in Co-operatives

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MODULE 1

Gender in Cooperatives

Overview

I. OBJECTIVES

This module is a three-and-a-half-day training activity which aims to:

1. Facilitate an understanding of the importance of discussing gender concerns in cooperatives.
2. Raise awareness of the participants on the gender socialization process, on gender issues in Asian societies and in cooperatives in general.
3. Enhance the knowledge of the participants on basic gender concepts.
4. Train the participants in applying these gender concepts in surfacing, understanding and analyzing gender issues in their societies and in their cooperatives.
5. Develop in the participants the basic trust in women's capacity to make a difference in cooperatives.
6. Instill in them the commitment to actively participate in the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives.

II. OVERVIEW OF MODULE UNITS

Unit	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 1: Gender Socialization and Culture	This session aims to develop among the participants an analytical awareness of: 1. Their views, beliefs, attitudes towards women and men. 2. Societal structures that support and preserve the traditional view on women and men. 3. How the patriarchal orientation is reflected in cooperative leadership structures.	• Gender socialization process • Patriarchy • Societal structures that support and preserve patriarchy • How patriarchy is reflected in the leadership structures of cooperatives • The advocacy for cultural change — gender equity and equality	Six and a half hours
Unit 2: The Cooperative Identity	1. To elicit from the trainees their own conception of the nature and purposes of cooperatives; 2. To enhance and deepen the trainees' understanding of the nature, values and principles of cooperatives from a gender perspective.	• Trainees' conception of the nature, values and principles of cooperatives based on their own experiences; • ICA's Statement on Cooperative Identity as it relates with Gender Equality and Equity	Three hours

Unit	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 3: Gender Issues in the Asian Context	1. Develop in the trainees an understanding of the manifestations of gender bias in Asia. 2. Facilitate an initial analysis of the implications of women discrimination to the personal development of women and men, and to the growth of families, communities and nations.	Manifestations of gender bias in the : • Division of labour between women and men; • Access to and control of resources • Different forms of violence against women. • Low self esteem and lack of self-confidence of women in general to assume leadership roles	Three hours
Unit 4: Gender Issues in Cooperatives	1. Help the trainees make an informed analysis of the manifestations of gender bias in cooperatives. 2. Encourage them to support and get involved in the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives.	• Manifestations of gender bias in Cooperatives. • Effects of gender bias on women and men, and on the whole co-operative. • Platform of Action to enhance women's leadership in cooperatives	Two hours
Unit 5: Importance of Women to Cooperatives	To raise the awareness of the trainees on the distinctive competence of women and on the importance of women's participation in the leadership and decision making bodies of cooperatives.	• Distinctive competence of women. • Reasons why women should have an equal share in coop leadership and decision making.	Three hours
Unit 6: Gender Analysis and Approaches	1. Have a clear definition and differentiation of the terms, sex and gender. 2. Be aware of basic analytical concepts and tools that can be used in analyzing the manifestations of gender bias against women in Asian cultures and in cooperatives. 3. Acquire a general knowledge of the different responses to gender issues , namely the Women in Development (WID), Women and Development (WAD) and Gender and Development (GAD) programs and initiatives.	• Definition and differentiation of the terms, sex and gender. • Gender analytical concepts and tools through which the manifestations of gender bias can be analyzed. • Evolution of responses to gender issues — from Women in Development (WID) to Gender and Development (GAD). • Gender and Development as the current popular approach to gender issues	Two and a half hours

Unit	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Continuation of Unit 6	4. Develop a basic understanding of gender practical and strategic needs that, if addressed, will lead to the realization of gender equality and equity. 5. Acknowledge the advocacy for gender equality and equity as not a “war of the sexes,” nor an anti-male initiative, but as an endeavor that regards both women and men as victims of gender issues, and as stakeholders of the struggle for gender equality.		

UNIT 1
Gender Socialization and Culture

MAIN MESSAGE :

Gender refers to socially constructed or culturally determined characteristics of women and men, and to the kind of relations that women and men have. Essentially, hence, talking about gender includes a discussion of what the socio-cultural environment says about being a woman or a man, and about their normative relations in all levels of the societal structure — from the family, school, church, organizations, workplaces to global political and economic structures. Gender relations are dynamic and change over time, and vary considerably within and between societies and cultures. A basic question which may be asked in introducing gender discussions in cooperatives is: why? The answer that this session and the whole manual puts forward is that unequal gender relations serve as a major stumbling block to the fulfillment of the principles and achievement of the goals of cooperatives.

This session seeks to bring the participants to an insightful awareness of the importance of discussing gender concerns in their cooperatives and in their whole lives. To achieve this, this session includes an evocative discussion of the following:

- Gender socialization process:
- Patriarchy
- Societal structures that support and preserve the patriarchal view about women and men.
- How patriarchy is reflected in the leadership structures of cooperatives.
- The advocacy for gender equity and equality, and hence, for cultural change.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to develop among the participants an analytical awareness of:

1. Their views, beliefs and attitudes towards being a woman or man which have resulted from their experiences with their families, especially their parents or caregivers; their schools, especially their teachers and peers; their church, especially their respected spiritual leaders; and others.
2. The societal structures — social, religion, political and economic systems — that support and preserve the traditional attitudes towards being a woman or a man.
3. How the traditional views about women and men have, in general, affected the relations of women and men in the households, workplaces and organizations, such as the cooperatives.

Time Requirement: five and half hours

Activity 1: Reflection on own gender socialization process: 2 hours 30 minutes

a) Individual reflection: 30 minutes
b) Triad sharing: 30 minutes
c) Integration with another triad: 30 minutes
d) Plenary presentation and Synthesis: 60 minutes

Activity 2: Gender Myths Exercise: 1 hour 45 minutes

a) Presentation and discussion on list of gender myths: 15 minutes
b) Small group discussions and preparation of trees: 45 minutes
c) Reporting: and Synthesis: 45 minutes

Activity 3: Lecture: 45 minutes

Quick check: 30 minutes

Materials Required :

1. Handout #1: My personal gender history
2. Manila paper, markers and masking tapes
3. Pre-cut root-shaped and fruit-shaped cards (mangoes, guavas and durians) , and 2" x 8" cards
4. Board
5. Overhead projector
6. Visual aids for a creative lecture

Steps:

The whole session is divided into the following three activities:

- Activity 1: Reflection on own gender socialization experiences.

  This part of the session will raise the participants' awareness of their present views and attitudes about gender, and on how they acquired them.
- Activity 2: Gender myths exercise.

  Here, the participants will analyze the effects of their own gender myths on the relations of women and men at the households, workplaces and cooperatives;
- Activity 3: Lecture on gender, socialization, and patriarchy, and on how they are experienced in cooperatives.

Activity 1: Reflection on Own Gender Socialization Process

1. Distribute to the participants the attached handout, entitled "My Personal Gender History."
2. Ask the participants to individually answer the questions in the handout in not more than 30 minutes.
3. When all the participants have answered all the questions, form them into triads. Give each triad 30 minutes or more (depending on the breadth and depth of the answers) for sharing.

4. After the sharing, each triad will consolidate their answers and will, hence, come out with a summary of answers to the following:
    - What did our parents teach us about being girls or boys, and about being women or men?
    - What did we learn from our peers, schools(books), church/religion, communities, media about being girls or boys, and being women or men?
    - In building a family, what did the society say about the roles of a woman and a man, and their relations?
    - What traits, capacities and involvements do we have now, as women and men, which can be traced to the influences of these significant people, groups and institutions in our social environment?
5. Then, ask each triad to find another triad with which they will integrate their answers. Give each small group, composed of two triads, 30 minutes to integrate their answers and prepare a creative presentation (with drawing, song, poem, skit, or others) of the summary of their outputs to the big group.
6. Reconvene all the participants in the plenary hall, and facilitate the presentation of the outputs of all the groups. After all groups have presented, synthesize the presentations. Then, proceed to the next exercise.

Activity 2: Gender Myths Exercise

1. From the list of statements about being women or men, and about their relations at home, workplaces, schools, etc., mentioned by the participants as gender concepts learned from their gender socialization experiences, choose ten most typical statements. In this exercise, these statements will be called gender myths because of their origins. Examples of gender myths include:
    - Women as child bearers must stay at home and take care of the children.
    - A man is the head of the family, and a woman must at all times submit to the decisions of her man.
    - Managers are men, and secretaries are women.
    - At the end of the day, men, because of their work outside of the house, are more tired than women. Hence, women must let men rest after their work, and must serve them for their needs.
    - Women are emotional, and men are logical and rational.
    - Paid work, done generally by men outside of the house, is more important than the unpaid work of women at home.
    - Quarrels between husband and wife are too personal/private for the community to get involved in.
    - Women should not act aggressively especially in the presence of men.
    - Many rape victims are to be blamed for their own fate.
    - Children suffer when their mothers work outside the home.
2. Present the ten selected gender myths to the participants. Ask the participants if they have more myths

3. When list of myths has been finalized, ask the participants to go back to their small groups (composed of two triads) to do the following tasks:
   - Sharing on whether each one believes or not in each of the gender myths in the list. The output will be the number of group members agreeing or not to each statement.
   - Analysis of the implications of these myths to the division of tasks and roles, of women and men, and their decision-making processes at home, workplaces and organizations, such as cooperatives.
   - Listing of social institutions that perpetuate these gender myths.
4. For a creative presentation of their group outputs, ask the participants to write their answers to the above tasks in a large sketch of a tree.
   - Roots: the list of gender myths
   - Trunk/branches: social institutions that disseminate and inculcate the gender myths to the people.
   - Fruits: Effects of the gender myths. The fruits may have different shapes and color to represent different areas of action. One shape and color, say yellow mangoes, for effects in the households; another, say green guavas, for effects in the workplaces; and another, say brown durians, in organizations, such as cooperatives.
5. Ask each group to present their tree to the big group. From the trees presented by all small groups, use another big sketch tree, which must be prepared beforehand, to synthesize their answers.

Activity 3: Lecture

1. Give a lecture on the following points. This lecture should serve to integrate the preceding two activities.
   - Interaction between the socio-cultural environment and human individuals.
   - Definition of gender, socialization and gender socialization. Include distinctions between biological (sex) and social (gender) differences.
   - The patriarchal culture into which people are socialized.
   - Societal structures that support and preserve the patriarchal view about women and men.
   - Effects of traditional gender views on the relations of women and men in the household and workplaces .
   - Initial analysis of the effects on cooperatives
     – General picture of the leadership structures of cooperatives in Asia — percentage of women and men.
     – The advocacy for gender equity and equality as an advocacy for cultural change.
     – Introduction to the next topic where cooperatives will be presented as an enabling environment of the advocacy for gender equity and equality.
2. Emphasize that if one will profoundly understand the Cooperative Identity and Principles, as defined by the International Cooperative Alliance, one will say that “yes,

cooperatives support gender equity and equality as one of the keys towards cooperative development and a successful cooperative movement." At this point, hence, say that the next session discusses the Cooperative Identity and Principles from a gender perspective.

3. Before proceeding to the next topic, give the participants 15-minute break to reflect and internalize the lessons of the first session.

Caution/Hints:

Some participants may be attending the training for simple curiosity, and may not still be convinced of the importance of tackling gender issues and of working for gender equal and equitable relations in cooperatives. At this point of the training, know if indeed there are participants who think this way. This can best be done by simply letting the thoughts, feelings and sentiments of the participants on the topic surface. It will not help at all to argue, but always encourage them to stay on and participate in all sessions of this module.

Variations:

Option A:

For the second activity, Gender Myths Exercise, instead of asking all the groups to discuss the effects of gender myths on the relations of women and men in all mentioned areas — households, workplaces and organizations – you may simply assign two groups to talk about one area: two groups for the effects of gender myths on gender relations in the households, another two groups on relations in the workplaces, and another two groups on relations in the organizations including communities. If this assigning will be done then ask them to draw different sketches of trees. This option will lessen the amount of time for the activity.

Option B:

Another way of doing the second activity is to simply have one big sketch of tree for all groups. This will be posted in front. Since same gender myths are discussed by all the groups, then the roots will already be posted even prior to the reporting. The small groups, hence, will simply post in the trunks and branches, the social institutions that perpetuate these myths. These may be written in pre-cut 2" x 8" size cards. As the fruits of the tree, the small groups will simply paste the effects of gender myths, written fruit-shaped cards. For easier viewing, one shape may be used for the effects on gender relations in the households, another shape for the effects on relations in the workplaces, and another shape for the effects on gender relations in the organizations.

Quick Check

After the 15-minute break, and before proceeding to the next topic, ask the participants about their thoughts and feelings about the whole session.

1. What are your significant learnings from the whole session?
2. Which part of the session created more impact on you?
3. Do you think cooperatives should include among their concerns, gender? Why?

Handout

My Personal Gender History

CHILDHOOD →	ADOLESCENT STAGE →	EARLY ADULTHOOD (CAREER/ WORK DAYS) →	STAGE OF BUILDING A FAMILY
When I was a child, my parents/ caregivers taught me that:	**When I was a teen-ager, my family, teachers, religion taught me that:**	**When I was choosing my career/work, I learned that:**	**In building and nurturing a family, I learned that:**
Little girls should behave this way: _____	As a young woman, I should behave this way: _____	Careers/ work associated with women are: _____	Women should take the following roles: _____
Toys/games for girls are: _____	Hobbies/interests of a young woman should be: _____	At work, the capacities and attitudes expected of women are:	In making decisions women should be:_____
Little boys should behave this way: _____	As a young man, I should behave this way: _____	Careers/ work associated with men are: _____	Men should take the following roles: _____
Toys/games for boys are: _____	Hobbies/interests of a young man should be: _____	At work, the capacities and attitudes expected of men are:	In making decisions men should be:_____

Trainers' Reference Material

Socialization into a Patriarchal Culture

The following are concepts which help explain how women and men are socialized into the patriarchal culture, and thereby imbibe its values, norms and social practices.

1. Interaction between the socio-cultural environment and human individuals:

- The socio-cultural environment affects human individuals. Many researches have shown that cultural traditions and social practices regulate, express and transform the human person. In fact, this is a central theme of the social sciences, particularly of sociology, anthropology, and social and cultural psychology.
- It will then be difficult to understand a human individual if the process of understanding does not include any attempt to understand his/her socio-cultural and physical environment, as well as his/her specific situational contexts. (Shweder, 1991)
- In the same vein, a human person shapes his/her socio-cultural environment by the meaning that s/he, together with other individuals in his/her community or society, gives to the different elements of the social environment, and his/her way of interacting with them. (Shweder, 1991)
- The socio-cultural environment becomes an integral part of the human person, and the person an integral part of the socio-cultural environment through socialization.

2. Socialization

- Socialization is the "process by which persons acquire the knowledge, skills and dispositions that make them more or less able members of their society." (Brim, 1966 as quoted by Dion).
- The function of socialization, from the perspective of the society, is to transmit its culture and encourage new members to participate in its established social relationships. (Elkin, 1960)
- The society has a patterned consistency so that one can predict, within limits, how people will behave, think, and feel. This patterned consistency is reflected in the following: (Elkin, 1960)
  - Societal norms and values. Norms refer to those patterns of behavior that are common in the society or a given social group. Values are those ideas which we hold to be right or wrong.
  - Status and roles in society. A status is a position in the social structure, and a role is the expected behavior of someone who holds a given status. We know how to deal with others or behave in certain situations because we know the rights and obligations associated with each status. Each person has many statuses which define his/her expected behavior in given situations.
  - Social institutions (e.g. families, schools, church, etc) focus on a segment of life and consists of many norms and statuses. One such institution, as earlier mentioned, is the school whose primary function is to transmit, in a more or less formal way, a large share of the intellectual traditions of the society. Within the school there are norms relating to attendance, sports events, courses and holiday celebrations; and

patterned status relationships among the teachers, students, principal, and custodians. The church, hospital, stock market, and congressional system are other examples of institutions which are the foci for the organization of many activities. These institutions continue to operate over a period of many years despite a regular turn over of personnel because each new generation is "socialized" into the appropriate patterns.

– Cultural and group subdivisions within the larger society. One major subdivision is social class. Individuals in the society vary in the amount of wealth, prestige, and power they posses, and associated with these are differences in values and ways of life. Social class rankings may partake of all of these elements.

- In order to function in this society, a person must have at least a minimum knowledge about the society into which s/he will socialize, and a minimum knowledge of its culture which defines the appropriate thoughts, feelings and behavior a member should have in different situations. S/he must know what to expect from people of given statuses, how s/he himself fits in with the various groupings, what is considered proper and improper in given situations, and the range of acceptable behavior in those segments of social life which are rapidly changing. (Elkin, 1960)
- Childhood socialization is characterized by the acquisition of fundamental values, such as how a boy and a girl should think, behave and feel. One example is the common script in rearing up boys: "boys don't cry." Another example of a script in rearing children is: "Stay in one place, (name of girl). Girls should not play aggressively as boys."

  In contrast, adult socialization emphasizes various role-related behaviors. During adulthood, a person's adaptation to various roles, such as being a mother, or a father, or a wife or a husband, has been emphasized as a central feature of socialization. Again to emphasize, role expectations, performance, evaluation and sanctioning are determined by culture.
- The dominant Asian culture is the patriarchal culture. It is into this type of society where individuals are socialized. As a result of socialization, people acquire the norms, values and practices of the patriarchal culture, and unwittingly integrate this into their cognitive, affective and behavioral systems.
- As having imbibed the norms, values and practices of a culture through socialization, a person inevitably brings this culture to all of his/her social interactions, including his/her organizations, such as the cooperative.

3. Gender Socialization

- Gender refers to socially constructed or culturally determined characteristics of women and men, and to the kind of relations that women and men, according to societal norms, should have.
- Gender socialization is the process whereby women and men learn the "proper" ways a woman or a man should think, feel and behave, based on their assumption of their gender roles.
- Gender roles are the activities ascribed to women and men on the basis of perceived differences. Division of labor is a term used in gender literature to mean the roles and tasks assigned to women and men by the society on the basis of perceived gender characteristics and attributes, instead of abilities and skills.

4. The Patriarchal Culture

- Defined as a social system characterized by male domination over women. Another classic definition is: "our society … is a patriarchy. The fact is evident at once if one recalls that the military, industry, technology, universities, science, political offices, finances—in short, every avenue of power within the society, including the coercive force of the police, is entirely in male hands." (Kate Millet, quoted).
- The material base of patriarchy is men's control over women's labor power. That control is maintained by excluding women from access to necessary economically productive resources and by restricting women's sexuality. Men exercise their control in receiving personal service work from women, in not having to do housework or rear children, in having access to women's bodies for sex, and in feeling and being powerful.
- The patriarchal worldview, hence, stresses dichotomy (men versus women, masculine versus feminine, human versus non-human forms, etc), hierarchy, where one is superior over the other, and hence, domination, discrimination and exploitation.

5. Effects of the Patriarchal Culture on Women

- A dilemma confronted by women is their being encouraged to achieve provided their level of achievement did not conflict with parental and male-peer expectations about their adult roles as spouse and parent. These expectations were revealed in various ways, such as advising women to conceal their intellectual competence in the company of male peers or parental encouragement to pursue goals such as marriage. The intellectually competent woman was regarded with some hostility or at least ambivalence, especially in contexts involving open competition and comparison with men.
- Because women are confined to their homes and to types of work that are associated with their traditional roles in their houses, the capacities honed in them become very limited. On the other hand, women who have transcended this situation and have proven themselves to be skilled in the works associated with men as well are generally ridiculed, and not recognized.

6. Structures that support patriarchy

- Social structures (e.g. families, etc.): different perceptions of women's and men's social roles — the man is seen as the head of the household and chief breadwinner, and the woman is seen as nurturer and caregiver.
- Political structures (e.g. government, political parties) — differences in the ways in which women and men assume and share power and authority — men are more involved in national and higher level politics, while women are more involved at the local level, particularly in activities linked to their domestic roles.
- Educational structures (e.g. schools): Differences educational opportunities and expectations of girls and boys — family resources are directed to boy's rather girl's education; girls are streamed into less-challenging academic tracks.
- Economic (e.g. workplaces, business corporations): Differences in women's and men's access to lucrative careers, and control of financial and other productive resources, such as credits and loans, land ownership.
- Religious structure (e.g. Church, etc): all religions are patriarchal in orientation —

God is portrayed as male; in religious institutions, women have less important role as compared to men.

7. Patriarchy in Cooperatives

- The general condition of cooperatives where its leadership is dominated by men is a clear indication of how the societal patriarchal culture has permeated the cooperative movement.
- Data: (AWCF, 1999)
  Credit Union League of Thailand:
  Chairpersons: 87% male, 13% female (1998)
  Board of Directors (BOD) in Primary Level Credit Unions:
  65% male, 35% female (1997)
  BOD in national level: 87% male, 13% female.

Japanese Consumers' Cooperative Union (1997)
Co-op Managers: 98% male, 2% female
BOD: 35% male, 65% female.

National Confederation of Cooperatives (Philippines) (1998)
Co-op Managers: 43% male, 57% female
BOD: 65% male, 35% female
Chairpersons: 73% male, 27% female.

8. Cultures can change

- With the introduction of new social practices, culture can change. The society into which a person is born is not static; there are conflicting pressures, a diffusion of materials and ideas, and general trends. For example, one can trace over a period of time the movement of families to the suburbs, the increasing emancipation of women; changing patters of child rearing, etc.
- With the growing awareness of the worth and capacity of women and the increasing clamor for gender equity and equality, even the major religious of the world are being reinterpreted, and hence, rediscovered.

9. Position of the Cooperative Movement on the Patriarchal Worldview

- An examination of the Cooperative Identify and Universal Principles as formulated by the International Cooperative Alliance (ICA) will show the cooperatives' espousal of the principles of gender equity and equality. ICA's definition of a cooperative, and list of cooperative principles imply that only with the adoption and fulfillment of the gender equity and equality principle can cooperatives achieve their utmost goal of economic and human development.
- This position of cooperatives against patriarchy and for gender equity and equality is shown in its: 1) mandate to provide equal treatment to women and men; and 2) recognition of the integration of the positive masculine and feminine traits — not as traits traditionally associated with men and women respectively, but as traits that can be integrated and synergized in a person — women and men — and in an organization.
- This shall be the topic of our next session.

Note to the Trainers:

In explaining the above concepts, you may use local examples that are familiar to the participants.

References:

1. AWCF(1999). A development link: A look at women, coops and the community. Philippines: AWCF.
2. Dion, Karen, Socialization in Adulthood.
3. Elkin, F. (1960). The child and society: The process of socialization. New York: Random House.
4. Shweder, R. (1991). Thinking through cultures: Expeditions in cultural psychology. USA: Harvard College.

UNIT 2
The Cooperative Identity

MAIN MESSAGE

As the international apex body representing cooperatives around the world, the International Cooperative Alliance (ICA) is the keeper of the cooperative principles. Since its organization in 1895, it has formulated and reformulated a set of principles that have guided cooperatives. The third and last one was made in 1995 and is now widely known as the ICA Statement on the Cooperative Identity. The ICIS differs from previous formulations in that it includes a clear definition of a cooperative, an identification of the values underpinning its belief system, and a statement of cooperative principles.

This session presents the 1995 *Statement on the Cooperative Identity* of ICA from a gender perspective. This is to show how the principles of gender equity and equality are integrated into the principles of cooperatives. The basic contents of this Statement are the following:

- ICA's definition of cooperative; and
- The universal values, ethics and principles of cooperatives.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives :

1. To elicit from the participants their own conception of the nature and purpose of cooperatives;
2. To enhance and deepen the participants understanding of the nature, values and principles of cooperatives from a gender perspective.
3. To demonstrate how the principles of gender equity and equality are reflected in ICA's Statement of Cooperative Identity.

Time : Three hours

1. Introduction: 5 minutes
2. Small group sharing: 45 minutes
3. Plenary reporting of small group outputs: 40 minutes (if there are 5 groups with 6 participants per group — 10 minutes per group; 10 minutes synthesis)
4. Lecture: 60 minutes
5. Quick Check Exercise: 30 minutes

Materials Required

1. Manila paper, markers and masking tape
2. Overhead projector for the lecture cum discussion.
3. Visual aids of the lecturer

Steps:

1. Explain the objectives of the session. These are written in the beginning part of this session guide.
2. Present to the participants the main contents of the session, which are: 1) Participants' sharing of their understanding of the nature of cooperatives based on their own experiences; and 2) Deepening lecture on the nature, values and principles of cooperatives as practiced in many parts of the globe, especially in the Asia-Pacific region.
3. For the sharing of the participants on their understanding of the nature of cooperatives, divide the participants into four to five small groups, and tell them that the output of their small group sharing will be their description of a cooperative — its nature, values and principles.

   For a creative description of the nature, values and principles of a cooperative, ask each small group to liken a cooperative to something that represents or symbolizes their understanding of what a cooperative is. With this process, each small group will, hence, think of a metaphor of a cooperative.

   A metaphor is something concrete, such as an object (stone, tree, car, house, body, light, etc.) or a situation/event/phenomenon (big waves, storm, silent flow of water, etc), that can be used to represent an idea, a quality, or a condition.

   Give them 45 minutes to discuss about the nature, values and principles of a cooperative based on their own experiences in cooperatives, and about the metaphor that best reflects this nature of a cooperative as well as its values and principles.
4. If the process of selecting a metaphor slows down the training and is found to be difficult by the participants, then you can suggest some examples, such as a house, the human body, a car, a tree, the ecological system, and others. You can give your suggestions when they are already in their small groups, and in a way that they can still own their decision. You can do this by giving them options to choose from. Just ensure that no two groups choose the same metaphor.
5. When all the small groups are ready with their outputs, then begin with the presentation of these outputs — illustrated in manila paper — to the big group.
6. As a way of integrating the reports of the small groups, highlight the key common points of the small groups on the nature, values, principles of a cooperative.
7. Deepen the discussion by giving a lecture on the *Statement on the Cooperative Identity* from a gender perspective. The Statement includes the following:
   - Definition of a Cooperative;
   - Cooperative Values and Principles
8. Present an example of a cooperative organizational model described in a house metaphor. This is in the attachment of this session guide.
9. Proceed to the Quick Check Exercise.

Caution/Hints:

During the small group sharing, move around to check the progress of each small group in

selecting their metaphor of a cooperative. Encourage the participants to be creative with their output.

The terms, nature, values and principles of a cooperative, may be too general for some participants. Tell them, however, to share their understanding of a cooperative based on their own definition of what these words are.

Variation:

Another way of discussing the nature, values and principles of a cooperative is to ask the small groups to make a "cooperative dish recipe." If this exercise will be chosen, then the title of the outputs of the small groups is "A Cooperative Dish Recipe."

1. Explain the following steps in making a "cooperative dish recipe."
    a) The ingredients of the dish will correspond to the key elements or characteristics of a gender-responsive cooperative.

        Questions to ask on the listing of ingredients:

        - When can a group of people be called a cooperative?

            In listing the ingredients, ask the participants to use terms similar to those in a recipe, such as "a bowl of ____, two tablespoon of ____, a cup of ____, etc." They can also be creative in their description of ingredients. For example, they can say "an ocean of compassion for women and men" and others.

    b) The cooking process will refer to the integration and coordination of the different elements of cooperatives.

        Question to ask on how to integrate or cook all the ingredients to form a delicious and nutritious cooperative dish:

        - In order for these elements and qualities (or ingredients) to be effectively managed, how should they be integrated, coordinated and utilized?

            Again, request the participants to pattern their answers to recipe terms. For example, "mix leadership and membership with training or sensitivity programs on gender"

    c) What is the dish for? To whom are they going to serve the dish?

        Question on to whom the dish will be served:

        - Who will benefit from cooperatives?

    d) What nutrition will they get from eating your dish?

        Question on the nutrition of the cooperative dish:

        - What benefits will cooperatives provide to its members?
2. After explaining the instruction in composing a cooperative dish, divide the participants into small groups with not more than 6 persons in a group. Instruct them to complete their cooperative dish in 45 minutes. Their report should be creatively written in a manila paper.
3. Give each small group 10 minutes to share and explain their cooperative dish recipe to the big group/plenary.

4. After all groups have shared their recipe, summarize the key points raised. These points can be classified into: a) key elements of a cooperative; b) qualities of a gender-sensitive cooperative; c) people who will benefit from cooperatives; d) benefits that cooperatives can provide to their membership.
5. To enhance the participants' understanding of cooperatives, give a lecture on ICA's *Statement on the Cooperative Identity*.
6. Present your own example of a cooperative dish recipe. This has been prepared for your easy use. A copy of a cooperative dish recipe is in the attachment of this session guide.
7. Proceed to the Quick Check Exercise.

Caution in using the exercise, "Cooperative Dish Recipe"

If the participants come from different countries, they may have different "cooking culture." The session may thus be slowed down by their need to level-off on how to cook a dish. Though this may not be a problem, it is still best to prepare for this situation.

Quick Check:

If time allows, your checking of the level of grasp and understanding of the participants on the session can be done through a "tic-tac-toe" game. Give them ten minutes to review their notes. After ten minutes, divide the participants into two groups. Ask each group to choose a symbol. This symbol can be an "X" or an "O". If a group is able to answer the question in a box, then their chosen symbol will be written on the box. Whichever group is able to first answer boxes that are connected horizontally, vertically or diagonally wins the game. The trainers will judge the correctness of the answers of the group to the questions.

Toss a coin (head for one group and tail for the other group) for the group to start the game. The tic-tac-toe boxes should be connected like the one below. The questions must not be immediately shown to the two competing groups. Simply ask them the box number that they would like to answer. Then read the question for each box. The list of questions must be with the facilitator. Silence before answering the question can be allowed only for five seconds. If after 5 seconds or at the count of five and the group has not yet began answering the question, then give the floor to the other group.

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

1. Define a Cooperative.
2. Give three values of a cooperative
3. Give two principles of a cooperative that have not yet been mentioned in this game.
4. Give two principles of a cooperative that have not yet been mentioned in this game.
5. Give two principles of a cooperative that have not yet been mentioned in this game.
6. Cooperatives can be classified according to their level of operation. What are these?

7. State one principle — not yet mentioned in this game — where gender concerns can be integrated. How is gender concern integrated in this principle.
8. State one principle — not yet mentioned in this game — where gender concerns can be integrated. How is gender concern integrated in this principle.
9. How will a cooperative achieve its objective of meeting the common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations of its members.

If time does not allow for the conduct of the above game, then simply ask the participants to write in a paper their answers to the following questions (request them to write their names):

1. How do you define a cooperative?
2. How are gender concerns integrated in this definition?
3. How are gender concerns integrated in the values and principles of a cooperative? Cite specific examples.

Handout

The ICA Statement on the Cooperative Identity

Definition:

A cooperative is an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social, and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly-owned and democratically-controlled enterprise.

Values

Cooperatives are based on the values of self-help, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, equity, and solidarity. In the tradition of their founders, cooperative members believe in the ethical values of honesty, openness, social responsibility, and caring for others.

Principles

The cooperative principles are guidelines by which cooperatives put their values into practice.

1st Principle: Voluntary and Open Membership

Cooperatives are voluntary organizations, open to all persons able to use their services and willing to accept the responsibilities of membership, without gender, social, racial, political, or religious discrimination.

2nd Principle: Democratic Member Control

Cooperatives are democratic organizations controlled by their members, who actively participate in setting their policies and making decisions. Men and women serving as elected representatives are accountable to the membership. In primary cooperatives members have equal voting rights (one member, one vote), and cooperatives at the other levels are also organized in a democratic manner.

3rd Principle: Member Economic Participation

Members contribute equitably to, and democratically control, the capital of their cooperative. At least part of that capital is usually common property of the cooperative. Members usually receive limited compensation, if any, on capital subscribed as a condition of membership. Members allocate surpluses for any or all of the following purposes: developing their cooperative, possibly by setting up reserves, part of which at least would be indivisible; benefiting members in proportion to their transactions with the cooperative; and supporting other activities approved by the membership.

4th Principle: Autonomy and Independence

Cooperatives are autonomous, self-help organizations controlled by their members. If they enter into agreements with other organizations, including governments, or raise capital from external sources, they do so on terms that ensure democratic control by their members and maintain their cooperative autonomy.

5th Principle: Education, Training and Information

Cooperatives provide education and training for their members, elected representatives, managers, and employees so they can contribute effectively to the development of their cooperatives. They inform the general public — particularly young people and opinion leaders — about the nature and benefits of co-operation.

6th Principle: Co-operation Among Cooperatives

Cooperatives serve their members most effectively and strengthen the cooperative movement by working together through local, national, regional and international structures.

7th Principle: Concern for Community

Cooperatives work for the sustainable development of their communities through policies approved by their members.

Source:

MacPherson, I. (1996). Cooperative principles for the 21st century. p. 1. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Trainers' Reference Material

Cooperatives as an Enabling Environment for Gender Equity and Equality

A Discussion of ICA's Statement on Cooperative Identity from a Gender Perspective

I. Definition of Cooperative

A cooperative is defined as an autonomous association of persons — both women and men given an equal access to its membership — united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly-owned and democratically-controlled economic or business enterprise. (MacPherson 1996) The required capital of this economic enterprise is put up from the equitable contributions of the women- and men-members. With their equitable contribution, the members accept a fair share of risks and benefits in the development and operations of the enterprise. Very importantly, cooperatives are established and managed in accordance with universally accepted cooperative principles.

To further understand the distinctive role of cooperatives in the society, it will help to scrutinize the characteristics of cooperatives as emphasized in its definition:

- The cooperative is autonomous: that is, it is, as much as possible, independent of government and private firms.
- It is "an association of persons." This means that cooperatives are free to define "persons" in any legal way they choose. Many primary cooperatives around the world choose only to admit individual human beings. Many other primary cooperatives admit "legal persons," which in many jurisdictions include companies, extending to them the same rights as any other member.
- These persons are united "voluntarily." Membership in a cooperative is not compulsory. Members are free, within the purposes and resources of the cooperatives, to join or to leave the organization.
- Members of a cooperative "meet their common economic, social and cultural needs." This part of the definition emphasizes that cooperatives are organized by members for their individual and mutual benefit. Most of them exist primarily to meet economic purposes, but they have social and cultural goals as well. By "social" is meant the meeting of social goals, such as the provision of health services or child care. Such activities must be conducted in an economic way so that they provide the kinds of services that benefit members. Cooperatives may also embrace cultural goals in keeping with member concerns and wishes: for example, assisting in the promotion of a national culture, promoting peace, sponsoring sports and cultural activities, and improving relations within the community. Indeed, in the future helping to provide a better way of life — cultural, intellectual and spiritual — may become one of the most important ways in which the cooperatives can benefit their members and contribute to their communities.

  Member needs may be singular and limited, they may be diverse, they may be social and cultural as well as purely economic, but, whatever the needs, they are the central purpose for which the cooperative exists.

- The cooperative is “jointly-owned and democratically-controlled enterprise.” This phrase emphasizes that within cooperatives, control is distributed among members on a democratic basis. The dual characteristics of ownership and democratic control are particularly important in differentiating cooperatives from other kinds of organizations, such as capital-controlled or government-controlled firms. Each cooperative is also an “enterprise” in the sense that it is an organized entity, normally functioning in the market place; it must, therefore, strive to serve its members efficiently and effectively.

The cooperatives are, hence, designed to respond to the needs and interests of both women and men, and it encourages the equal participation of women and men in the achievement of its goals.

II. Cooperative as an Economic Organization

Though cooperatives target to satisfy not only the economic needs of its members, but as well as their social and cultural needs, its main technology — as explicated in its definition — remains to be through “economic enterprise” that is jointly owned and democratically controlled by its members. In this regard, **a cooperative can be characterized as primarily an economic organization formed and managed by members who endeavor to help one another satisfy their economic and social needs.**

As an organization, a cooperative has all the components of a well-organized organization. It has:

- a purpose and direction, which is to meet the common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations of its members;
- a set of universal principles and values, capsulized as promoting a democratic management of the organization and an equitable distribution of its benefits;
- leadership and membership, who have equal powers in the affairs of the organization with a “one member-one vote” policy;
- organizational structure, systems and policies, i.e. members — both women and men — are obliged to provide equitable contributions to the required capital of the economic enterprise, and to equitably gain from its benefits;
- technology, which is the establishment and management of an economic enterprise; and
- financial and other resources to which all members contribute.

As an open-system organization, a cooperative allows itself to be influenced by its external environment as modeled by ICA’s contextualization of cooperatives’ identity on the situation around the world and on its desire to be responsive to the challenges and needs of the society. Moreover, as a democratically-managed organization, a cooperative gives equal value to each of its members. It, therefore, also allows its subparts — i.e. goals, policies, leadership, etc. — to be affected by changes in the other subparts — i.e. members, resources — of its internal environment.

As *an economic organization*, a cooperative intends to mainly provide economic benefits to its members. Unlike other business organizations, however, its main purpose is not profit for profit sake, but service to its members. This means that cooperatives seek profits. But this gaining of profits is not the end goal of cooperative. Rather, the provision and enhancement of services that become possible because of the attained profits is the ultimate goal. Thus, the business is run not with a capitalistic orientation, but primarily for the welfare of its members, with women and men participating equally and equitably.

Cooperatives are classified according to their level of operation. *Primary* cooperatives have natural persons as members and operate within defined geographical area, usually a town or a district. When groups of primary cooperatives come together for business or non-business purposes, at the provincial, regional or even national level, they are referred to as *secondary* cooperatives. Secondary cooperatives can form the next level — tertiary cooperatives — usually at the national level. Secondary cooperatives are also known as either federations or unions, and they have institutions (i.e. cooperatives) as members.

In conclusion, cooperatives can be described as service-oriented economic organizations with the capacity to respond to the specific conditions and needs of individuals, families and communities, with women and men treated equally and equitably. It also has the capacity to attain a wide reach through networking in the provincial, regional, national and international levels in a systematic, democratic and gender equitable manner. From this perspective, cooperatives, indeed, can have a significant role in the resolution of societal issues, including gender issues. Specifically, cooperatives can respond to the problem of economic dependence of women on men, which has served as one critical source of power of men over women.

III. Cooperative Values and Principles

The cooperative values and principles shall be discussed here not merely on their face value, but on their capacity to shape an organizational culture that promotes women's empowerment, and hence gender equity and equality. Because the values and principles of cooperatives are viewed as capable of contributing to women's empowerment, cooperatives are, hence, considered as an enabling environment and vehicle of women's empowerment. In the same way, gender equity and equality is considered as a key factor to the success of cooperatives. How can a cooperative become a vehicle of women's empowerment? This is will be done if the cooperative values and principles of cooperatives, as formulated by ICA, will be authentically actualized. How can gender equity and equality contribute to the success of cooperatives? This will be the topic of the fifth session of this module.

The key terms to be used are : masculine and feminine. It is very important to clarify that these terms are not used here to refer to men and women, respectively, but to traits that women and men can both have. Traditionally, however, masculine traits are associated with men, and feminine traits with men. From a patriarchal perspective, therefore, feminine traits are considered as inferior to masculine traits. From the perspective, however, of gender and development, a man and a woman can choose to have feminine traits or masculine traits, or the combination of both. A woman will not, hence, be ridiculed if she possesses more masculine than feminine traits. The same is true to men who have more feminine than masculine traits. More importantly, both types of traits will be considered as equally important and valuable.

Moreover, so as not to stimulate any reaction from women and men who could not unlearn the association of the masculine and feminine traits to men and women respectively, this will be the last area of the manual where these terms will be used. Rather, in the next sessions, the terms that will be used more are: traditional — referring to traits supportive of patriarchy — and transformative — referring to traits supportive of gender equity and equality.

Aside from showing how the principles of gender and equality are reflected in the values and principles of cooperatives, the following section also provides suggestions on how to ensure that these principles are adequately fulfilled for the benefit of both women and men in cooperatives.

1. Cooperative Values

Cooperatives are based on the values of self-help, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, equity and solidarity. In the tradition of their founders, cooperative members believe in the ethical values of honesty, openness, social responsibility and caring for others. (MacPherson, 1996).

The values of self-help and self-responsibility connote an attitude of being independent, and of being in control of one's own destiny. They further connote a sense of initiative, of being able to do good, productive and meaningful endeavors even without the prompting of other people. The emphasis is, therefore, on the individual; that this individual be able to stand on her/his own two feet — without needing to lean on other people — and be able to get jobs done and problems solved.

This value of self-help and self-responsibility, and the attitude of independence can be applied not only to individual persons but also to individual organizations, such as a cooperative. Applying this value and attitude to a cooperative, one sees the cooperative as capable of functioning with its own internally generated resources, and of attaining its goals without needing to depend on external resources.

Being virtues manifested in an individual — be a person or a group — with a capacity for independence and for self-determination, the values of self-help and self-responsibility can, thus, be traditionally associated with the masculine trait. The word, traditionally, is important here as classifying these values as masculine, and, therefore, dominant in men and more expected of men, is simply a result of gender schema, which refers to culturally formulated concepts about masculinity and femininity. In fact, women also have the capacity for self-help and self-responsibility. It will, definitely, be impossible for them to do different jobs simultaneously at home and in the workplace if these values are not in them. Not only do men, therefore, have masculine traits, but women albeit in different degrees also possess the same masculine traits. Nonetheless, since the society hones women to be "feminine" and men to be "masculine," then the traditional feminine traits are more developed in women, and the traditional masculine traits on men.

Though the unmasking of the roots of classifying concepts relating to individuality as masculine is a concern of this module, this will not, however, be dealt here for practical reasons. It is enough for now to say that, according to gender schema, the values of self-help and self-organization, being associated mainly with individualistic and instrumental orientation and with the domain of independence, are classified as masculine. (Bem, 1976)

The other cited values of a cooperative — solidarity, equity, honesty, openness, social responsibility and caring for others — being concerned with relationships and the expressive orientation, and with the domain of nurturance, are, on the other hand, more associated with the feminine traits. (Bem, 1976) The values of democracy and equality, however, can be considered as both masculine and feminine for they speak of individual rights being equal to the rights of other individuals, and of the participation of all individuals in governance. Thus, these values put value on the individuals in relation with other individuals.

Taken as a whole, the values of a cooperative as defined by the International Cooperative Alliance, thus, promote an organizational culture that acknowledges, recognizes and upholds the combination of both feminine-and masculine-associated values and orientations. From the perspective of transformative politics, the environment within which this kind of culture prevails

is the place where women's empowerment will come about . This is because transformative leadership does not seek for the elimination of men, and of values and traits related to them, but for the recognition of the equal and equitable participation of women and men in decision-making processes, and for the upholding of the feminine and masculine orientations on equal terms.

To synthesize and reiterate, the cooperative values uphold women and men who have the capacity for self-determination and independence, and who value and care for others to the extent of seeking solidarity with them and of collectively working for equal and equitable relation, including between women and men, in all social processes.

Lastly, another phrase that is important to take note in the statement of cooperative values is the introductory phrase, "in the tradition of their founders," used in the declaration of ethical values. This phrase presents the above values of cooperatives as have been long-time held by its early pioneers.

The above androgynous view of values of cooperatives will, however, only attain its true meaning when concretized. The next part of this paper, thus, examines the principles and practices of cooperatives which serve to translate into actual action the above values of cooperatives.

2. Cooperative Principles

ICA describes the following principles of cooperatives as guidelines for judging behavior and making decisions within the cooperative.

Principle 1: Voluntary and Open Membership

Cooperatives are voluntary organizations, open to all persons able to use their services and willing to accept the responsibilities of membership, without gender, social, racial, political or religious discrimination.

This principle emphasizes three points:

- That membership is voluntary. Nobody is, therefore, coerced to join cooperatives even if the cooperative formation is based on the mandate of a law. In the same line, every member can withdraw their membership as soon as s/he assesses that the cooperative no longer serves her/his needs, except, of course, when this member has obligations, such as debts, to fulfill.
- That open membership, as a principle, is not absolute. Rather, cooperatives are open only to: 1) those who are able to use the services of cooperatives, such as fishers for the fishers' cooperative; and 2) those willing to accept the responsibilities of membership.
- That gender, race, political affiliation and beliefs, religion, and social class should not deter one's membership in cooperatives.

The significance of this principle to women is that they can join cooperatives for as long as their needs are within the capacity of the cooperative to serve. Since the practical and strategic needs of women can be addressed by cooperatives, then cooperatives' membership is very widely open to women.

Moreover, the principle states that the members must be willing to accept the responsibilities

of membership. In order to qualify for membership and to sustain their membership, interested women must, therefore, prove their capacity to abide by the membership responsibilities of the cooperative. For example, if the cooperative says that a $50 membership share must be provided, then the individual woman or man member must put up this fund to qualify for membership. Or if the rule says that attendance in meetings is very important, and that non-attendance in, for example, three meetings in a year is a ground for disqualification, then the woman should ensure that she is able to follow such rule.

In applying such universal cooperative principle, a particular cooperative must, however, be considerate of the difficult situation of women, in view of their multiple work at home and in the workplace, and their economic "dependence" on men. Programs that will enable women to generate their own income, and to allot time for organizational concerns — without adding further load to their present responsibilities, such as childcare, household chores, etc. — must, therefore, be developed.

Principle 2: Democratic Member Control

Cooperatives are democratic organizations controlled by their members, who actively participate in setting their policies and making decisions. Men and women serving as elected representatives are accountable to the membership. In primary cooperatives, members have equal voting rights (one member, one vote), and cooperatives at other levels are also organized in a democratic manner.

This principle highlights the following management values:

- That the members control the whole organization democratically. This control is manifested in their active participation in the setting of policies and making of decisions of the organization.
- All women- and men-elected representatives are accountable to the membership. Their actions, therefore, should be transparent and responsive to the needs and interests of their membership. This principle further obliges them to regularly report, consult and echo the voices of their members to the decision-making bodies of the organization.
- That all members of primary cooperatives, no matter how disparate the amount of their contributions are to the coffers of the cooperative, have equal voting rights.
- That cooperatives beyond the primary level are also democratically organized.

A democratically organized and managed organization is favorable to women, as it is only in this kind of environment where they will be able to express their needs, articulate their interests and views, as well as seek for equal and equitable rights and privileges with men. To actualize this principle, however, the cooperatives must ensure that their members are able to live the principles of democracy. Gender, racial, political, social, religion discrimination, which hinders many people from being equitably represented in decision-making bodies, must, hence, be discouraged and systematically addressed. Moreover, people with leadership potentials, but have been inhibited to develop and actualize their capacities because of the effects, for instance, of gender stereotyping, must be identified and given assistance for self-transformation. For instance, aside from ensuring that tasking and responsibilities are based on qualifications, and not on gender biases, the cooperative must also provide training programs which will enable the members and potential leaders to bring out and use their leadership capacities.

Principle 3: Member Economic Participation

Members contribute equitably to, and democratically control, the capital of their cooperative. At least part of that capital is usually common property of the cooperative. Members usually receive limited compensation, if any, on capital subscribed as a condition of membership. Members allocate surpluses for any or all of the following purposes: developing their cooperative, possibly by setting up reserves, part of which at least would be indivisible; benefiting members in proportion to their transactions with the cooperative; and supporting other activities approved by the membership.

This principle relates three main practices of cooperative. And these practices distinguish cooperatives from capitalist-oriented business organizations:

- That the capital of the cooperatives comes from the equitable contributions of the members. These are done through:
  - share or shares given as a precondition of membership. Limited interest is paid for membership "share or shares."
  - reserves derived from the retained earnings of the organization's activities. All or a significant proportion of these earnings are owned collectively, and are indivisible even in the event of dissolution of the cooperative. Again, the members benefit from them through the sustained services of the cooperative. In the event of dissolution, this fund is donated to other community enterprises or other associated cooperatives.
- That the members democratically control the capital of the cooperatives. Hence, final authority for all decisions rests with the membership;
- That the members have the right and obligation to decide on the allocation of surpluses created from the activities of the cooperative. They allocate such surpluses for any or all of the following purposes:
  - To develop the cooperative by setting up reserves, part of which would be indivisible;
  - To distribute to members as "dividends," to reward their share capital;
  - To support activities approved by the members.

This principle supports the staking of members. With this staking comes the right to participate in the direction setting and in the making of decisions on the operations and use of resources of the organization. Women, therefore, have to stake and risk their resources in order to have a legitimate ground for asserting their equal and equitable value with men in the cooperative.

Principle 4: Autonomy and Independence

Cooperatives are autonomous, self-help organizations controlled by their members. If they enter into agreements with other organizations, including governments, or raise capital from external sources, they do so on terms that ensure democratic control by their members and maintain their cooperative autonomy.

This principle protects the cooperative from the intrusion or control of other people or groups whether for social, political or religious reasons. In effect, this makes cooperatives a fertile ground for people empowerment, including women's empowerment, with power emanating from the bottom -- from the inner or bottom selves of the members as well as from their unity and collective action and mutual caring.

The inclusion of statement on the entry into agreements with other organizations signifies the cooperative's recognition of its existence with other organizations, such as the government. And with this recognition comes the openness to make connections, but in a way that does not put into precarious condition their autonomy and democratic control of the organization. In this way, a cooperative can also become a vehicle, in an indirect and direct manner, for women's empowerment in other organizations, institutions, and the whole society.

Principle 5: Education, Training and Information

Cooperatives provide education and training for their members, elected representatives, managers, and employees so they can contribute effectively to the development of their cooperatives. They inform the general public —particularly young people and opinion leaders — about the nature and benefits of co-operation.

The ICA states:

> This principle emphasizes the vital importance played by education and training within cooperatives. Education means more than just distributing information or encouraging patronage; it means engaging the minds of members, elected leaders, managers and employees to comprehend fully the complexity and richness of cooperative thought and action. Training means making sure that all those who are associated with cooperatives have the skills they require in order to carry out their responsibilities.
>
> Education and training are also important because they provide excellent opportunities whereby cooperative leaders can understand the needs of their membership. They should be conducted in such a way that they continuously assess the activities of the cooperative and suggest ways to improve operations or to provide new services. A cooperative that encourages effective two-way communications between its members and leaders, while operating in an effective manner, can rarely fail.

The implication of ICA's explanation of this principle is that the cooperative's face-to-face encounter with the general needs and situation of its women-members is inevitable. As such, as the principle mandates, understanding the situation of women, raising the awareness of all members on the situation of gender inequality and inequity, and responding appropriately are imperative actions in the organization. This, therefore, makes cooperative indeed an enabling environment for women empowerment.

Principle 6: Co-operation among Cooperatives

Cooperatives serve their members most effectively and strengthen the cooperative movement by working together through local, national, regional and international structures.

This principle gives utmost value to the networking of various cooperatives in different parts of the world. Networking and collaboration with each other is believed to be a way of maximizing the impact of cooperatives. As ICA contends, "… as nation states lose their capacity to control international economy, cooperatives have a unique opportunity to protect and expand the direct interests of ordinary people."

To the women cooperatives, this principle gives them the opportunity to connect with women of other cooperatives, to join hands in raising their common interests and in ensuring that cooperatives are able to respond to their practical and strategic needs, and therefore are able to move towards gender equity and equality.

Principle 7: Concern for Community

Cooperatives work for the sustainable development of their communities through policies approved by their members.

This principle proves that though cooperatives give priority concern to the welfare and needs of their members, this does not, however, make them insensitive to the situation of the communities within which they operate. As this principle upholds, cooperatives have a special responsibility to ensure the sustainable development — economic, social, and cultural — of their communities.

Very importantly, this principle supports the advocacy for women's empowerment beyond the confines of cooperatives. In actualizing this principle, a cooperative is bound to respond to gender issues experienced by their members in their households and communities. In this manner, this principle together with the six other cooperative principles, truly, make cooperatives an instrument for people-centered sustainable development, a critical component of which is women's empowerment, gender equity and equality.

IV. Cooperative Practices where Cooperative Principles are Actualized

Principles	Practices
Voluntary and open membership	• Non-discriminatory policies/practices on member recruitment/ admission as to sex, socio-economic, religion and political; status . • Membership application and withdrawal are voluntary.
Democratic member control	• One person-one-vote in primary cooperatives, no proxy voting, majority rules, participation of women, youth and elderly are valued, members are heard; • Transparency/Accountability to members • Democratically organized federation
Member economic participation	• Each member has to pay a minimum share of capital that is within the means of ordinary women-members; • Distribution of interests on share capital and/or patronage refund; • Collectively owned and/or indivisible reserves derived from operations, plowed back interest on share capital, member's other investments earning a "fair rate of interest/yield, • Members' right to decide on allocation of surplus, • Members have the final decision on all matters pertaining to the capital of the cooperative
Autonomy and independence	• Relations with the state, market position • People empowerment particularly women empowerment
Education and training	• Designing and implementation of key leadership & management capacity building programs for leaders and members. Special attention is given to women due to their weak representation in the leadership structures of cooperatives.

Principles	Practices
Cooperation among cooperatives	• Federation/networking • Joint Enterprises or ventures • Women's linkage with other coop women members to join hands in raising their interests/concerns.
Concern for community	• Policy on environment, community development, • Programs for women, youth, elderly • Policy advocacy internal and external; lower and upper levels.

V. Conclusion

To review and summarize, the following are the implications of the cooperative principles to women's empowerment:

- Women can join cooperatives, and can make their practical and strategic needs part of its agenda;
- Being democratically organized: a) cooperatives give women and men equal opportunity to share their views and positions on how the goals, activities and style of management of the cooperative respond to their common and differing needs and concerns; b) women can participate in the setting of policies and making of decisions; c) women can be elected as leaders of the organization.
- Being autonomous and independent, cooperatives can support a bottom-up process of empowerment, where the power of women can emanate from their inner selves and from their unity and decisive collective action;
- By having its capital mainly put up from the equitable contributions of its members, including women, the cooperatives encourage their members to stake and risk their resources. In so doing, women-members, together with men-members, attain the right to assert for equal rights and equitable benefits.
- The provision of education, training and information to members and staff makes the surfacing of needs and issues, including gender issues, inevitable.
- The concern for the community and the networking with other cooperatives enable the women-members to advocate women's empowerment beyond the confines of their cooperatives.

On the other hand, inadequate application of some principles — if not carefully studied and addressed — may pose some limitations to the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives. For instance:

- Conditions for membership that are beyond the capacity of women to fulfill — which some cooperatives may adopt — can drive women away from joining cooperatives, or can make women's sustained membership difficult.
- Prevailing biases, prejudices and discrimination of people against each other as a result, in the case of gender for instance, of patriarchal culture — if ignored — may disable people from developing and supporting a truly democratic organization.

In conclusion, the understanding of cooperative values and principles, and of the way they relate to the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives, as well as in the whole

society leads us to say that cooperatives are indeed enabling ground for women's empowerment. This conclusion should not, however, lead us to complacency. With the identified possible problems in the interpretation and application of the cooperative principles, proactive advocacy and serious actions are still very necessary.

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UNIT 3
Gender Issues in the Asian Context

MAIN MESSAGES

In the previous session, cooperatives are discussed as an enabling environment for gender equity and equality. As mentioned, this can be realized if the values and principles of cooperatives, as formulated by the International Cooperative Alliance, are actualized. A critical step in the actualization of the ICA cooperative principles, especially its gender equity and equality orientation, is the understanding of gender issues in cooperatives. To aptly understand gender issues in cooperatives, the context from which the issues emanate must be brought to fore and be substantially understood. This session, therefore, looks into the general situation of Asian countries which has a great bearing on the situation of Asian women in general. The key points of the session are the following:

- Gender discrimination against women is common in Asian countries though in different degrees. This problem of gender bias is manifested in the:
  - Gender stereotyped division of labour between women and men;
  - Unequal access to and control of resources and benefits;
  - Lower overall educational attainment for women than men;
  - Violence against women, where violence takes many forms;
  - Women's low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence to assume leadership roles.
- The stereotyped roles of women and men lead to the non-recognition of the contributions of women in the productive arena, and the ridicule of men doing household chores and caring of children. This situation also leads to a conception of women as unfit for leadership positions from the community to the national and international levels. For this reason, men dominate the leadership structures of organizations in different sectors, public and private, including cooperatives, leading to their better access to and control of resources.
- The high regard of society for men is attributed to the traditional patriarchal Asian cultures.
- Significant strides, however, have been achieved in the area of legislation for gender equality in many countries. These gains are offshoots of the organized actions of women organizations, and support groups.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

This session aims to:

1. Develop in the trainees an understanding of the manifestations of gender bias against women in Asia.
2. Lead the trainees to an initial analysis of the implications of women discrimination to the personal development of women and men, and to the growth of families, communities and nations.

Time Requirements: three hours

1. Introduction: 15 minutes

2. Group Work: 60 minutes
3. Plenary Presentation and Discussion: 60 minutes
4. Lecture and Synthesis: 45 minutes

Materials Required :

1. Manila papers where the matrices shown in steps #3 are written. Each small group should have a copy of these manila papers.
2. Markers/pens;
3. Masking tapes
4. Board

Steps:

1. Explain the objectives and process of this session:
   - The objectives are mentioned above.
   - If the participants come from one country, they will be divided into small groups of six members. If the participants come from different countries, then group all participants from one country together. Participants from different countries may have differing and conflicting experiences on the topic, and this may hinder them from reaching a consensus answer to each question. Women and men may be mixed or separated in these groups.
   - Each group will tackle the following:
     – How a typical day of a typical woman and a typical man in the communities of the trainees is spent. This part will highlight the key responsibilities of women and men in the communities of the participants.
     – Who has greater access to and control of the key resources of the communities. This part will highlight the decision making power of women and men over key resources, and the opportunities that women and men have in regard to the use of these resources.
     – Composition of leadership structures of organizations in the communities, and political structures from the village to the national level. (What percentages of these leadership structures do women and men comprise?)
     – A listing of gender issues arising from the above differences of women and men (in the areas of responsibilities, access to and control of resources, and access to leadership structures.)
     – A preliminary analysis of the roots of these differences between women and men, and the resulting discrimination of women.
   - The outputs of the small groups will be presented to the plenary.
   - Facilitator will synthesize the key points of the small groups.
   - Facilitator will call on the resource person to give a short input on the general manifestations of gender issues in Asian countries.

2. Divide the participants into small groups.
3. Give the small groups their following tasks.
    a) Describe a typical day of a typical woman and a typical man in your country by filling up the matrix on the activities of a woman and a man in a day.
        - A typical woman and a typical man represent the majority of women and men in a country or community.
        - A typical day is the ordinary day of a woman and a man.

Typical Woman		**Typical Man**	
Time of the Day	Activity (from waking up to resting at night)	Time of the Day	Activity (from waking up to resting at night)
	Wake up		Wake up

Summary: (Based on the above data, please write in the spaces under women and men the number of hours spent in a day)

	Woman	**Man**
Time for husband/ wife and children		
Time for household chores		
Time for livelihood		
Time for community service and religious work		
Time for rest and sleep		
Others		

b) Assess Women and Men's Access to and Control of Resources

Under "Access to" of each resource, please write 1 if a specified resource is not at all accessible, write 2 if the resource is moderately accessible, and write 3 if the resource is fully accessible.

Under "Control of" of each resource, please write 1 if the typical woman or man does not have control (decision-making power) over the said resource, write 2 if the woman or man is able to, from time-to-time, participate in decision-making on the resource, or 3 if the typical woman or man has full control (decision-making power) over the said resource.

Resources	Access to		Control of	
	Woman	Man	Woman	Man
1. Capital/Credit				
2. Land				
3. Formal Education				
4. Informal Education				
5. Jobs/Employment				
6. Agricultural technology				
7. Information technology (computers, newspapers, etc.)				
8. Income				
9. Political positions				
10. Organizations (e.g. cooperatives)				
11. Entertainment				
12. Others: Please specify				

Summary: Based on the above data, please fill-up the summary form by counting the number of resources scored 1, 2 and 3 for woman and man, writing the results in the spaces provided.

Access to Resources	Control of Resources			
	Woman	Man	Woman	Man
1 (Not at All)				
2 (Moderate)				
3 (Full)				

c) Review the degree of participation of women and men in leadership structures

Structures	Population in Structure (Estimated Percentages)		Leadership Position Occupied (Estimated Percentages)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Village				
National level				
Dominant religion				
Co-operatives				
Other dominant structure (Please specify)				

d) Based on the data on the typical activities of women and men for a day, their access to and control of resources, and their leadership positions, list down the issues and concerns on the relations between women and men. Issues can be identified by answering the following questions:

- What are the areas where women and men differ significantly?
- In what areas do men appear to have more advantage(s) than women ? In what areas do women have more advantage(s) than men?
- Comparing the data on men and women's typical activities, access to and control of the different resources, do you see any inequality. If yes, where?

e) If gender discrimination against women exist, what do you think are the roots of the situation? Give concrete examples of how women, men and the whole society contribute to the problem of gender discrimination.

Give the small groups 60 minutes to finish the above tasks. To lessen time for writing in manila papers, give them pre-formatted papers for each task (i.e. above matrices have been written in big papers for each group to fill-up).

4. Ask all the small groups to present their outputs to the big group. Then make a summary of these outputs.
5. Call on the resource person to give a deepening input on the manifestations of gender bias against women in Asia.
   - Traditional division of labour;
   - Access to and control of resources;
   - Constraints and opportunities to gender equity and equality;
   - Overview: Manifestations of gender bias in Asia

Caution/Hint/Tips:

It is possible for the male participants to still be defensive, and even for some female participants to justify the situation, and to say that gender inequality is inevitable in a society. This has been experienced in a lot of introductory training sessions on gender relations. If this will be the case, simply let them articulate and explain their views. It will be counterproductive at this point to attack this kind of perspective.

Since you have respectfully listened to their views, then request them in return to listen to your views as well. Then tell them to let the session and whole seminar be a meaningful discourse on the different analyses and perspectives to gender relations, and hopefully, for all the participants and trainers to find a common ground on the issue of gender relations at the end of the module.

Variations:

The above discussion of gender relations follows an inductive learning process — where the trainees first look at the situation of women and men, and at the end make an analysis of the underlying framework which rationalizes the situation. Another way to do it is through the deductive process, that is to look at the prevailing cognitive structures or mindsets on gender relations, then lead the discussion to the concrete implications or manifestations of these mindsets. The learning activity is called the "Social Perception Wheel." If you choose this option, then you may do the following steps:

1. Divide the participants into groups of 4 members. All groups should have male and female members.
2. Get the members to sit together in their respective groups.
3. Introduce the workshop activity as preparing social perception wheels on men and women. Request each group to think about their perception of men and women in three contexts – households, workplaces and governance (community to national). Emphasize that it should be perceptions in their countries. If the participants come from different countries, all those coming from a country must hence come together in a group.
4. State that each group will be provided with papers, magazines, gum and scissors. They should portray their thinking about men in the three above mentioned contexts in one flip chart and on women in another flip chart.
5. Show the sample construct of the social perception wheel and the three contexts depicted in it. (See attachment) Explain that a large wheel should be drawn on a flip chart and that pictures should be cut and pasted in the three spaces provided under the three contexts. The wheel should be done separately for men and women depicting the group's social perception.
6. If relevant pictures are not available in the magazines, the group can use the marker pens and draw a picture.
7. Announce that the time allocated for the activity is 30 minutes.
8. On completion of the activity, a representative or representatives from each group should come forward and display their picture portrayals on men and women, and explain their outputs in 10 minutes.
9. At the presentation time, get the groups to present their perceptions in a pre-determined sequence. Announce that clarifications could be sought from the presenter only at the end of the presentation.
10. Synthesize the outputs of all the groups. Then facilitate a participatory discussion of the implications of this social perception wheel. This discussion should lead to the surfacing of the manifestations of gender bias against women. The prepared lecturette can help you with this process.

Quick Check

As a way of initially assessing how the session affected the participants, ask them to answer forms that contain the following:

1. Do you agree that gender discrimination against women exists in Asian countries?

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Don't Know	Agree	Strongly Agree

If your answer is 1 or 2, please proceed to question number 4 & 5.

If your answer is 4 or 5, please proceed to question 2, 3 & 5.

If your answer is 3, please proceed to question 5.

2. If you agree or strongly agree, how is this manifested? _____

_____

3. Should this situation be changed?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment

Why? _____

_____

4. If you disagree, why? _____

_____

5. Did you find the session:

a) Interesting? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment

b) Stimulating? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment

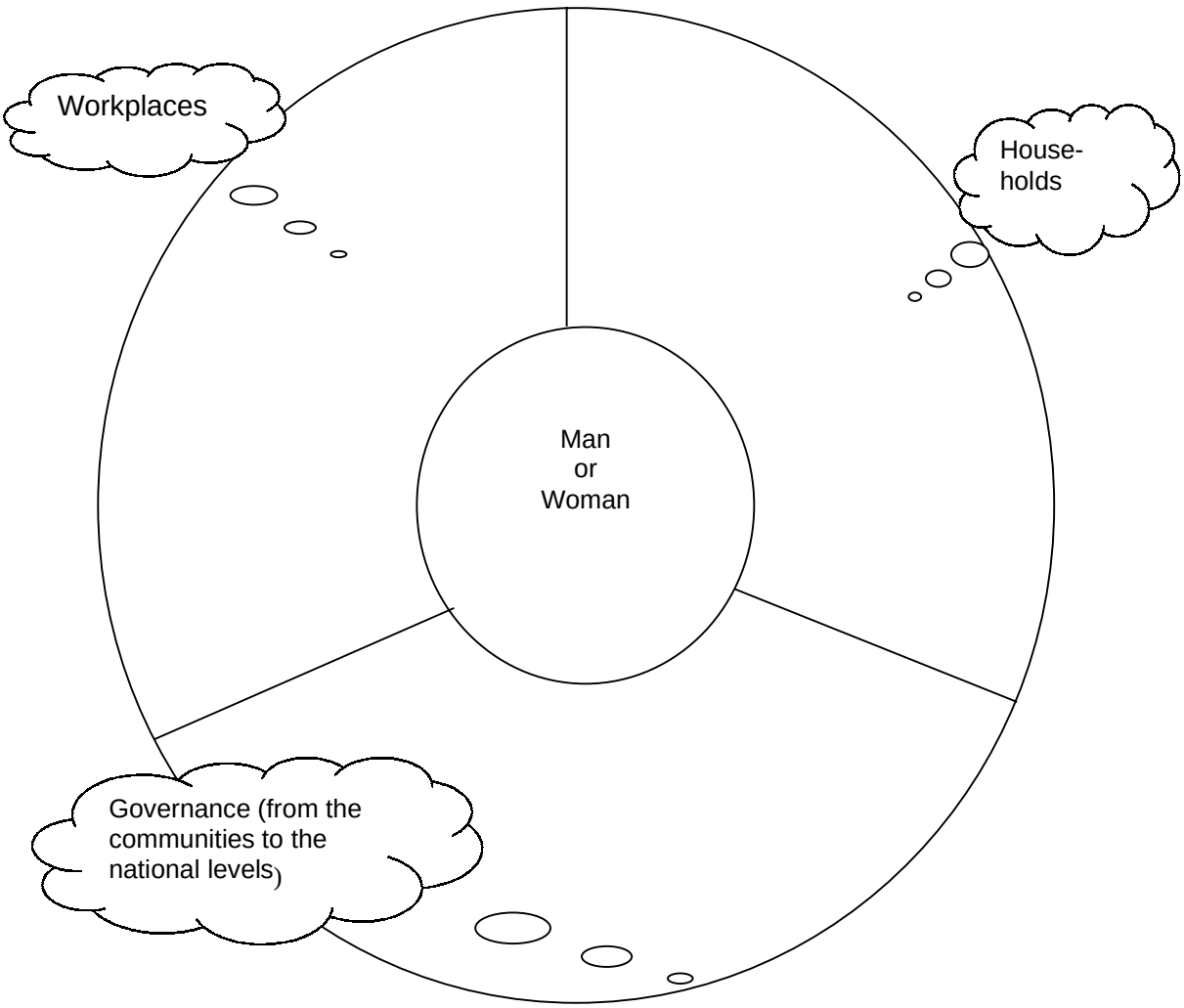
c) Enjoyable? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment

6. What are your suggestions to improve this session? _____

_____

Handout

Social Perception Wheel



Trainers' Reference Material

Gender Issues in the Asian Context

Cultures in Asia are generally described to be collectivist, rather than individualist in orientation. This means that the members of a collective (examples of a collective are families/clans, religious and political groups) in Asia are generally expected to put the welfare and interest of their collective over and above their personal interests and individual welfare and rights. This orientation is seen to be different from Western cultures which are described to be predominantly individualist in orientation, and which, hence, give primacy to individual independence, welfare and rights. Moreover, the traditional Asian collectives tend to be hierarchical in structure — whether formal or informal. As in many hierarchical structures, the governing philosophy is patriarchy. In a patriarchal culture, women are considered to be inferior to men, and hence they assume subordinate roles to men.

Using cultural relativism as a counter-argument, some Asian people take the advocacy for gender equity and equality in Asia half-heartedly. These people view the advocacy for gender equity and equality as a Western concept, and is hence, inappropriate to the Asian context. From this framework, the subservience of women to men for the sake of the collective is regarded as indubitable and necessary for the survival and advancement of the collective, and is therefore, acceptable and noble.

On the other hand, there are people who view culture as having a dialectical relationship with social practices. Not only does culture determine social practices, but social practices shape culture as well. From this standpoint, culture can be transformed based on decisions of people on the kinds of social practices to pursue. In time, the values underlying a newly introduced or initiated social practice become norms of the collective. When the values become collective norms, then they begin to make up culture which rationalizes and institutionalizes the social practice. The advocacy for gender equity and equality is seen here not as an embrace of individualist Western culture, nor as an abdication of the collectivist Asian culture. Rather, it is an endeavor to clarify how a collective can better itself. The orientation is very Asian for the collective remains to be utmost in its concern. And the contention is that the collective will be better if all members — women and men, young and adults — will be accorded with equal and equitable concern, opportunities and social power.

This discussion of gender issues in the Asian context is undertaken from the latter perspective. The aim is to surface present social practices of gender inequality and inequity for them to be challenged and be changed, With this, cultural transformation, particularly in the aspect of the power relations between women and men, will hopefully, though slowly and very difficult — with the well-entrenched gender stereotypes in the depth of consciousness of Asian people — be moved to take its course.

The Situation

Following the gender analysis tools discussed in the previous session, this paper analyzes gender issues in Asia using three of the proposed variables. The fourth variable — the needs of women and men to achieve gender equality — will be best identified if evoked from the participants. And the fifth variable — capacity of the organization or cooperative, to promote equality between women and men — will be discussed in the next session.

1) The division of labour between women and men

All accounts on the situation of women and men in different countries in Asia point to the traditional division of work between women and men. In gender parlance, this is the productive-reproductive divide. Women assume the reproductive role and tasks, and hence, are primarily and in some situations solely responsible for child bearing, caring for family members and maintaining the house. Men, on the other hand, assume the productive role and tasks, and hence, are usually performing paid work or income generating tasks.

With the economic crisis which has continued to plague many countries in Asia, and also because of technological advancement, such as in home appliances, however, women are pushed or encouraged to take on productive tasks as well. Nonetheless, the additional productive tasks of women did not effect into men's sharing in the reproductive tasks. In most cases, the women are forced to continue with their reproductive task load while performing their additional productive tasks.

Even in countries which maintain that their women enjoy a better status of equality if compared with other Asian countries, such as in Sri Lanka, Vietnam, China, and Korea, and others (Heenatimula, 1996; Mohideen, 1998) because legal impediments to gender equality in the social, economic and political arena have been eradicated, the multiple roles of women in the reproductive and productive sides continue to be the stumbling block to the full participation of women in development, and to the full expansion of their life and career choices.

For instance, in Japan, the heightening demand for labor that accompanied economic development resulted into the rise in the number of Japanese women seeking jobs outside of home. Nonetheless, whatever is the social status of the wife — whether as full or part-time workers or homemakers — the number of hours the husband spends on house work remained practically the same. Therefore, the longer hours the wife works outside the home, the heavier her burden becomes. (Tatsukawa, 1996). In another instance, in Malaysia, conflicting demands of business and domestic responsibilities impose a physical and psychological strain on women. Such conflict usually results in women's lowering of their career expectation and thus limiting their involvement in community development. (Baharen, 1996). This situation in Japan and Malaysia is generally true to most, if not all, Asian countries.

2) Access to and Control of Resources

In varying degrees, men in Asia have more access to and control of resources and the benefits than the women. Generally, men are the decision-makers at home. For instance in Indonesia, while women usually manage money for daily expenditures, men's wishes tend to dominate in major financial decisions. Aside from this situation at home, other major gender issues in Asia in relation to their access to and control of resources are the following:

- Women have very low access to employment opportunities. This is true to most Asian countries. Let us cite some examples:

  In Japan, once women quit their jobs to get married, it is extremely difficult for them to get hired again on a full-time basis, especially for those aged 35 and older. Most have no choice but to work part-time. (Tatsukawa, 1996)

  In China, in a more competitive job environment, women are more likely to be sacked. A source indicates that 70 percent of laid off workers from factories are women. Women are hired into inferior positions even when they are better qualified than men. (Huilin, 1995)

- Unequal pay for equal value of work

  In Nepal, women get 32% share of income, where men get 68%. (Sharma, 1996).

  In China, a 1990 survey revealed that compared to the wages of men, urban women and rural women received only 77.4 percent and 81.4 percent of the pay given to men, respectively. Women also face compulsory early retirement. (Huilin, 1995)

  In Korea, 65.8 percent of women face discrimination in wages, 43.2 percent in promotions, 27.6 percent in forced retirement; and 6.8% in early retirement. Many women tend to be employed in small-scale industries which are not protected by the Labor Standard Law, and their employment status tends to be unstable. A considerable number of them are temporary employees or daily workers.

  In the Philippines, according to a 1997 survey of the National Statistics Office, women-managers receive only 83% of the pay given to men-managers, women in agriculture, fishery and forestry work receive 78% of pay given to their male counterparts, and women in production and construction work receive only 82% of men's pay in the same type of work.

  The International Labour Office (ILO) has observed that in general in all Asian countries women's work can be classified as "low skill, low paid and low quality, in a limited range of sectors and occupations on the lower rungs of the job ladder."

- Women's insignificant representation in political structures, or women's failure to fully and effectively participate in governance

  In India, rigid caste hierarchies play a negative role and forbid women from mobilizing on a common platform and work in co-operation. (Manchanda, 1996)

  In China, women have participated extensively in the political process, although still not at the same level as men. In the highest legislative branch, women members account for 21.3 percent of the total Eight National People's Congress (NPC) conveyed in 1993, account for 12.3 percent of the Standing Committee, the permanent body of the NPC. In 1993, women made up 32.44 percent of all the employees working in government organizations. The various ministries and commissions under the State Council have 16 female ministers and vice-ministers, and the country has 18 female governors and deputy governors. In the nation's 517 cities, more than 300 women have been elected mayor or deputy mayor. In the legal profession, there are 21,012 female judges and 4,512 women lawyers in 1992. Women members make up 14 percent of the Communist Party's general membership. (Huilin, 1995)

  In Korea, women comprise 24.6 percent of public officials. The higher the executive level, the lower the percentage of women. Only 1.7 percent of women are in decision-making position. Only twelve women in the whole country hold the rank of bureau director. Since the Equal Employment Law prohibiting discrimination against women was passed in 1987, and the Supreme Court ruled against the validity of a retirement age for women in 1989, the number of women who work for the government is increasing. The majority of them, however, occupy lower ranks. Women now comprise 9 percent of the membership of governmental committees, up from 5.5 percent in 1989, and from 2.2 percent in 1984.

  In Indonesia, although the Indonesian woman is not prevented by law from voting or running for a political office, very few women have so far taken active interest in politics, and there are not many women occupying key positions in political or public services.

According to statistics in 1996, Indonesian women held only 1.9 percent of the ministerial and sub-ministerial level in the government.

The 1998 national and local elections in the Philippines showed that out of the 17,450 elective posts from senator down to municipal councilor, only 2,681 were won by women. This is only 15.36 percent of the total percentage of seats.

In Central Asia, where half of the population are women, participation of women in governance and decision making was said to be very limited (Suleymanova, 2000).

3. Constraints and/or opportunities to gender equality

Five areas are included here to assess the constraints and/opportunities to gender equality. These are: a) social perception of women and men; b) legal status of women; c) women's perception of themselves; d) violence against women; and e) the rising women's movement in the Asia-Pacific region.

a) Social perception of women

Within the system of patriarchy which pervades in most, if not all, Asian countries, women in general are considered inferior to men. For this reason, subordinate roles are assigned to women. The following are accounts of problems related to this social perception of women.

- The massive contribution of women to production and reproduction is unrecognized. In South Asia, a report blames this on the statistical invisibility of women in national income accounts, which is not only due to the flawed definition of economic activity, but also due to the lack of gender disaggregated statistics. (Tikoo, 2000)
- In Japan, the assignment of gender roles is deeply rooted in Japanese society. For this reason, though Japan ranks third in Human Development Index, it ranks twelfth on Gender Development Index, and thirty-seventh on Gender Empowerment Measure. (Tatsukawa, 1996)
- In India, even if policies are amended to put women in position of power, deeply-entrenched beliefs and stereotypes which are the basis of discrimination are harder to resist. (Manchanda, 1996).
- In Nepal, women are considered 2nd grade human beings. (Sharma, 1996)
- In Thailand, a popular saying, "Man is the front foot of elephant, while woman is the back one" reflects a general view of women as secondary to men. This view hinders women's demonstration of their capabilities and participation in public and social activities, including cooperatives. (Patrawart, 1996)
- Studies show that female infanticide was practiced throughout China historically due to a universal preference for sons. Female infanticide could be a direct result of intervention at birth and an indirect result of malnutrition and illness from which girls suffered disproportionately because of the unequal distribution of family resources. (Huilin, 1995)
- In Korea, the preference for sons over daughters is quite strong, reflecting the traditional patriarchal family system. One third do not care whether they have sons or daughters. The majority (53%) value sons more because of their role in family lineage succession. On sex ethics, Koreans have a double standard, expressing more permissiveness toward men and imposing harsh standards on women. (Kim)

- The preference for sons, double standards on sex ethics for women and men and the general view of women as inferior to men are generally true to the Philippines as well.
- Like most traditional Asian societies, Indonesian societies continue to support the superiority of the men in governance and in the public and the private spheres of activity. Even with education, a large number of women still perceive themselves to be mere supporters of their men. The traditional belief in male superiority can be blamed for the present continuation of inequality between women and men in Indonesia, inspite of the existence of the Law on Gender Equality.

b) Legal Constraints and Opportunities to Gender Equality

In many countries in Asia, great strides have been achieved in the area of legislation on gender equality. Nonetheless, in some countries efforts have to be further exerted to achieve the same status. The following are reports on this area of concern:

- Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka in South Asia, and China, Mongolia, Republic of Korea, Philippines, Japan, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, Thailand, Fiji, Vanuatu and Vietnam in the East and Southeast Asian and Pacific region have incorporated a specific guarantee on gender equality in their constitutions. (ECOSOC, 1997)
- Many countries have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Philippines and Sri Lanka ratified CEDAW without entering reservations. Malaysia, Pakistan and Singapore were among the few countries that had not ratified the Convention as of January 1994, although Malaysia and Singapore eventually ratified the Convention in 1995. Pakistan ratified in the Convention in 1996 without reservations, though it entered a declaration that its implementation shall not conflict with the Constitution of Pakistan. (ECOSOC, 1997)

  Despite the international monitoring procedure under CEDAW, governments in the Asian region have been slow to introduce much needed legal changes. This is partly due to the fact the some countries have introduced reservations to the international standards even as they have ratified a treaty. Bangladesh, for example, has declared in its reservation that the government of Bangladesh does not consider itself bound by “article 2, 13 (a) and 16.1 (c) and (f) as they conflict with the Sharia law based on the Holy Koran and Sunna.” The Republic of Korea has also entered reservations to article 16 (1)(g) as well as Article 9 dealing with equal rights in the area of nationality which has also been subject to reservations by Fiji and Malaysia. Thailand has entered reservations which affect standards set by article 16. (ECOSOC, 1997) Though we may not be familiar with these articles and provisions of CEDAW, what is important to note here is the general status of different Asian countries in regard to CEDAW.
- In April 1993, the Indian Government introduced the Panchayat Raj Act, an act amending the Constitution providing thirty three percent (33%) reserved seats for women in local self-government. Basically the Panchayat Raj Act ensures thirty three percent (33%) of reservation for women irrespective of population size, while for other socially disadvantaged groups (e.g. castes/tribes), the reservation is subject to their proportion in the population. With reservation for women, the Act

ensured the emergence of 750,000 women as leaders in the villages of India. (Mukherjee, 1998).

The reservation for women at the village and district levels, however, has not translated itself at the national and state levels in the parliament and state assemblies respectively.

- In Malaysia, most of all gender-integration policies or laws protecting women are based on male standard. While there is always a clause stating that "there shall be no discrimination against citizens on the group of religion, race, descent or place of birth," "gender" is seldom included. (Baharen, 1996)
- Women in Nepal face not only social and cultural bias; they are discriminated by law as well, as exemplified by their legal discrimination in the matter of inheritance rights. Section 16 of the Charter of Partition of the existing National Code of 1963 provided that a daughter is entitled to inherit the parental property if she is unmarried and 35 years old. Once she gets married, she has to return the property to the family less the marriage expenses. A son, on the other hand, is heir of the ancestral property upon birth. (Pradhan-Malla, 1997)
- In Sri Lanka, no legal barriers was said to refrain women from any socio-economic activity in the country. (Heenatimulla, 1996)
- In Vietnam, the law on Land prohibits private ownership. Given that land is distributed by the state to each adult worker in the household, women's access to land is far higher than countries, such as the Philippines where a limited land reform program distributes land to male household heads. Overall, despite the emphasis on the family, government policies and the work of the Vietnamese Women's Union (VWU) have the effect of increasing the role of women in society, rather than driving them back to the home. (Mohideen, 1998)
- Since the founding of the People's Republic of China, China has made significant progress in advancing women's rights and interests through institutional changes and legal development. However, translating legal equality into reality still remains a challenge for a number of reasons. (Huilin, 1995)
- In Indonesia, single women over eighteen years old need the permission of their parents to work at night, and married women have to secure their husbands' permission in order to work.
- Philippine Congress, though a bastion of male power, has passed laws addressing the issues of women. These laws include: Republic Act (RA) 7192, Women in Development and Nation Building Act; RA 8353, The Anti-Rape Law which expanded the definition of the crime of rape as a crime against persons and not against chastity; RA 8505, The Rape Victim Assistance and Protection Act, which established Rape Crisis Centers; RA 7877, Anti-Sexual Harassment Act, which declares sexual harassment unlawful in the employment, education and training environment; RA 6955, The Anti-Mail Order Bride Scheme Act. (Sarenas, 1999)

c) Women's perception of themselves

Because of the social perception of women as inferior to men, and the lack of opportunities for more access to and control of resources, women, in general, have low self-esteem, and hence lack skills and self-confidence in participating in development work. The following are examples of accounts on this area:

- Rural women in India have a low self-image and do not consider themselves to be making a substantial contribution even though they are engaged in the production process. (Manchanda, 1996)
- In Thailand, some groups of women were said to be not recognizing their own capabilities. (Patrawart, 1996)
- In Korea, 56 percent of women surveyed expressed more dependence on men and felt sorry for their spouses if they bear no son.

d) Violence Against Women (VAW)

The list of constraints to women's empowerment and gender equality will not be complete without mentioning the different forms of violence experienced by many Asian women. The different forms of VAW are the following:

d.1 Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, and marital rape.

d.2 Physical, sexual and psychological violence within the general community including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking of women and prostitution.

d.3 Physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the state, for example, of political prisoners or others in state custody or in health or rehabilitation centers.

The following are some reports on VAW:

- Thailand is the main receiving country for trafficked women and children from poorer surrounding countries, with Thai and Filipino women trafficked to high-income countries or territories both inside and outside of Asia. South Asia, India and Pakistan are the main receiving countries from others in the subregion. Some women are trafficked towards the Middle East. Selectivity in terms of age and location of origin is a striking feature of this practice. Teenagers are supplied to the commercial sex industry or private households, and very young children are made to beg or solicit. The costs of trafficking are high for its victims and their communities in terms of health, as well as physical and psychological abuse (ILO, 2000)
- In China, government estimated that there were 1 million prostitutes serving in bars and massage parlors throughout the country in 1994. Mainland Chinese prostitutes, often controlled by underground crime syndicates are replacing other Asian women as the most common foreign prostitutes in Hong Kong. To curb the growth of underground sex industry, the government has passed a series of laws targeting pimps and patrons. (Huilin, 1995)

  Prostitution is often linked to another form of sexual violence against women, rape. In 1992, rape accounted for more than 3% of all crimes reported. A study on prostitutes in China has revealed that 19.4% of those surveyed were sexually assaulted as children; 10% were raped between the ages of six and fifteen, and 4% were victims of incest.

e) The Rise of Women's Movement in the Asia-Pacific Region

A big opportunity to push and lead Asian women towards equality with men is the continuing rise of women's movement exerting concerted actions to achieve women's empowerment. In fact, many gains that have been achieved, especially in the area of legislation for gender equality, were offshoots of women's organized actions. Some examples of women's collective actions for gender equality are the following:

- The women of Bangladesh through the Bangladesh National Women Lawyers Association are demanding for the withdrawal of the reservations of its government on some provisions of CEDAW. While the government feels that these provisions of CEDAW conflict with religious Islamic laws, women feel that these reservations infringe upon the protection and promotion of their rights. As a result of this advocacy, the government was forced to call on several women's groups to discuss their opinions about the country's CEDAW Report. (Firoze, 1998)
- The women of Fiji, the Solomon Islands, Kiribati and the Federated States of Micronesia are exploring all possible avenues of entry into the male-dominated political system. In Fiji, the Fiji West Regional Women's Caucus was organized to field women candidates and lobby for women's concerns. In the Solomon Islands, the Women in Politics committee was formed to assist and get women elected to the National Parliament in the June 1998 elections. In Kiribati, the women got the National Council of Women to agree that all registered women's groups, regardless of their religious affiliation should be represented in this government body. In the Federated States of Micronesia, the National Women's Program and the growing number of women's groups have forged ties to address not only the needs of women but the larger community as well. (Reyes, 1998)
- In the Philippines, six women political parties emerged to contest the party list elections, a window of opportunity to increase women's representation in legislature. (Reyes, 1998)
- Women NGOs in Indonesia are demanding for political changes and economic reforms. Several of them issued statements demanding lower prices to meet their practical needs. (Wijaya, 1998)

Since many women organizations and NGOs in the whole of Asia closely participate in the review and monitoring of the Beijing Platform for Action, more gains are hoped to be achieved.

Summary: Manifestations of Gender Bias in Asia

In summary, gender bias against women in Asia is manifested in the following forms: (Constantino-David, 1993)

1. Marginalization

Marginalization refers to the manifestations in the economic realm that discriminate against women. In specific terms, marginalization of women in the economy is manifested in the following:

a) Under/non-valuation of women work (especially domestic work);

b) Unequal pay for equal work;

c) Limited opportunities in terms of education and training;

d) Last to be hired, first to be fired.

2. Subordination

   Women generally enjoy less decision-making power than men within the family because their economic distribution is viewed as less important than men's. In Asian societies, men are usually perceived as the decision-makers, the power-wielders, and the "head of the family." On the other hand, women are seen as incapable of knowing things beyond domestic matters. Worst, her reproductive role is similarly taken for granted, "yet women raise children, maintain the home, cook, clean, serve meal, and take care of the men."

3. Multiple Burden

   While women now take part in the productive activities, their reproductive functions still lie solely on their shoulders. Men usually take part in the reproductive role only when they feel like doing it and only if it pleases them. Women's participation in the productive role, thus, becomes another burden because she is not relieved, even partially of her reproductive roles.

   Aside from her economic and reproductive activities, women are also called upon to participate in community and national development. With her present load of work at the workplace and home, this demand, hence, further multiplies her burden.

4. Gender stereotyping

   Gender stereotyping dictates how a woman and a man should behave starting from birth. Thus this process limits the growth of women and men. Since women's stereotypes roles and characteristics are considered inferior to men, hence, lesser opportunities for growth are provided to women.

5. Violence

   Many women experience verbal, physical and psychological violence. These forms of violence lower women's self-esteem and self-worth, leaving her with nothing.

6. Personal.

   The personal refers to the very core of a woman: her self-worth. Given the litany of violence and deprivation that women experience as they related with the society, women find it very difficult to develop their self-worth.

All of these manifestations of gender bias are well-entrenched in the cultures of Asia as revealed in their traditional dominant social practices. Cultural change is, however, possible, necessary and ultimately, inevitable for the survival and advancement of the Asian collectives. The change can start from initiating new social practices and developing new perspectives and philosophies that would serve to challenge and change the present patriarchal ideology and systems. This process of change has been started. At the forefront of this change process is the rising women's movement as well as meaningful partnerships between men and women. And one of the sectors and organizations that have been receptive to and supportive of this change process is the cooperative movement.

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UNIT 4
Gender Issues in Cooperatives

MAIN MESSAGE

As discussed in the first session of this module, Asian cooperatives are inevitably influenced by the traditional patriarchal Asian cultures. A clear manifestation of this gender problem is the insignificant representation of women in the leadership structures of most, if not all, mixed (with women- and men-members) cooperatives in Asia . This session, hence, helps the participants to look into the roots of this problem, and identify other areas of the cooperative structure and operation in which gender bias against women is evident. Specifically, this session delves into the following:

- Manifestations of gender issues in cooperatives, and their effects on women and men as well as on the whole cooperative.
- Platform of actions to enhance women's leadership in cooperatives.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to:

1. Facilitate an analysis of the possible manifestations of gender bias in cooperatives.
2. Encourage the participants to support and get involved in the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives.

Time Requirements: 2 hours

Introduction	:	5 minutes
Case analysis	:	45 minutes
Processing	:	30 minutes
Lecture	:	40 minutes

Materials Required :

1. A written case on a cooperative where gender issues are evident.
2. Manila papers, pens, masking tape for each small group;
3. Board

Steps:

1. During the preparatory stage of this session/module, look for a documented case study on a mixed cooperative where gender issues are, or used to be, very evident. If none, then you can develop one by identifying such kind of cooperative, and writing a case report on what their gender issues are and their responses to them. The consent of the cooperative to use their experience as a case to be analyzed during the training must be elicited. If they are having second thoughts, then you may commit not to reveal their identity and to change some parts of the case to avoid linking the case to them.

2. Explain the objectives and process of the session
   - The objectives are presented above.
   - In assessing the possible manifestations of gender bias in cooperatives, the participants will analyze a case of a cooperative which had problems related to gender, and which are undertaking the necessary actions to resolve them.
   - After analyzing the case, the participants will share their own assessment of gender issues in their own cooperatives.
   - A deepening lecture will be given.
3. Present the written case to the participants. Give them 15 minutes to read and understand the story, or you may distribute a copy of the case before this session as an assigned reading material.
4. When everyone has read the case report, divide the participants into small groups of 6 members each. Ask each small group to discuss and analyze the case by doing the following tasks:
   - Identify issues and problems that are related to gender concerns.
   - Analyze the possible causes of these problems.
   - List down actions that were undertaken to resolve these issues and problems.
   - Give other actions which you think can still be done to further address the issues and problems.
5. After the case analysis, ask the small groups to relate the case story to the gender relations situation of their own cooperatives.
   - Do they experience the same gender issues? If yes, what are these issues? If no, why do they think so?
   - If gender issues exist in their cooperative, what do they think are the causes? Are they the same as those of the cooperative depicted in the case?
   - What do they think must be done to address these issues?
6. Invite the small groups to share their discussion and analysis of the case as well as of their own cooperatives to the big group. Then summarize the outputs. The summary should contain a list of gender issues, causes of gender issues, and actions needed to address the situation for the case cooperative as well as for the cooperatives of the participants.
7. After the synthesis of the group reports, give a deepening input on the topic by discussing the following:
   - Common reasons for women's insignificant representation in the leadership structures of cooperatives.
   - Assessment of gender issues in cooperatives.
   - Platform for action to enhance women's participation in the leadership structures of cooperatives.

Caution/Hints/Tips:

On the preparation and use of the case method, please refer to the guidelines and proposed format discussed in the Users' Guide of this Training Manual.

Variation

Another way to handle this session is to bring the participants to the site of a cooperative with experiences in gender problems, and with programs to address gender issues and concerns, and promote gender and development.

Quick Check:

As a way of initially assessing how the session affected the participants, ask them to answer forms that contain the following:

1. Do you agree that gender issues exist in co-operatives?

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree Agree	Don't Know	Agree	Strongly Agree

If your answer is 1 or 2, please proceed to question number 4 .

If your answer is 4 or 5, please proceed to question 2 & 3.

If your answer is 3, please proceed to question 5.

2. If you agree or strongly agree, how is this manifested? _____
   _____
3. Should this situation be changed?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment

   Why? _____
   _____
4. If you disagree, why? _____
   _____
5. Did you find the session:
   a) Interesting? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment
   b) Stimulating? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment
   c) Enjoyable? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment
6. What are your suggestions to improve this session? _____
   _____

Trainers' Reference Material #1

Effects of Gender Issues on Women and Men, and on Cooperatives*

This paper does not imply that all gender issues mentioned here are present in all nor in the majority of cooperatives. Rather, the following matrix simply lists down all possible manifestations of gender issues in cooperatives to which gender equality advocates can watch out for. It is also important to note that the writers of this manual failed to find empirical researches on the extent of the prevalence of these issues in cooperatives in Asia .

Manifestations of Gender Issues in Cooperatives	Effects on:		Effects on Cooperatives
	Women	Men	
I. **Membership Requirements** 1. Restrictive state laws, and coop policies and practices on membership requirements. 2. High or unaffordable minimum share capital	Women, especially those with limited or no income, find it difficult to enter cooperatives, and seek economic assistance. Economic dependence on men continues.	Find it easier to enter cooperatives, and seek economic assistance. Stereotyped role as breadwinners reinforced.	Limited number of women members. Not able to utilize potentials of women. Not able to respond to gender issues of society.
II. On information on members 1. Lack of awareness & understanding of the particular conditions of women-and men-members. (gender disaggregated data)	Practical and strategic gender needs are not addressed. Confines women to non-leadership situation.	Allows men to dominate leadership positions.	Coop is not able to adequately and effectively respond to the needs of all of its members. Coop is not able to fully utilize the potentials of women.
2. Reproductive roles of women are not taken into account in the planning of programs and services.	Attending coop meetings and activities becomes additional burden. Absence of support services (day care services) maternity leaves, etc.	No paternity leaves; Men are not sensitive and responsive to the needs of women-members and personnel.	Plans and policies are not sensitive to the needs of women members & leaders, and personnel.

* Original version was taken from:
NATCCO (1995). Trinor's Manual: Gender senstivity training for cooperators. pp. 221-223. Quezon city, Phillpines: NACCO.

Manifestations of Gender Issues in Cooperatives	Effects on:		Effects on Cooperatives
	Women	Men	
3. Tendency to assign tasks & roles to members and leaders based on gender stereotyped, and not on actual and potential capacities and competence.	Women are assigned to positions that are extension of their household tasks (e.g. secretaries and treasurers).	Men are assigned to challenging and prestigious roles.	Capacity and competence of women and men are not fully utilized and developed.
II. On Leadership 1. Minimal participation of women in leadership/ decision-making	Women may not be able to access and control coop programs.	Men have greater access to and control of programs and benefits of coop	Reinforces traditional gender roles even in coop affairs. Higher positions and decisions are monopolized by men.
2. Nomination and election standards and practices of some cooperatives, such as: • Self-nomination, which many women are not comfortable with. • Pre-selection of nominees by a "nominators" group which is usually dominated by men.	Opportunity for leadership position very limited. Not able to effectively share in the planning, use and control of resources and benefits of coop. Practical and strategic gender needs are not addressed.	Have greater opportunity for leadership positions. With more opportunities to develop leadership skills and confidence. With more opportunity to participate in the planning, use and control of the resources and benefits of the cooperative.	Leadership is dominated by men. Not able to adequately and effectively respond to the needs and concerns of its women-members because of limited representation of women in its leadership structure. Not able to fully utilize the potentials of women.
III. On Provision of Services to Members 1. Unequal access to coop education and training because of failure to address the practical gender needs of women and hence, the	Limits their access to capability build up and self- development	Gives them better opportunity for self-development	Imbalanced development of its women- and men-members.

Manifestations of Gender Issues in Cooperatives	Effects on:		Effects on Cooperatives
	Women	Men	
failure to help women find time to attend to these type of activities.			
2. Unequal access to credit due to women's low share capital as a result of their unstable income.	Deprives women of economic independence. Limits their access to and control of benefits of cooperatives.	Reinforces the notion of men as sole breadwinners. More control of benefits lead to more opportunities for recreation.	Low capital build-up. Cannot respond to other felt needs of members; services are limited.
3. Unequal opportunities for career growth in cooperative	Limits number of women in leadership and management positions. Less representation of women in planning and decision-making.	Men dominate leadership and management positions. Men monopolize planning and decision-making in coop.	Higher delinquency rates Fast turnover of women members and staff.
IV. On handling of external affairs / attitudes of members that affect the coop 1. Failure to give attention to or show concern about the unequal sharing of housework and parenting of couples who are both members of cooperatives.	Women prioritize housework/child care more than coop affairs. Balancing of housework and coop activities becomes sources of stress and pressures.	Men have more time for coop activities and more opportunity to assume leadership positions.	Domestic problems affect participation of couples in cooperatives. Minimal attendance of women in meetings & less participation in coop activities

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Trainers' Reference Material # 2

Platform for Action to Enhance Women's Participation in Leadership and Decision Making in Cooperatives

This Platform of Action is an agenda to increase women's representation and participation in leadership and decision-making bodies in cooperatives, with the end-in-view of achieving equality of access to leadership positions between men and women . This equal access to leadership positions is hoped to result into equitable benefits for both women and men, and progress for the whole cooperative movement.

The Platform of Action, with its accompanying Declaration document, is an organized compilation of ideas of people from various sectors in the co-op movement as well as from government, non-government, and women's organizations. They are those who participated in the Women in Decision-Making in Cooperative Regional Conference in May 1997 in Tagaytay City, Philippines organized by the International Cooperative Alliance Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific with the Asian Women in Cooperatives Development Forum (AWCF). These ideas are addressed not only to cooperators and governments in countries in Asia and the Pacific but also to all regions in the world because women's under-representation or marginalization in co-op leadership is a global problem, and the actions that need to be taken must be done both globally and locally. The Platform of Action is probably the first and only document of its kind that has been published to-date.

With women and men working together, and the strategies in the Platform of Action implemented, then more women in leadership and decision-making positions and more coops having women in decision-making positions can be expected. I

The six strategies contained in the Platform of Action are the following:

Strategy 1: Instituting gender-sensitive co-op laws, by-laws and policies that promote increased number of women membership in co-ops and participation in leadership and decision-making therein.

Governments and co-ops at all levels— primary, secondary, tertiary, regional and international—must : review co-op laws and other co-op policies from a gender perspective and amend these laws if they restrict women from becoming co-op members or leaders; actively recruit more women to become co-op members and leaders; and encourage joint membership of couples in a household. Governments, co-ops and non-governmental organizations must support regional and international co-op bodies that promote the increase of women in leadership of co-ops.

Strategy 2: Building capacity of co-ops in developing women leadership.

Co-ops at primary and national levels must conduct gender sensitivity training. Co-op at all levels must provide technical, material, human and financial resources for trainers' training on women leadership; and must support the quota system as a means to ensure and facilitate the increase in the number and level of women's participation in co-op leadership and decision-making.

Strategy 3: Building capability of women for leadership and decision-making in co-ops.

Actions for primary level co-ops include:

1. Conduct of:
   a) Gender sensitivity training for women members and leaders;
   b) Leadership training for women members;
   c) Management training for women co-op staff as well as incumbent and prospective women leaders;
2. Provide equal opportunities for career advancement to female and male coop staff;
3. Educate young co-operators about gender issues and the need for women leadership in co-ops; and
4. Establish a network of women in the primary co-ops.

For national level co-ops, actions include:

1. Develop and promote gender-sensitive human resource and youth development programs for co-ops;
2. Document, publish and disseminate best practices on women leadership in co-ops; and
3. Establish a national network of women leaders of primary co-ops.

Many actions are propose to be taken up by regional-level co-op organizations, including:

1. Develop, publish and share information on curriculum and training materials on a leadership program for women in co-ops;
2. Organize regional for a related to the power sharing between women and men, and their equal participation in decision-making;
3. Organize exchange or exposure visits for women co-op leaders on co-op operations and other programs relevant to the women leadership and decision-making issue;
4. Advocate at the international level on this issue; and
5. Build solidarity with the women's movement, people's and non-governmental organizations, trade union movement, and other players in the civil society that support the issue of women in the co-ops.

Strategy 4: Developing, promoting and implementing a gender-disaggregated data (GDD) collection and utilization system for cooperatives.

Regional level co-op organizations are to develop a system for generating, analyzing and utilizing GDD in all aspects of operations of primary co-ops, including on leadership representation and participation. Primary and national level cooperatives are to collect GDD on membership and leadership on a regular basis.

GDD is important because the data help the co-ops see the invisible contributions of the women to the co-ops. Through GDD, the co-ops are also better able to know the conditions and needs of women and men members, which are different from each other. Thus, better co-op services can be developed to answer the needs of the women members and the needs of the men members.

Strategy 5: Creating a supportive environment for the enhancement of women's participation in the leadership and decision-making in cooperatives.

The supportive environment that co-ops at all levels must provide is one where co-ops would challenge or prevent stereotypes of women and men in meetings, in the conduct of training and in training materials, in informal discussions, or in the decision for staff promotion. Furthermore, co-ops must ensure that women have equal access to advanced technology that enhances their participation in co-op leadership and decision-making.

Strategy 6: Establish a Leadership Development Fund for Women in Cooperatives generated from within the co-op movement as well as from other institutions, to be used in carrying out the actions contained in this Platform of Action.

This is a very important strategy because without it, all the other strategies will not be carried out. The action proposed is that co-ops at all levels establish a Leadership Development Fund for Women in Co-ops, with funds sourced from:

1. Allocation of at least 2.5% of annual net surplus of the co-op at any level;
2. Allocation of a percentage of the Education and Training Fund proportionate to the percentage of women members in the co-op; and
3. Undertaking of fund-raising activities to contribute to the fund.

Aside from the above Platform of Action, other practical actions shared during the same Conference were the following:

1. Raise the awareness on the benefits to be gained from increasing the participation of women in the boards of co-ops.

   With more women in their Boards, co-ops gain more direct link with the individuals that is, the women, who in many cases decide what goods and services the household will purchase and which the co-ops can supply. By involving women, who are often an untapped source of potential leaders, co-ops wider their leadership pool. The benefits to be gained should be made known not only to the membership and to the men as a whole, but also to women themselves.

   Enabling women to get into elected positions might require more than just letting the democratic process flow whereby all members of both sexes have the right and opportunity to vote and be voted for. In many cases, co-ops might have to take more pro-active efforts in bringing women to elected positions. Efforts can include helping women go through mock campaign and election proceedings to teach them winning tactics and skills.

2. Remove legal impediments to women's involvement; and revise rules, procedures, and election systems to ensure equal opportunities.

   There are cases where in a household, the co-op membership is in the man's name, thus, the woman is not a member and is unable to run for election or even to vote in the co-op.

3. Push for adjustment of working conditions to reconcile work and family responsibilities;

   For example, since women are often the primary caregivers for children, arrangements for childcare may have to be considered so that women can attend activities like board meetings.

4. Consider carefully the candidate who will first break down the gender barrier in the Board of Directors.

The first woman board member may be faced with rejection, hostility, or gender-based teasing, at the very least. She should be able to cope with the stress and focus on being a good director. She will then make it much easier for the other women who will follow.

5. Co-ops must institute policies that will ensure women's position in decision making;

   An example of these policies is the mandating of a quota system where a minimum percentage of the members of the executive committee or the board is reserved for women.

6. Focus efforts on increasing women's involvement in the community level.

   From the grassroots, women's involvement in second-tier and higher level co-op organizations will naturally follow.

7. Establish a support network for women for contact building and learning acquisition, not necessarily in a formal way.

   For instance, women leaders tend to approach each other and draw on each other's experiences for support.

8. Help women take advantage of training opportunities to build skills and confidence, and to overcome own inhibitions as members of the co-ops' decision-making bodies.

   Training opportunities include motivation sessions, assertiveness training, feedback on leadership styles, group building exercises, and others. Further training activities enable women to do key leadership functions, such as facilitating meetings, planning and strategizing, analyzing financial statements, policy formulation, and others.

9. Combat biased and discriminating image of women in co-op media.

   Promote through media a more equal division of responsibilities of work and homecare between women and men.

10. Empower women through full employment and self-reliance.

    Women feel economically strong, independent, and autonomous when they have stable income, security of work, and assets in their name.

11. Organize and strengthen women's organizations.

    Organizations provide strength to women's struggle for equality with men.

12. Women co-op leaders should carry a "political agenda" developed by the women members of their cooperatives.

    The political agenda contains a list of positions and proposals on how their issue, concerns and interests of women will be addressed and satisfied. To push and realize these positions and proposals, the women will elect a candidate who commits and has the capacity, attitude and orientation to uphold and implement them. An implication of this is that women leaders will have to build, within their cooperative, organized groups of women (hopefully including sympathetic male members) who can question the policies of their own co-ops and demand that they be changed if they hinder the attainment of gender equality in the co-op.

13. Women leaders to sustain their leadership roles in the building of small communities of co-op members to keep them in touch with their membership and with each other, as well as help them define and refine their agenda for their co-ops.

Building these “geographical units” enables the co-ops to remain in touch with the members even as they continue to grow bigger. With women at the forefront of these organized communities, their concerns and interests, as well as those of men, will, hence, be given utmost attention and importance

14. Advocate for increased participation of women in the leadership and decision-making bodies of co-ops at the international level.

    On their own, women in cooperatives find it hard to make use of opportunities for leadership at this level. ICAROAP and other international networks, such as the AWCF, have a key role to play in this advocacy, such as advocating for amendments in co-op laws, bylaws, and policies that prohibit and/or constrict women from becoming members or leaders of co-ops.

15. Ensure that women and men have equal chance of winning in co-op elections in the primary and federation levels.

    Equal exposures during the campaign must be given to women and men candidates. Another way of equalizing the playing field which primary co-ops can do is to send both women and men as official delegates to General Assemblies at the federation levels.

16. Support the aspiration and quest of co-op members for a different type of co-op leadership. A type of leadership that is values-based, issue-focused, member-responsive and community-concerned.

    One co-op in the Philippines requires candidates to answer three questions: 1) What are your concerns if elected? 2) What do you plan to do with these concerns? 3) If elected or not elected, what help can you give to your co-op? This kind of initiative in promoting an alternative type of leadership can be supported.

Source: *Asian Women in Cooperative Development Forum. (1999). The hidden half: Women co-op leaders and decision-makers. Quezon City, Philippines: AWCF.*

UNIT 5
Importance of Women to Cooperatives

MAIN MESSAGE

With their emphasis on the importance of giving equal treatment to all of their members, women and men alike, cooperatives can be considered as an enabling vehicle and environment for women's empowerment. In the same vein, with their representation of half of the population of the world and with their generally proven capacity to share distinctive contributions to organizations, women can be considered as indispensable to cooperatives.

This session discusses the reasons for saying that not only do women need cooperatives to achieve gender equality, but cooperatives need women as well to authentically achieve its reason for being. The basic contents of this session are the following:

- Research studies revealed that women can be as competent as men in organizational management, and can be more competent in some areas, such as conflict handling.
- The reasons why women should have an equal share in co-op leadership and decision making. Three reasons will be emphasized here:
  - To actualize the principles of democracy and fairness in cooperatives;
  - To effectively and efficiently design appropriate and sustainable products, in the form of goods or services, for all of its members; and
  - To systematically make use of the distinctive competence of women for the benefit of the whole cooperative.

SESSION GUIDE

Objective:

1. To raise the awareness of participants on the distinctive competence of women and on the importance of women's participation in the leadership and decision-making bodies of cooperatives.
2. To show how women can transform cooperatives with their contributions and values.

Time Requirement: Three hours

1. Introduction: 15 minutes
2. Small group reflection and sharing: forty-five minutes
3. Plenary reporting: sixty minutes
4. Synthesis and Lecture: sixty minutes

Materials Required :

1. Two bond papers per participant;
2. One box of crayons per small group; a total of five crayons for the five groups
3. 3 sheets of manila paper, pentel pens and masking tape per small group;
4. Overhead projector

Steps:

1. Explain the objectives of the session, as stated in this session guide.
2. Ask each participant to think of two women, who have proven themselves to be models of empowered women: one woman who s/he admires most; and another woman who s/he wants to thank for her contribution to his/her personal growth or community/societal development.
3. For the woman admired most, the questions to ask are:
   - Who is this woman? What is her name?
   - What are her qualities and abilities?
   - What did she do or what has she done which made or makes you admire her?
   - Using your one sheet of bond paper, create an admiration card for this woman. Write to her a personal letter narrating your reasons for admiring her.
4. For the woman who a participant wants to thank for her contributions to his/her personal growth or community/societal developments, the questions to ask are:
   - Who is this woman? What is her name?
   - What are her qualities and abilities?
   - What did she do or what has she done which made or makes you thank her?
   - Using your other sheet of bond paper, create a "thank-you" card for this woman. Write to her a personal letter narrating your reasons for thanking her.
5. When each of the participants has finished creating two cards for two women, divide them into small groups of six members. Explain the process of the small group sharing before they break up:
   a) First, invite them to share in their small groups the two women they have chosen. This sharing shall be entitled, "Tribute to Women."
   b) After a participant has shared, she will paste in a manila paper her card for the woman she admires most, and in another manila paper her card for the women she wants to thank.
   c) Entitle the manila paper with cards for admired women as "Tribute to Women we Admire," and the manila paper with cards for women they wish to thank as "Tribute to Women We Want to Thank."
   d) Below each card, write the name of the woman and the name of the participant. For example, "To Conching, my mother, from your daughter, Brenda."

      The pasting of each card in a manila paper will be after the sharing of each participants. Thus, after a participant has shared, she will stand up and paste her cards in the manila papers; then another participant will share, then paste her cards in the two manila papers as well; and so on.
   e) After everyone has shared, a member of the small group will offer a prayer of tribute to the women they admire, and another member will offer a prayer of tribute to the women they want to thank.
   f) In separate manila papers, ask each small group to summarize:
      - The common qualities and traits of the women they admire and they want to thank;
      - Their reasons for admiring and thanking these women.

- Their message to women of their own cooperatives and of the whole cooperative movement. Message should contain their proposals on what women should do in order to gain leadership status in their cooperatives.

6. Give each small group fifteen minutes to share their outputs to the big group.
7. Then, give a lecture on why women are important to cooperatives. You may highlight in your lecture the following:
   - Researches showing that women can be as competent as men.
   - Distinctive competence of women;
   - Reasons why women should have an equal share with men in coop leadership and decision making.
8. If the participants know a common song on women's struggles or a song of tribute to women, then this will help in closing their small group sharing.

Variation:

Instead of writing admiration and thank-you cards, you may ask each participant to simply verbally share to her small group her reasons for admiring and thanking her chosen women. Then the small group facilitator will synthesize the sharing of the members and write the synthesis in a manila paper for presentation to the plenary. After the plenary presentation, you may proceed with the lecture and end the session with a song of tribute to women.

Caution:

Participants in this session can be very emotional. In the small group sharing, others may not be able to hide their tears. If this happens, let them pour out their hearts. It will, thus, help if a facilitator is assigned to each small group. If all of the members become emotional, then the facilitator can guide them in their sharing and discussion.

Quick Check:

Distribute quick check forms for each participant to answer:

1. Do you think women in your co-operatives are giving distinctive contributions in your co-operatives? (Please check appropriate box)

   ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ Yes, but not enough

2. If yes, what are their contributions? _____

   _____

   _____

3. If no or yes, but not enough, what do you think hinder them from fully giving their contributions to their co-operatives? _____

   _____

   _____

4. If you don't know, what do you plan to do now? _____

   _____

   _____

Trainers' Reference Material

The Importance of Women to Cooperatives

The previous sessions mainly discussed why and how a cooperative can be a vehicle and an appropriate environment for women's empowerment. In this session, the emphasis is on the other side of the coin. That is: while women need cooperatives for its empowerment, cooperatives as well need women to fulfill its mission, and to achieve its goal and vision. In this light, this module views the relationship between women and cooperatives as symbiotic and synergistic.

This paper discusses the reasons behind the need of cooperatives for women. Briefly, this paper posits that women have the capacity and potentials to be as competent as men. Women, therefore, should enjoy the same right with men in being considered for leadership positions of cooperatives. Moreover, past studies show that women — since they have been honed by society on special types of traits and skills — have distinctive competence to contribute to the society and organizations, such as cooperatives. Very importantly, since women make up a significant number in the membership of cooperatives, then their presence in the leadership structures of cooperative serves to represent the voices, concerns and interests of this significant sector in the cooperative.

I. Women's Distinctive Competence

The concern for the impact of the prevailing traditional subservient view of women on the psycho-social, economic and political growth of both women and men, as well as of their families, community and society, has led many social scientists to conduct empirical comparative studies of women and men's nature and competence. Many of these studies reveal that in the area of management competence, women are as competent as men, and in some cases are capable of out-achieving them. Some studies also say that women, by nature, are different from men; but the difference does not make them less competent nor less valuable than men. Rather, their differences or distinctive nature stand to complement the weaknesses and strengths of men. From this general view, therefore, the stereotyped view of women as inferior to men is contested. And for as long as cooperatives continue to be predominated by men and continue to have less efforts in ensuring women's significant representation and participation in their leadership, they miss the opportunity to witness and experience the truths of these empirical findings on women. To substantiate this view, let us look at some of these studies.

1. Women can be as competent as men

An empirical study of Susan Donnell and Jay Hall (1980) on male and female managers yielded results that were contrary to expectations. In the analysis of their data, the following conclusions were reached:

a) The difference between female and male managers in work motivation profiles was significant. The work motivation profiles of female managers were more "achieving than those of their male counterparts";

b) The male managers were found to be more competent in interpersonal practices than their female counterparts. The male managers were found to be more open and candid with their colleagues than were females; and

c) Women, in general, do not differ from men, in general, in management styles.

Based on these findings, Hall and Donnell commented, " It seems we can no longer explain away the disproportionately low numbers of women in management by the contention that women practice a different brand of management than men." Nonetheless, they stressed that this did not mean that all was well in the male-oriented management activities.

Another study was conducted by Belle Rose Ragins and Eric Sundstrom (1990) on the perceived power of female managers as compared with male managers. Again contrary to predictions, the study found that subordinates rated female managers higher than male managers on expert power. Moreover, it was also shown that male and female managers did not show the expected differences in combined reward, coercive, legitimate and referent power. In interpreting the results of this research, Ragins and Sundstrom cited two broad implications. The first implication mentioned was "that sex-role stereotypes and expectations may be replaced by more accurate perceptions of managers' power when subordinates have adequate information about their managers' organizational influence." In other words, sex stereotyping is only in the mind and continues to be there for as long as information on the actual capacities and achievements of specific women are lacking. But once individuals assess the performance of specific women and men leaders, information on their actual performance and not the abstract stereotypes become the basis for their assessment. The other practical implication of the study was "that female managers may fare better than is currently expected."

Interestingly, an unauthored article in the web site of Women's Work cited a study by Washington-based Foundation for Future Leadership, which found women-managers to be more competent than their male counterparts. The research showed "significant differences in management and leadership skills of working men and women. Of the 31 categories identified as important to managerial success, women came out ahead in 90% of them."

To sum-up, these studies imply that women, if trained and given opportunities to gather leadership experiences, can be as competent as, or more competent than, men. Gender stereotyped views of women as unfit for management or leadership positions can, hence, be contested.

2. Women are Different from, but not Inferior to Men

One bulk of studies on the differences of women and men is in the area of conflict management, which is an indispensable skill of all leaders and managers. The following are some of the studies in this specific field of involvement of leaders.

The characteristics of women peacemakers are observed to be different from their male counterparts. Brock-Utne (1994) observed three general characteristics of women peacemakers: they use nonviolent techniques, actions and strategies; they value all life in nature, especially the life of children; and their work is transpolitical, often aimed at reaching people in the opposite camp. Miedzan (1994), on the other hand, said that the "masculine mystique teaches men to be tough, to repress empathy, and not to let moral concerns weigh too heavily when the goal is winning." She further contended that this masculine mystique influences many citizens to support wars unquestioningly and encourages young boys to sacrifice their lives in them, often unnecessarily.

Many studies cited two reasons for this differential situation between women and men: one, this is a result of a gender schema or stereotyping, where being masculine is viewed as

synonymous to power-related traits, such as being aggressive, independent and dominant, and thus is highly approved of boys while greatly discouraged among girls, who, on the other hand, are stereotyped as passive, submissive and dependent (Brock-Utne 1985, Bem 1983, Ragins and Syndstrom 1990); and two, this is what the boys and girls learn from their models in the family, community and society. In their socialization process girls/women and boys/men are rewarded or punished in exhibiting attitudes consistent or contrary to their stereotyped attitudes and roles (Bem 1983).

Another explanation to this difference between women and men was forwarded by Carol Gilligan (1977). In her study of the moral development of women, Gilligan said that from the perspective of women, the moral person is one who cares for the welfare of others, and one who meets her or his obligations and responsibilities to others, if possible, without sacrificing oneself. On the other hand, among the men whom Kohlberg, a psychologist, centered his study of moral development, the moral imperative appeared rather as emphasizing the respect for the rights of others and, thus, the protection from interference of the right to life and self-fulfillment. From the perspective of men, therefore, what is morally important is the respect for the individual rights of persons. From the perspective of the women, on the other hand, what is morally important is caring and meeting one's obligations and responsibility to other people. Based on these studies, Gilligan concluded that women speak in a different moral voice than the men.

Before Gilligan's study, the moral development of individual women was assessed through the framework of Kohlberg. Based on Kohlberg's framework, however, women's moral development is inferior to men because women's common definition of a moral person falls only at the third stage of the six sequential stage of moral development framework of Kohlberg. Other psychological theories, such as that of Sigmund Freud, which, in effect, described and defined women as inferior to men, and which, thus, contributed to a societal devaluing of women, are, in the same vein, being contested.

This finding of Gilligan — that women speak in different moral voice than men — was supported by Josephine Perez(1994) in her graduate thesis. Perez found her female respondents — who were university students — differing significantly in their attitudes towards peace and violence from the male respondents. These attitudes include differences in dimensions of power, recognition and justice. In these three dimensions, women were found to exhibit more peaceful tendencies than men. Both women and men respondents, however, agreed on the statements that dealt with various issues, such as equality, non-use of violence, cooperation and exercise of responsibility.

In more concrete terms, Rosalinda Pineda-Ofreneo(1999) found in a study that the financial and economic crisis, which reached its heights in 1997, has had a differential impact on women and men in the informal sector. In one of her findings, she said: "Women and girls tend to have more productive and reproductive work, while men find it difficult to occupy themselves, leading to such problems as drinking and family violence." Based on this study, it can be generally said that in the face of a crisis, women in the informal sector tend to respond more productively and constructively than their male counterparts.

The conclusion that can be reached from these studies is that women in general — because of the way the society has honed them — tend to address problems and conflicts differently from men in general. And this is the area when women can be said to be more competent than men. Another lesson that can be culled from these studies is that: It is about time to drop the societal view of women's stereotyped roles and characteristics as inferior to men. Rather,

the society can make full use of the situation by capitalizing on the present competence of women towards transforming men-dominated structures and systems, without however, limiting the choices of women and perpetuating the boxing or confining of women and men within gender stereotyped roles and attributes.

II. Why Should Women Have an Equal Share with Men in Co-op Leadership and Decision-Making?

This was the question answered by the 1997 Regional Conference on "Women in Decision-Making in Cooperatives" organized by ICAROAP with AWCF. The documents of the said conference contain the following answers:

1. To actualize the principles of democracy and fairness in cooperatives

Since co-ops pride themselves as being rooted in democratic ideals and being fair to all without consideration of any form of discrimination, it should only follow that they should give both women and men equal share of power and equitable participation in decision-making.

In 1992, Ms Katarina Apelqvist reported to the ICA Congress in Japan the views of the ICA Global Women's Committee, which she then chaired, on the *Cooperative Values* study report presented at the Congress. The study was part of the process towards the formulation of the *Statement of Co-op Identify*, adopted in 1995 by ICA. In her report, she stressed that co-operators have to wake up to the fact that equality is not only between men but also between women and men. And without this equality between the two sexes, there is just a parody or an illusion of democracy. Equality, therefore, is a pre-requisite of democracy, "equality and democracy [being] integral parts of the co-op movement's stated basic values, which are in reality inseparably linked. This raises the question of the cooperative movement's credibility… it is also a question of the cooperative movement's life force." She added that women's poorer legal, financial, professional and personal conditions should have a decisive effect on the formulation of the co-op principles and practice. Finally, Ms Apelqvist said that the cooperative movement cannot continue decade after decade to regard women as "hidden resources" to be unleashed some time or the other.

2. To effectively and efficiently design appropriate and sustainable economic programs for all of its members

Since the services of cooperatives are primarily intended for its members, then, its membership serves as the main market of its goods and services. To be able to reach a comprehensive and intensive understanding of its market — its membership — a cooperative should stay close and sensitive to their needs and aspirations. This can be effectively and efficiently done through balanced representation of the different groups identified in the stratification of its membership, such as women and men, and others. The underlying contention is that the members are the best people to articulate their own needs and interests. Since representation is the strategy through which this self-articulation of needs and interests becomes possible, a strategy much better than a research by disinterested people or speculations by others, such as men on women should be adopted and upheld.

The current make-up of cooperative decision-making, that is, dominated by men, prevents

women from having their perspectives and needs articulated and addressed. Since women are more aware of and are better able to press for their own needs and priorities that are results of their having been brought up or socialized differently, then this present situation in cooperatives must be changed. As co-op leaders, especially in the Board which makes policies and sets the co-op's direction according to what the members want, women will be able to ascertain well and work, with certainty, for the needs of the women members.

3. To systematically make use of the distinctive competence of women

According to studies cited in this paper, women can be as competent as men in the area of organizational management. They, therefore, have to be given equal chance to lead and manage their cooperatives, and to prove themselves. But in the area of conflict management and in crisis situations, women — because of their upbringing — tend in general to provide more productive, constructive and non-violent responses. Moreover, the differing, yet compatible and complementing views of women and men on a moral person can lead — if both women and men are in the decision-making bodies of cooperatives — to a more humane, effective and efficient type leadership — with men for instance focusing on the rights of individual members, while women focusing on their caring relationships. In providing another way of handling conflicts and crisis situations and in complementing the leadership style of men, women, thus, can make a difference. And cooperatives, as an organization of human beings, undeniably, need this complementing kind of leadership of women and men.

Women can bring into their leadership, lots of talents and skills, and varying perspectives and experiences that will enrich and benefit the co-ops. Women leaders can contribute to increasing the co-ops' competitiveness as businesses in the era of globalization and technology. Hand in hand, women leaders can help the cooperatives become more aware of and responsive to the members' needs that are not traditional co-op concerns. Examples of these needs are health care, literacy, childcare, violence against women, library facilities, and recreation activities for women. When cooperatives meet these needs, members become happy and satisfied with their co-ops, which means increased patronage, added income and more members.

Women decision-makers can also bring in a more consultative and process-oriented leadership, contrary to men's dictatorial and efficiency-oriented leadership. Women are less hierarchical, give value to diversity in viewpoints and in approaches to doing things, and are focused on teams. Women's style is actually favored by the new model of leadership that emphasizes empowerment and partnership, collaboration and persuasion instead of domination, co-operation over competition, collectivism over individual action, and inclusion over exclusion. The old stereotype of an effective leader — autocratic, ruthlessly competitive — is now evolving into a leader who is a selfless, flexible, persuasive steward, and a team player.

This paper is not, however, saying that men do not have the capacity nor the potentials for this type of leadership. As women can, they also can. And they can best demonstrate that they can if they support women's significant representation in the leadership structures of cooperatives, as well as governing bodies of their communities and societies.

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UNIT 6
Gender Analysis and Approaches

MAIN MESSAGE

At this point of the training, the participants are expected to have reached a certain degree of appreciation of gender concerns and principles. Nonetheless, the advocacy for gender equity and equality will only be fully appreciated, espoused and upheld if basic gender concepts are understood. With this premise, this session presents to the participants the following basic gender concepts and approaches as a way of deepening their learning from the previous sessions of this module:

- Definition and differentiation of the terms, sex and gender.
- Gender analytical concepts and tools through which the manifestations of gender bias can be surfaced and analyzed.
- Evolution of responses to gender issues — from Women in Development (WID) to Gender and Development (GAD).
- Gender and Development as the current popular approach to gender issues.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

After this session, the participants will:

1. Have a clear definition and differentiation of the terms, sex and gender.
2. Be aware of basic analytical concepts and tools that can be used in analyzing the manifestations of gender bias against women in Asian cultures and in cooperatives.
3. Acquire a general knowledge of the different responses to gender issues , namely the Women in Development (WID), Women and Development (WAD) and Gender and Development (GAD) programs and initiatives.
4. Develop a basic understanding of gender practical and strategic needs that, if addressed, will lead to the realization of gender equity and equality.
5. Acknowledge the advocacy for gender equity and equality as not a “war of the sexes,” nor an anti-male initiative, but as an endeavor that regards both women and men as victims of gender issues, and as stakeholders of the struggle for gender equality.

Time Requirements : 2 and a half hours

Introduction:	15 minutes
Exercise: Characteristics, Roles and Activities of Women and Men	45 minutes
Discussion and Lecture	90 minutes

Materials Required :

1. 6 idea cards (8" x 4" colored papers) in three colors — 2 idea cards per color — for every participant;

2. One marker for each participant;
3. Manila papers where matrix shown in step #2 is written.
4. Masking tapes.
5. Board and pens.

Steps:

1. Explain the objectives and process of this session.
   - The objectives are stated above.
   - To achieve these objectives, the following will be done:
     – Exercise where the typical activities of women and men, and the traditional roles, characteristics and activities attributed to them will be surfaced.
     – Identifying characteristics and capacities of women and men that are biological and are culturally determined.
     – Analyzing the division of roles between women and men
     – Lecture where basic gender concepts will be explained.
2. After an overview of the session has been given, give each participant 6-idea cards (8" x 4" colored papers) in three colors — 2 idea cards per color. Tell them to do the following:

   - In two cards with same color, say green idea cards, write the typical roles of women and men. In one card, write an example of a typical role of women, and in the other card, an example of a typical role of men.
   - In another two cards with same color, say yellow idea cards, write the typical characteristics associated with women and men. In one card, write an example of a characteristic typically associated with women; and in the other card, a characteristic typically associated with men.
   - In the last two cards with same color, say orange idea cards, write the activities typically identified with women and men. In one card, write an example of an activity typically identified with women; and in another card, an activity typically identified with men.

   Each card should contain only one idea written in not more than seven words and big enough for every participant in the seminar room to read. Definitely, the participants have more than one idea on women and men in each category — roles, characteristics and activities. But each participant should initially choose only one, and, hopefully, expect the other participants to write other different ideas.
3. When the participants are ready with their idea cards, ask them to paste these cards in designated areas of the board, as shown below.

Roles (in green papers/cards)		Characteristics (in yellow papers/cards)		Activities (in orange papers/cards)	
Women	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**

3. As earlier mentioned, since the participants have been asked to think of only one idea per category for women and men, it is very possible for them to have more ideas that are not yet on the board. If this is the case, then give these participants more idea cards. Remind them to use the same color for each category.

4. When all participants have pasted all their additional idea cards, consolidate the similar answers and come up with a summary of answers to each category for women and men.

5. Process the answers by doing the following:

   5.1 Reverse the titles, women and men. Hence, the specified roles, characteristics and activities of men go to women, and vice versa. Form "buzz" groups to be composed of 3 to 5 participants seated beside each other, then ask each group to "buzz" on the following questions for 10 minutes:

   - Is the reversal possible? Can a woman really take on the roles, characteristics, and activities of a man, and vice-versa? Which ones are absolutely impossible?

     Each buzz group should be able to develop and report to the big group a list of roles, characteristics and activities which they think a man or woman cannot possess or perform.

     If a buzz group classifies an idea as impossible, but which you think is a culturally ascribed one, and hence may not be true to other cultures, ask them to think again, and ponder if indeed not a man (if the idea is associated with women) in this whole world possesses such characteristic or does such role or activity? Or the other way around on women for ideas traditionally associated with men.

     If the participants negatively react to the process of reversing the titles of women and men, assure them that the training does not advocate for a reversal of roles, characteristics and activities. Rather, the session only likes to point out the roles, characteristics, and activities that are socially ascribed to women and men, and hence, may differ from culture to culture, and can be changed; and those that are biologically determined, and hence, are universal and cannot be changed.

     The discussion should end with a list of roles, characteristics, and activities of women and men that are impossible and possible to reverse. With this list,

give the definitions and explain the differences of the terms, sex and gender. Generally, sex refers to biologically determined attributes of women and men. Roles, characteristics, and activities that are universal and cannot be taken on by the opposite sex fall under this category. Gender, on the other hand, refers to socio-culturally ascribed characteristics and roles of women and men, and can hence be different from culture to culture. A more detailed explanation of these terms is in the handout.

After the discussion of the terms, sex and gender, return the titles, women and men, to their original places.

5.2 Identify the setting (place) where roles and activities of women and men are usually undertaken. Ask the buzz group to answer the following questions. Give them ten to fifteen minutes to discuss their answers.

- What sparkling differences do you see in the settings of the typical roles and activities of women and men?

  An example of an answer which a buzz group can share to the big group is that the roles and activities of men are usually done outside of homes or in the workplaces, whereas those of women are generally confined in the houses.

- If a role of a man and another role of a woman are done in the same setting, such as in the house or in the workplace, are there differences in these roles and activities? Are they considered of the same level — in terms of authority and value if converted into income?

- What are the goals which women and men aim to achieve through their typical roles and activities?

  Since the typical setting of the roles and activities of men is in the workplace, while those of women is in the house, an expected answer of a buzz group is that the roles and activities of men are meant to generate income (productive), while those of women are aimed towards providing care for the family members and maintaining the house (reproductive).

  End this part of the discussion with an explanation of the productive-reproductive divide and its general effect on the differences in the degree of access to and control over the resources of the family and the community between women and men.

6. Give a deepening lecture on:
   - Gender analytical concepts:
     – The importance of differentiating the term, gender from the term, sex;
     – Understanding the productive-reproductive divide as a cause and effect of gender inequality;
     – Analyzing the differences of the degree of access to and control of resources of women and men;
     – The practical and strategic gender needs of women and men.
   - Responses to gender issues: from WID to GAD
   - Gender Planning: GAD as essentially rooting gender issue on patriarchal worldviews

and cultures and addressing the practical and strategic needs of women towards the development of their equitable relations with men.

7. As a way of closing the session and checking the learning experience of the participants, give them colored papers cut in tree shapes. On one side of the tree paper, ask them to write their new learning and affirmed ideas, analysis and convictions. On the other side of the tree paper, ask them to write points which are unclear or disagreeable or which they are still confused with.
8. Collect the papers in a basket and end the session with the poem, “For Every Woman” by Nancy Smith, and with a general statement that the advocacy for gender equity and equality is not a “war of the sexes,” nor an anti-male endeavor, but an advocacy which considers both women and men as victims, which relies on the participation and co-operation of both for its success, and from which both will eventually benefit from.

Caution/Hints/Tips

Some participants may find this session to be very theoretical. To prevent this, it will be best to prepare examples from the experiences of cooperatives in your area to explain and concretize the concepts discussed.

Variation

If you sense that reversing the titles, women and men, in the discussion of roles, characteristics of women and men will elicit from the participants strong negative reactions which will be difficult for you to manage, then don’t do it. Another way is to simply ask the participants to classify the identified roles, characteristics and activities of women and men into biologically determined and socio-culturally constructed ones. Though reversing the titles can help stimulate the thoughts of the participants and, based on experience, is more effective, this alternative process is better in some situations.

Quick Check:

Summarize the answers of the participants written on the “tree” papers distributed at the end of the lecture, and check for gains and problems.

Trainers' Reference Material

Key Gender Concepts

Note to Trainers:

Depending on your assessment of the level of understanding of the participants of gender concepts, you may choose which of the following concepts to present and emphasize during your lecture.

1. The terms, Gender and Sex

"Gender" refers to socially determined differences between women and men. These differences vary widely within and between cultures, and can change over time.

Gender is used as a tool to examine the roles, responsibilities, constraints, opportunities and needs of women and men in any context. This is because gender roles and needs are affected by class, age, race, ethnicity, culture and religion, and the geographical, economical and political environment. Within any given social context, gender roles may be flexible or rigid, similar or different, and complementary or conflicting. Besides differences between women and men, there may also exist differences among women themselves in terms of socio-economic levels, decision-making power and stage of life cycle.

The term gender does not replace the term **"sex"** which refers exclusively to **biological** differences, for example, when statistical data are broken down by sex. Since the differences between women and men, under the "sex" category, are biologically determined, characteristics that are linked with sex are universal and do not change over time.

The use of gender as an analytical tool offers advantages. It does not focus on women as an isolated group. Rather, it recognizes the roles and needs of both women and men. Moreover, inputs from both sides are required in order to achieve gender equality. Given than women are usually in a disadvantaged position compared to men of the same socio-economic level, promotion of gender equality encompasses the advancement of women's status in society by addressing their specific needs, interests and perspectives.

Hence, one refers to gender issues as opposed to women's issues because gender issues concern both women and men. With regard to cooperatives, analyzing the role and position of women and men in their socio-economic environment is important. This helps in identifying and addressing their different needs, in developing their strengths and potentials, and very importantly, in ensuring an equitable distribution of the benefits of cooperative development.

2. Gender Analysis and Planning

Gender analysis and planning are tools for identifying the different roles and needs of women and men in an organization, such as in a cooperative, and for developing and implementing concrete measures for the promotion of equality of opportunity and treatment between women and men members. In the past, policies and programmes geared towards macro-level planning and institutional development have often failed to take the sex composition and gender characteristics of the target groups into account. This neglect has led to unanticipated negative effects on the position of women workers. It is, therefore, now widely acknowledged that all policies and programmes, whether at the macro, sectoral or micro levels, should include gender analysis and planning.

Gender analysis and planning can be undertaken at any stage during the programming cycle. However, it is more effective to include gender equality concerns at the initial planning and design stages. The involvement of women and their organizations in the decision-making process at all stages of the programming cycle is an important way of ensuring that women actively and effectively participate in and benefit from the development process.

2.1 Gender Analysis

Carrying out a gender analysis is usually the first step in planning a programme because attitudes, prejudices and assumptions about women's roles are stumbling blocks to the promotion of equality between women and men. These are caused by a scarcity of gender disaggregated data and ignorance of women's actual roles, work and contribution to development which have been difficult to assess and measure, and therefore, disregarded. Visibility is, therefore, the starting point for integrating women into the development process.

Gender analysis requires the identification of:

a) The division of labour between women and men;

b) Who has access to and control over resources and benefits;

c) The needs of women and men;

d) The constraints and/or opportunities, i.e. that extent of direct and indirect discrimination in the socio-economic environment; and

e) The capacity of the cooperative — from primary to tertiary levels — to promote equality between women and men in employment as well as in the whole affairs of the organization?

Depending on the sector(s) to be addressed and the levels at which activities are carried out, the type and depth of information to be collected may vary. However, an analysis of the above five key variables is vital to enable the development of viable strategies towards the promotion of gender equality in the operations of the cooperative.

a) The gender division of labour

When identifying the division of labour between women and men, the following considerations are important:

- The division of labour between women and men depends on the socio-economic and cultural context and can be analyzed by differentiating between productive and reproductive tasks. **Productive tasks** refer to paid work undertaken by either women or men to produce goods and services for marketing, as well as for the processing of primary products. Such productive tasks can be based at the workplace or at home, and can be formally or informally organized. **Reproductive tasks** refer to child-bearing and the different activities carried out in caring for the household members and the community, such as fuel and water collection, food preparation, child care, education and health care. These activities are usually unpaid and excluded from national employment and income statistics because they are viewed as activities with non-measurable economic value.
- Because of economic need and the advancement of technology, such as in home appliances, women are pushed or encouraged to take on productive tasks as well. Nonetheless, the additional productive tasks of women do not effect into

men's sharing in the reproductive tasks. Thus, women's involvement in both productive and reproductive tasks means that they invariably work longer hours per day than men. Consequently, their often considerable workload is to be taken into account when designing and implementing programmes.

- Women's work is often **excluded from national employment and income statistics** because activities carried out by women are often **unpaid** or take place in the informal sector not covered by labour legislation. This has resulted in a serious under-estimation of women's contribution to development and society. It is, therefore, necessary to identify the validity and reliability of existing statistical data and to collect more precise information on women's work and their participation in economic activities.
- Women's position in the paid labour force is marginal and vulnerable in many parts of the world. **Job segregation** persists both horizontally — certain industries, sectors and occupations are dominated by either men or women affecting levels of pay and status — and vertically — women are usually found at the lower end of the hierarchical structure.

If little or no information is available on the gender division of labour within the target population, the labour profile of women and men at the macro, sectoral or micro levels has to be identified and defined. The main questions to ask are: Who does what, why, where, when and for how long?

b) Access to and control over resources and benefits

Major differences exist between women and men concerning the control or decision making power over the allocation and use of resources and benefits. A differentiation has to be made between **access to** and **control over** resources and benefits because access to the use of resources and benefits does not necessarily imply the power to control them. Resources include anything which people need to carry out activities. Among the important resources which poor women, in particular, often lack are time, paid jobs and money. Benefits include anything which accrues to people. They can be tangible or intangible such as food to be used for subsistence or sale, income, status, or power and recognition.

When identifying the differences between women and men regarding access to and control over resources and benefits, points for consideration are:

- The constraints or opportunities provided by law or tradition in some countries to the achievement of gender equity and equality. For instance, in some countries, women are **not allowed to own capital assets** such as land, buildings and equipment, nor are they able to enter into legally binding contracts (such as opening of a bank account, starting a business and obtaining credit) without permission of their husband or another male family member.
- The impact of the traditional division of labour between women and men (reproductive tasks for women and productive tasks for men), and of the unequal value given by the society to gender roles and tasks, to the degree of access to and control of resources of women and men.
- The differences in the degree of participation of women and men in decision making processes in all levels — from the home to the workplace, community and higher level of the political and economic structure, and on how this situation is perpetuated in the households, community and in organizations, such as the cooperative.

Whenever the target population of a cooperative is specified as the household, it is necessary to further differentiate between the roles and responsibilities of household members if women are to participate in and benefit from the programme.

c) Needs

Because the roles of women and men in societies are generally different, their needs may vary accordingly. It is useful to distinguish between practical gender needs (or basic needs) and strategic gender needs (or structural needs). **Practical gender needs** are the needs arising from the actual conditions women experience because of the roles assigned to them in society. These needs are often related to women's roles as mothers, homemakers and providers of basic needs and are concerned with inadequacies in living and working conditions. For women and men in the lower socio-economic strata, these needs are often linked to survival strategies. Meeting these practical needs is often essential. However, addressing practical needs only does not change the factors which perpetuate women's position as a disadvantage group in their societies.

Strategic gender needs are the needs identified to overcome the subordinate position of women to men in society and relate to the empowerment of women. They vary according to the particular social, economic and political context in which they are formulated. Usually they concern equality issues such as enabling women to have equal access to job opportunities and training, equal pay for work of equal value, rights to land and other capital assets, prevention of sexual harassment at work, domestic violence, and freedom of choice over childbearing.

It is most important that women are given the opportunity to identify and prioritize their own needs. Information about the target population is often collected from those with the highest socio-economic status within communities or workplaces, such as local elites, opinion leaders and male heads of households. This may lead to misconceptions about the roles, needs and interests of women. The information is usually more reliable if it comes from the women themselves and this may require specific organizational arrangements, such as utilizing female interviewers and/or organizing meetings for women only.

d) Constraints and opportunities in the socio-economic environment

To do gender planning, an inventory has to be made of the constraints and opportunities for progress towards equality between women and men which exist within the larger socio-economic environment and which may affect the programme under consideration. These factors may influence the position of women workers and should be considered at the macro, sectoral and micro levels as appropriate. They may be categorized as follows:

- **Economic conditions**, such as poverty level, income distribution, inflation rate, international trade relations, structural adjustment programmes and levels of infrastructure;
- **Demographic conditions**, such as fertility rate, labour supply, number of new entrants in the labour force every year, internal and international migration patterns;
- **Prevalent norms and values** (culture, religion and ethnicity); possible existence of various "subcultures," e.g. groups with beliefs which may differ from the main ideology;
- **Political events** at the international, national and local levels;

- **Legislation and regulations**, national development policies;
- **Training and educational levels** of the population and education and training facilities; and
- **Institutional arrangements** such as the nature and extent of government institutions, employers' and workers' organizations, other NGOs, community or women's groups.

It is useful to identify the extent of direct and indirect discrimination which constrain women's full participation in society. **Direct discrimination** occurs when formal. Legal and religious rules and regulations prohibit women from participating in activities equally. One particular form is "de jure" discrimination, i.e. the existence of discrimination in law. For example, women in Nepal experience legal discrimination in the matter of inheritance rights. Section 16 of the Charter of Partition of the existing National Code of 1963 provided that a daughter is entitled to inherit the parental property if she is unmarried and 35 years old. Once she gets married, she has to return the property to the family less the marriage expenses. (Pradhan-Malla, 1997) **Indirect discrimination** occurs when social rules, norms and values inhibit women to participate equally in activities. For example, the practice of not hiring women to fill jobs considered to be "men's jobs," even when the law stipulates equal opportunity between women and men in employment. The occurrence of indirect discrimination, often referred to as "de facto" discrimination, is widespread and particularly difficult to combat.

e) Capacity of cooperatives — from primary to tertiary levels

If the programme is geared towards institutional development, the capacity of the institution(s) or organization (s) concerned in addressing the needs of both women and men and promoting gender equality needs to be assessed. Points for consideration are:

- The level of development of organization, major areas of intervention and general capacity to plan and implement activities;
- Existing gender specific policies and activities, and experience with women issues;
- The organizational structure to address women's issues; and
- The level of awareness of leaders and members on gender issues in their cooperatives and in society, in general, and on how these issues affect the cooperatives, and their individual leaders and members.

Indicators of the above may be: the types and scope of policies and programmes on women and gender issues, the ratio of male-female leaders and staff, the levels and positions of women and men within the organization, facilities and support systems for leaders, members and staff with family responsibilities.

2.2 Gender Planning

Once adequate information is available on the different roles and needs of women and men leaders and members, equality concerns can be integrated into the cooperative programme objectives, activities and outputs. Following the completion of a gender analysis, gender planning consists of developing and implementing specific measures and organizational arrangements for the promotion of gender equality and ensuring that adequate resources are earmarked. It means identifying how to

"mainstream," i.e. incorporate gender concerns into activities to deal effectively with the obstacles faced by women in participating fully in and benefiting from these activities. It may include measures such as women-specific activities and/or positive action if imbalances exist between the position of women and men.

The type of activities to be undertaken will depend on the context and the scope of the programme. When identifying the appropriate gender planning strategy a number of general principles and practical measures have proven to contribute effectively towards the promotion of equality between women and men. These include the:

a) Active participation and mobilization of women and their organizations;

b) Explicit attention to **awareness raising and capacity building activities**;

c) Inclusion of measures which address both **practical and strategic gender needs**;

d) Avoidance of **linguistic and visual biases, and gender stereotyping**;

e) Allocation of **adequate human and material resources**; and the

f) Application of a **multi-disciplinary and phased approach.**

a) Active participation and mobilization of women and their organizations

As stated earlier, the active participation of women and women's organizations in programme planning, design and implementation increases the chances of success of the programme. This is because the needs and concerns of women, who comprise a significant number in cooperatives, can best be identified and articulated by the women themselves. If a program seeks to address gender issues and to maximize the potentials of women, then it is crucial to consult them and involve them in the decision making process.

Women have often been mobilized to provide free labour as a contribution to development activities. Unpaid women's work is often taken for granted. Care should be taken not to rely on free labour from women during the implementation of the programme.

Many women work individually and in isolation (e.g. domestic employment, home work and subsistence agriculture). There is considerable **potential for group mobilization and organization** of these women workers to enable them to improve their position as workers.

b) awareness raising and capacity building

The promotion of equality for women and men in the cooperative is the responsibility of all those involved in the programme, including the target groups. Awareness raising activities at all levels increases their gender sensitivity and technical capacity to integrate gender concerns into their policies, systems and operations. During awareness raising activities factual data are provided on the nature and extent of women's disadvantaged position in daily life. Making women's work and contribution to development visible can serve as an eye-opener to those who have been socialized in a system of norms and values where women have the status of second-class citizens.

It is also important to demonstrate that efforts to integrate women in mainstream development activities do not necessarily mean trade-offs with other development gains nor imply marginalization of men's concerns and needs. If the programme

contains specific measures to advance the position of women, it should be made clear to all concerned that this will benefit men, women and children within the target population.

c) Practical and strategic gender needs

Addressing women's practical needs such as access to employment, income, training, credit, technology, entrepreneurship, improved conditions of work and social protection must go hand in hand with assistance in tackling women's strategic needs in terms of empowerment, organization, sharing of family responsibilities, participation of women in labour institutions, decision-making powers, supportive legislation and overall involvement in policy-making. For instance, the provision of employable skills training to women may meet an important practical need because it facilitates women's access to employment. Whether such training also fulfills strategic needs, will depend on the actual increase in women's economic independence. Moreover, in addressing these practical and strategic needs of women, the plan must effectively show how the sharing of family responsibilities, where women's household chores will be reduced through sharing with the husband or other men-members, will not lead to the neglect of children.

d) Linguistic and visual biases, and gender stereotyping

Languages and visual presentations usually reflect existing norms and values on women's and men's position in society. Many jobs are considered "men's" or "women's" jobs and there is a tendency to use masculine and feminine pronouns for positions which were traditionally occupied by men and women. It is important to avoid such linguistic biased and gender stereotyping when recruiting members and developing information and training materials including audio or visual aids.

The target population in a programme is often not specified by gender. Common terms, such as "informal sector workers" and "rural non-farm workers" are often perceived as referring to men, even if women form a large part of these groups. Precision is important when defining the target population because the use of terms such as "the workforce," "the poor," and "the unemployed" may lead one to disregard the possible differences between women and men and among women themselves.

d) Allocation of adequate human and material resources

As in many programmes with a social dimension, women's programmes or components of programmes are often under-resourced. If a programme is not explicit in setting targets on men's and women's participation and does not clearly allocate resources for women-specific outputs and activities, the chances are high that women will not participate and that women-specific outputs will not materialize because of resource constraints. It is therefore crucial to be gender specific when allocating financial and human resources to a programme.

Another factor for consideration is when to use **female staff and/or gender specialists**. Female staff are needed whenever women in the target population cannot be effectively reached by male staff. Gender specialists are needed when it is necessary to provide (i) adequate information on women's roles, needs and interests and to design policies and programmes which adequately address their needs, and (ii) awareness raising and training on gender and employment issues in order to increase the technical capacity of the staff to address the needs of women. The most important **criteria** for selecting gender specialists are an in-depth knowledge of the situation of women **and** the technical sector(s) concerned.

f) Multi-disciplinary and phased approach

Addressing the concerns, needs and interests of women calls for a multi-disciplinary, comprehensive and holistic approach. It is, therefore, necessary to develop strategies which consist of several coherently linked components to address women's multi-faceted needs and counteract the effects of discriminatory regulations and/or practices. Not doing so may jeopardize the programme's success and may actually lead to a deterioration of women's position. For example, a programme geared exclusively to increasing women's income by strengthening their productive capacity may not be successful if they are over-burdened because of family and household responsibilities. In such a case, it may be necessary to develop labour saving measures to lighten women's involvement in reproductive activities.

A multi-disciplinary approach usually means providing a comprehensive range of services to a target population. However, this does not mean that everything has to be done at the same time. The absorptive capacity of both the target population and the organizations that serve them should be carefully assessed. Changing attitudes and norms and capacity building are slow processes. A phased approach in which changes are introduced gradually is usually more successful.

3. Different Responses and Approaches to Gender Issues

Through time, different responses and approaches to women's discrimination — both direct and indirect — and gender issues have emerged. These are Women In Development (WID), Women and Development (WAD) and Gender and Development (GAD). The following matrix provides a general comparative view of these three approaches. (NATCCO, 1995)

	WID	WAD	GAD
Origin	• Emerged in the early 1970s • Was first articulated by American liberal feminists, who advocated legal and administrative reforms that would better integrate women into the economic system; • Closely linked with the modernization[1] paradigm, which was the popular program at that time.	• Emerged in the second half of the 1970s • Found its theoretical roots in Neo-Marxist feminism and draws its theoretical base in dependency[2] theory. • Evolved as a reaction to the limitations of modernization theory and WID's claim of women's exclusion from the development	• Emerged in the 1980s as an alternative to WID. Its theoretical focus is based on socialist feminism[3] which identify the social construction of production are reproduction as the basis of women's oppression. • Roots gender issues to patriarchy.[4]
Analysis and Proposed Solution to Women's Condition	• Women were excluded from the development process • Women should then be integrated into ongoing development initiatives.	• Posited that women have always been part of the development process; • Concept of WID was linked to the maintenance of economic dependency of 3rd world countries on industrialist countries	Problem of women's oppression is rooted on the unequal relations of power (between rich and poor, women and men) which prevent equitable relations and the full participation of women in development.participation of women in

	WID	WAD	GAD
		• Assumes that women's position will improve if and when international structures become more equitable.	development. • Focuses on the relations between women and men. • Its analysis primarily center on the perception of roles and attributes of women as inferior and subordinate to men.
Strategies	• Introduction of women's income-generating projects; thereby, increasing women's productivity and income. • Increase women's ability to be better mothers and homemakers.	• Carefully planned development strategies that tend to concentrate on income-generating activities	• Addresses practical needs identified by women and men to improve their condition. • Addresses strategic needs of women and the poor through people-centered development.
Weak-nesses	• Does not question the nature and sources of women's subordination and oppression. • Focuses instead on advocacy for equal participation in employment and education. • Focuses on gender as a unit of analysis, not taking into account the impact of class, race and culture. • Focuses on the productive sector not considering its effect on the reproductive aspect of women's work and lives.	• Fails to undertake a full analysis of the relationship of patriarchy, differing modes of production and women's subordination and oppression. Solution of the under-representation of women in the economic, political and social spheres is seen to be through carefully planned intervention strategies rather than a fundamental shift in the social relations of gender. • Similar to WID, it solely focuses on the productive sector at the expense of the reproductive side of women's work and lives.	Very demanding in terms of commitment, capacity and resources: • Demands a degree of commitment to structural changes and power shifts. Difficult to do because it goes beyond simply integrating women into ongoing development initiatives. • Leads inevitably to a fundamental re-examination of structures and institutions, and ultimately the base of power of entrenched elites.

Since this module supports the Gender and Development Approach to gender issues, further explanation on the general application of this approach to cooperatives follows.

4. The Gender and Development Approach

The gender approach views *gender relations* and the *inequitable development process* as the essential problem areas to be tackled. (It differs from the Women in Development (WID) approach, which regarded women as the problem area and focused primarily on women's integration in the development process).

The gender approach seeks to empower disadvantaged and vulnerable groups – including women – and to transform unequal relations. The ultimate goal is to attain equitable and sustainable development with both men and women involved in decision-making processes.

Gender and development:

The focus	is on the relations between men and women.
The problem	is the unequal relations of power between men and women on the same socio-economic level. This results in the unequal distribution of the benefits of development and hinders women's full participation in the development process.
The solution	is to empower the disadvantaged and women, and to transform unequal relations.
The aim	is to attain equitable and sustainable development with both men and women in decision-making and leadership positions.
How?	– enhance the democratization and de-officialization process of co-operatives. – identify the (practical and strategic) needs and interests of men and women which can improve their condition. – enhance women's access resources including credit and education and training facilities etc. – involve women in decision-making – enhance women's access to leadership positions e.g. through quotas or "affirmative action", which is action taken to correct the already existing imbalances.

5. Why Gender Integration and What are its Benefits?

Gender integration in cooperative development is essential because:

– Active, equitable participation of members, both men and women, is a necessity for sustainable cooperative development. Active participation in the cooperative context means that members are involved in all the functions of cooperatives including planning, decision-making, implementation and financial and management control.

– Cooperatives are based on the values of self-help, mutual responsibility, equity and equality. They practice honesty, openness and social responsibility in all their activities. In order to enhance the credibility of cooperatives as democratic people-based movements in the eyes of the public and cooperative members, the cooperative values must be respected and adhered to.

– Cooperative principles state that cooperatives are democratic organizations without gender discrimination. But can they be regarded as truly democratic if women members do not have equal access to decision-making levels? If women are under-represented or not represented at all in decision-making, they may find it difficult to accept the legitimacy of decisions which do not take their interests into consideration.

– Experience has shown that women in leadership positions are more likely to address gender issues and safeguard the interests of women. As the cooperative movement worldwide incorporates so many women (yet few in management positions), it is important that more women are integrated into the system.

The benefits of gender integration:

– Women represent fifty per cent of the world's human resources. By enhancing women's productive capabilities and developing their capacities, cooperatives will benefit from this hitherto under-utilized human resource. Many women have special skills in, for instance, marketing and trading, while others have special knowledge and capabilities which have been unacknowledged.

  With the above view and trust on the distinctive capacity of women, cooperatives can be said to have the potential of becoming a stronger economic and more influential political force if more women (the invisible workforce) are actively involved.

– Men and women often tackle and solve problems differently. In today's fast changing socio-economic and political climate the need for innovative thinking and creative ideas is becoming exceedingly important also for the cooperative sector. By involving more women in decision-shaping and decision-making within the cooperative movement, one will enhance the prospects of cooperatives, diversify activities and fortify the cooperative movement.

– Involving more women in cooperatives will broaden the scope of cooperatives and improve their social role. Women's and men's priority areas often differ. Women are, for example, often more concerned with social development issues such as employment, health, the environment and children than men.

– Experiences have shown that initiatives taken by women in cooperatives have accelerated the progress and change of their socio-economic situation. Women's involvement in cooperatives in some parts of Asia, for example, the Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India and likewise the Grameen banks in Bangladesh, have been immensely successful.

Notes:

[1] Modernization theory aims for the "total" transformation of a traditional or pre-modern society into the types of technology and social organization that characterize the "advanced," economically prosperous, and relatively politically stable nations of the Western world.

The assumptions of this theory are:

- *The world consists of the traditional and the modern. Each of these dichotomous components is seen to possess certain distinct qualities, for example different economic structures, values and family organization.*
- *The transition from one historical period to the other is facilitated by the process of modernization.*
- *This process is directed by national elites through policy initiatives.*
- *The West is seen as superior to the Third World in all social, political and economic aspects.*

[2] The dependency theory puts forward the following observations:

- *The world could be perceived in terms of a core of developed industrial nations and a periphery of underdeveloped nations.*
- *The core and the periphery were closely linked economically, especially in trade and investment. However, these links prevented true development from taking place in the periphery as they are designed to work only to the advantage of the center. The countries of the periphery had been made dependent on the economies of the center.*

In relation to the dependency theory, Andre Gundre Frank presented the world capitalist system as one of metropolis and satellite. The metropolis exploits the satellite and appropriates some or all of its economic surplus. The satellite is impoverished by this exploitative relationship, and it is reduced to a state of the metropolis.

[3] Socialist feminism underscores the importance of class systems and the economic relations of capitalism, which interact with patriarchy to bring about women's subordinate status. It posits the necessity of transforming the system of capitalism simultaneously with the struggle against male domination, and seeks to surface gender perspectives in all social issues and struggles for social justice. (Quintos-Deles,)

[4] Patriarchy rests on a worldview that:

- *Stresses dichotomy, hierarchy, discrimination, domination and exploitation.*
- *Looks at women as inferior to men, and nature as meant to be exploited and controlled by humans.*
- *Provides the ideological basis to the domination of women by men, and nature by humans.*

Patriarchy exists in the prevailing structures, institution and relations of many societies.

Main Sources:

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UNIT 7
Vision of a Gender Responsive Cooperative

MAIN MESSAGE

As a way of integrating the six previous sessions and as a prelude to the next module on the Fundamentals of Cooperatives, this session ends this module on Gender in Cooperatives with a visioning exercise. In this exercise, the participants will develop their vision of a gender responsive co-operative. To facilitate the visioning exercise, the participants will list all their key learning from the whole module.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to:

1. Help the participants develop their own vision of a gender responsive cooperative, as a way of sum ring-up and integrating the lessons and experiences they acquired from all the sessions of this module on Gender in Cooperatives.
2. Assess the learning of the participants from the four sessions.

Time Requirements: 3 hours

Introduction:	10 minutes
Small group discussion:	50 minutes
Plenary reporting and discussion:	90 minutes
Quick Check:	30 minutes

Materials Required:

1. Manila Paper and markers for each small group;
2. Board and chalks or markers
3. Masking tapes

Steps:

1 Explain the objectives and process of this session.

2 Divide the participants into small groups. Each small group should have not more than 6 members. Women and men can be mixed in a group. Then distribute to the small groups manila papers and colored markers, and give them the following instructions:

- List all your key learning from the six sessions or units of this module. Then based on these lessons, draw your vision of a gender responsive cooperative in a manila paper The drawing must reflect how gender concerns and principles are integrated in the:
  - purposes of the cooperative,

- Its membership and leadership structure (percentage of women and men), and how power is shared.
- Division of roles and tasks among women- and men-leaders and members,
- Behavioral patterns of women- and men-leaders and members (how they treat each other).
- Capability building programs and support systems for women and men.
- Benefits of women and men derive from the cooperative.
- Other areas identified by the trainers and participants.

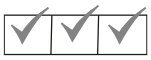
- Review the gender analysis and planning concepts discussed in the previous session and check if the key points, which must be incorporated in the vision, are already in place.
- When the integration of gender analysis and planning concepts into the vision has been checked review the gender issues in the Asian context and in cooperatives, and check if these issues have been addressed in the vision, and that mechanisms to avoid their recurrence have been adequately installed.
- Then finally review your list of lessons from the training module; and check if they, all have been reflected in the vision.

Tell them that they have 50 minutes to finish their small group tasks.

3. When the small groups are ready to present their lessons from the different sessions of the module and their vision of a gender responsive cooperative, ask them to share their outputs to the big group. Each group has fifteen minutes to present their output.
4. Synthesize the outputs of all the small groups. and have this synthesis approved by all the participants as their collective “Vision of a Gender-Responsive Cooperative.”
5. Write the synthesized vision in a big paper. Then facilitate a symbolic signing of the vision by 1 of the participants.
6. When all the participants have signed the vision, distribute the quick check form. Give them 20 minutes to answer it. When everyone has answered the quick check form, ask for at least five volunteers to share their answers.
7. End the session with a synthesis of the sharing of these volunteers.

Variation:

If the participants are not comfortable illustrating their vision of a gender responsive cooperative, then another option is to simply ask them to list down in words the characteristics of their envisioned gender responsive coop.

Quick Check 

1. Do you find the formation of a gender-responsive cooperative realistic and attainable? Why? What do you think are the helping and hindering factors?
2. From a scale of 1 to 10, with ten as the score for a gender responsive cooperative, and one as the score for a gender discriminating cooperative, where do you think your cooperative lies? Why?
3. What do you plan to do after this training to help in making your cooperative more gender responsive?

Leadership Training Manual for
Women Leaders of Cooperatives

MODULE

2

Fundamentals of Cooperatives

MODULE 2
Fundamentals of Cooperatives

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Trainers' Reference Material: Trainers' Guide for the Integration of Modules 1 & 2, and for the Development of a Vision of a Gender-Responsive Cooperative 158

Fundamentals of Cooperatives

Overview

I. Introduction

By discussing how the principles of the cooperative movement support and uphold gender equity and equality, the first module poses a challenge to cooperatives to check and address any manifestation of gender inequity in their policies, programs, systems and operations. Moreover, the previous module asserts that gender equity and equality can be effectively achieved and maintained when its leadership and membership have a clear and in-depth understanding of gender concepts and the manifestations of gender issues in cooperatives and in the whole society. This second module is an extension of the first module in the sense that it further discusses how a cooperative can further actualize gender equity and equality towards truly responding to the needs of its members and contributing to their development, and thereby achieving the goals of the cooperative. This time, however, the focus is on the fundamentals of cooperatives, which include its types and services, organizational structures, and policies.

II. Objectives

This module is a ten-and-a-half-hour training activity which aims to:

1. Equip women-participants with substantial knowledge about the types, services, organizational structure, and policies and legislations of cooperatives.
2. Help the women-participants assess why cooperatives are regarded as an enabling environment for women's empowerment, and hence, gender equality and equity.
3. Encourage the participants to get involved in and/or to further improve their involvement in the leadership of cooperatives, as a way of demonstrating their capacity to distinctively contribute to the betterment of cooperatives.

II. OVERVIEW OF MODULE UNITS

Unit	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 1: Types and Services of Cooperatives	1. To present the current types and services of cooperatives; 2. To assess the present level of participation of women in these types of coops, the responses of coops to women's gender needs, and the gains women derive from involving in coops.	• Types and services of cooperatives. • Types of coops where women's participation is significant. • Services of coops that help women address their gender needs	Two hours

Unit	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 2: Cooperative Structure and Decision Making	1. To orient the trainees on the organizational structure of a cooperative. 2. To equip them with skills in understanding the cooperatives decision making process, division of tasks, work flow, and communication & information exchanges procedures through its organizational structure.	• Co-operative organizational structure • Implications of organizational structure to decision making, division of tasks, work flow and communication and information exchanges within the cooperative	Two and a half hours
Unit 3: Cooperative Legislation and Policies	1. For the trainees to analyze the opportunities and threats provided by cooperative legislation and policies in their countries to the development of gender responsive co-operatives; 2. To make the analysis of the participants informed by the guidelines or framework developed by the ILO on cooperative legislation.	• Cooperative policies and legislation in the countries of the participants. • ILO Framework on Cooperative Legislation.	Three hours
Unit 4: Vision of a Gender Responsive Cooperative	1. Help the participants develop their own vision of a gender responsive cooperative, as a way of summing-up and integrating the lessons and experiences they acquired from all the sessions of the first two modules of this manual. 2. Assess the learning of the participants from the first two modules of this manual.	• Key Learning points of all sessions of modules 1 and 2 • Vision of a Gender Responsive Cooperative.	Three hours

UNIT 1
Types and Services of Cooperatives

MAIN MESSAGE

This session presents the cooperative movement as a sector capable of equitably and equally providing different types of services to its women and men members. Specifically, this session discusses the following:

- Types and services of cooperatives;
- Types of cooperatives where women's membership is currently significant.
- Services of cooperatives that help address women's gender needs.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

1. To present the current types of services, and thereby, the different types of cooperatives in the country; and
2. To assess the present level of participation of women in these different types of cooperatives, the responses of cooperatives to women's practical and strategic gender needs, and the gains which women derive from participating in cooperatives.

Time Requirements: Two hours

Introduction: 10 minutes

Small Group Discussion: 50 minutes

Big Group Discussion: 40 minutes

Lecture: 20 minutes

Materials Required:

1. Manila paper, pens and masking tape;
2. Overhead projector
3. Visual Aids

Steps:

Note to the trainer(s): The steps below assume that all participants have undergone at least the second session of the first module of this manual entitled, The Cooperative Identity.

1. Explain the objectives of the session.
2. If the discussion on the cooperative identity, in the first module, was done through the development of a "cooperative dish recipe," then review the nutrition which members, particularly women, can get from eating the "cooperative dish." If metaphors were used, then instruct the small groups to reconvene and discuss the benefits that members, particularly women-members, can get from a cooperative — first on a

metaphorical level, such as if the metaphor was a car, then they could say that the car can bring the passengers to their destination; then on the real-life level where they will cite the benefits which cooperatives can provide to their members, especially women-members.

In this second step, each small group should come out with a list of services which cooperatives can provide to their members, especially to women-members.

3. Whether with a metaphor or a "cooperative dish recipe," ask each small group to answer the following questions in thirty minutes:

   - Of the services which cooperatives provide to its membership, which do you think address(es) the practical and strategic gender needs of women?

   Ask them to write their answers to the above questions in a big paper using the following format:

Benefits Addressing Practical Needs	Benefits Addressing Strategic Needs

To help the participants answer the above questions, it may be necessary to review the definition of gender practical and strategic needs. To review: (ILO, 2000)

> ***Practical gender needs*** are the needs arising from the actual conditions women experience because of the roles assigned to them in society. These needs are often related to women's roles as mothers, homemakers and providers of basic needs and are concerned with inadequacies in living and working conditions, such as food, water, shelter, income, health care and employment. For women and men in the lower socioeconomic strata, these needs are often linked to *survival strategies*. Addressing them alone only perpetuates the factors which keep women in a disadvantaged position in their societies. It does not promote gender equality.
>
> ***Strategic gender needs*** are the needs required to overcome the subordinate position of women to men in society, and relate to the empowerment of women. They vary according to the particular social, economic and political context in which they are formulated. Usually they concern *equality issues* such as enabling women to have equal access to job opportunities and training, equal pay for work of equal value, rights to land and other capital assets, prevention of sexual harassment at work and domestic violence, freedom of choice over child bearing, and equal and equitable representation and participation in decision making bodies and processes. Addressing them entails a slow transformation of the traditional customs and conventions of a society

   - Aside from the benefits that were mentioned in Step #2, what other types of services must be added to make your cooperative more gender responsive?

4. Invite each small group to present their discussion outputs to the plenary for fifteen minutes.

5. Synthesize the discussion points of the four groups. Then give a lecture on the different services of cooperatives and the level of participation of women in these cooperatives.
6. After the lecture, form all the participants coming from a cooperative into one small group. If all participants come from only one cooperative, then simply divide them into small groups. Ask each small group to answer the quick check questions (please see below).
7. When all the small groups have completed step #6, then reconvene them for a plenary sharing.
8. End the session with a summary of the group outputs, highlighting the challenges which the cooperatives of the participants have to take to be more responsive to the needs of their members, especially women who have been the victims of gender inequity and inequality.

Caution/Hints:

To avoid spending so much time for the review of gender concepts, such as the practical and strategic needs, during the plenary discussion, you may ask the participants to review the discussion on “Gender Analysis and Approaches” of Module 1, and read the handout on “Key Gender Concepts” during break time.

Variation:

Another way of discussing the different types of cooperatives is a simple lecture on the current services.

Quick Check:

For an initial assessment of the impact of this session on the participants, you may ask them to answer the following, individually and in written:

1. What are the present types of services of your cooperative? If so, how can you classify your cooperative?
2. Do you think these present types of services of your cooperative substantially address the practical and strategic needs of its women-members and leaders? Why?
3. If more improvements are necessary, what are these? Why?

Trainers' Reference Material

Types and Services of Cooperatives

I. Types of Cooperatives

Cooperatives are generally classified according to the type of service or business they are engaged in. A cooperative can provide one type of service, for instance, credit, marketing, consumer goods, housing, medical or health, etc. Examples of single-purpose cooperatives are:

- Credit cooperatives, which offer savings and credit facilities;
- Consumer cooperatives, which procure and sell consumer goods;
- Marketing cooperatives, which buy and sell members' produce;
- Housing cooperatives, which deliver housing or related services;
- Workers cooperatives, which provide employment;
- Electric cooperatives, which provide electricity and power;
- Service cooperatives, which provide specific services such as insurance, transport, medical, health, water, funeral, etc.

Cooperatives which offer a combination of these services are often referred to as multi-purpose cooperatives. Cooperatives organized by agricultural producers, also known as agricultural cooperatives, are usually multi-purpose types because they combine marketing, procurement of goods and commodities, savings and credit, insurance and other services. These services are integral to the individual economies of their members, hence the importance of the cooperative to respond to their various needs.

Note to the Trainer: *If there are other types of cooperatives in your country, you may include them in the above list. You may also choose to focus on the types of cooperatives that are present in your country.*

II. Participation of Women in Different Types of Cooperatives (AWCF, 1999)

Studies show that grassroots women's involvement and participation in the cooperative movement has been through either taking up membership in existing cooperatives along with male members or forming their own coops with exclusive female membership. However, in some countries in some sub-regions in Asia, such as South Asia, women's membership in mixed-sex cooperatives is generally lower as compared to those from other countries in the region. Women-only cooperatives proliferate in societies where culture restricts women's cooperative membership. But it is in these women-only cooperatives where women feel freer and less restricted in their participation in cooperative organizations.

Statistics from cooperatives worldwide show that women comprise a big percentage, and in some cases, the majority of membership in mixed cooperatives. There are significantly more women members in consumer and credit cooperatives than in agricultural-type cooperatives.

III. Cooperative's Responses to Women's Specific Needs (AWCF, 1999)

Cooperatives play a unique role in social and economic development. In countries with under-developed economies, it is quite common that in a community, especially a rural one, a cooperative is the only institution that can provide services that, otherwise, public institutions would

have provided, such as health care and education.

Even to the present, despite the many years of gender-sensitizing among cooperatives all over the world, the practice is still that cooperative services are catered to all members, in general, and not to men or to women, in particular. Cooperative policies and services are still gender-neutral, which may appear fair and democratic to many cooperators, but may actually not address needs that are specific to women, by virtue of their traditional roles as well as status vis-à-vis men in society. Nonetheless, there are some cooperative organizations at various levels that have become gender-aware and gender-responsive. Some of the needs that are specific to women are: childcare assistance, reproductive health care, and physical safety, and protection from violence.

Some examples of cooperatives' efforts or actions to address women's specific needs are the following:

1. Providing health care

Some cooperatives have expanded health care services to members to cover women's reproductive health care needs that are excluded in some privately owned health care schemes. Health care services may include provision of health care from a cooperative owned or -subsidized health clinic or health insurance.

The health care systems of the consumers cooperative movement (with 79 hospitals and 309 clinics) and of the agricultural cooperative movement (with 115 hospital and 53 clinics) of Japan provide a considerable proportion of health services in urban and rural areas. Women, who are the primary members of the consumers cooperative movement, have also led a national movement for effective health care within the context of healthy living. The Seikatsu Club Consumers' Cooperative, where women constitute 90 percent of the 170,000 members, has pioneered ecologically responsible and healthy lifestyles, including control over the quality and price of food. If the cooperative does not find products that meet its quality standards, it does its own production and processing, such as for organic milk products in collaboration with local dairy coops.

2. Making childcare available

Childcare should not be a responsibility of women only; it should be shared by men. However, the reality is that women are expected to be responsible for childcare. To ease the tasks of women, some cooperatives have put up day-care centers that accept members' children first and non-member' children second. Some day-care centers are expanded to become pre-schools. The more common arrangement is that cooperatives put up the capital to build or rent the day-care facilities, purchase day-care amenities, hire trained childcare-giver, and manage the day-care center itself. In some cases, a cooperative provides the capital only (for facilities and childcare givers) and the community sets up, runs and manages the day-care center. In these cases, the day-care center is open to children of both members and non-members in the same community where the day-care center is located. To help members, both women and men, with small children to attend cooperative meetings or other cooperative activities, some cooperatives hire trusted childminders and provide childcare facilities where members can leave their small children.

- The Singtorlucky 3 Credit Union in Thailand maintains a day-care center for the members' children.

- The Cooperative Housing Federation of British Columbia in Canada pays childcare costs to enable directors to participate in federation meetings and conferences.
- The Philippines' Oyao Multi-Purpose Cooperative in Nueva Vizcaya province opened a day-care center in 1993 in the two villages of Oyao and Aritao, where many of its members live.
- One of the major activities of the Women's Development Committee of the National Cooperative Organization of Malaysia (ANGKASA) is to encourage member-factory cooperatives to set-up day-care centers. As of 1995, there are 42 percent women members in 33 factory cooperatives. Courses on putting up and running day-care centers are held by ANGKASA.

3. Providing transportation

Safe, affordable, and easily accessible transportation facilities is also a specific need of women. This is especially true for women who live in distant places; who have to shuttle between the cooperative, home and work to fulfill tasks in all areas; or have to travel at odd hours, being more vulnerable as they are to physical violence. Cooperatives can offer transport, such as during training or meetings; or arrange a car pool system. Also, the people themselves can get together and offer this service among them and even to the whole community.

4. Taking actions on violence against women

Some cooperatives are indifferent to issues like sexual harassment, domestic violence, and other forms of violence against women. The thinking is that these issues, after all, are not directly related to the cooperatives' business or economic activities. But gender-responsive cooperatives that accept these issues as their own, whether or not their members are affected, are able to participate in awareness campaigns and in national-level advocacy for legislation to curb violence, organize support groups for women victims of violence, and set-up policies that discourage male members from being or becoming perpetrators of violence.

- Malita Multi-purpose Cooperative, Philippines, formed support groups, composed of women and men, that provide temporary shelter to women victims, and in some cases, engage the abusive male spouse in a dialogue with the intention to patch up the marital conflict and have the female spouse safely back in their home. The Cooperative has gone to the extent of disallowing abusive males from becoming Cooperative members and expelling male members who abuse their wives and children.
- Koperasi Kredit Rakyat, Malaysia, includes in its annual general meeting or in ownership meetings a swearing session by male members not to beat their wives and children.

These examples may be strange to some cultures, but they certainly work for these cooperatives. Because the cooperative itself as an institution publicly denounces violence against women, the community follows its example. This make violence against women a taboo in the community.

5. Offering of literacy classes

Literacy is like childcare, and is not a women-specific need because some men are also illiterate. However, the majority of the illiterates in Asia, and in fact, the whole world, are women. It is understandable that literacy provided by some cooperatives inevitably aim at benefiting women, specifically. Cooperatives hire a teacher on a part-time basis to handle these classes for members with limited education or are party or fully illiterate.

6. Training on non-traditional trades

Most economic projects engaged in by women are those traditionally done by women, such as garment production, food processing, and handicraft production. Cooperatives can provide women members with information on the availability of training on non-traditional trades or hire experts from government agencies. Examples of non-traditional trades are welding, practical electricity, and electronics.

7. Technical assistance in the form of feasibility study and skills training related to technology required for women-owned microenterprise.

This service is usually provided to women's groups engaged in micro-enterprise. Cooperatives undertake feasibility study for the groups' planned business and link up with the appropriate agency (usually public) to provide the training on the technology and practical skills required for the business. Examples of training are food processing, food distribution, and house décor production.

Analyzing the above responses of cooperatives to women-specific needs, one will be able surmise that both practical and strategic gender needs are being addressed, though the emphasis is more on the practical needs. Reponses to strategic gender needs need, hence, to be further expanded, especially in the areas of economic and political, to help women be economically independent from men and be able to participate in key decision making bodies equally with men. As the following section of this discussion will, however, show, cooperatives are capable of providing services that address women's strategic gender needs.

IV. Women's Gains from Cooperative Membership (AWCF, 1999)

Like any other member, women stand to get a lot of benefits from the cooperatives. But it can be said that because of the particular situation and needs of women, the impact of these benefits on the women is even stronger, longer lasting, and certainly makes a lot more difference in their lives. Here are but a few of the gains that women cooperative members can expect.

1. Women gain and/or increase their income and savings; gain economic security and empowerment (economic benefit.

   Whether as member-owners or member-worker-owners of cooperatives, or as cooperative employees, women get that important chance to earn their own income and to build their own savings. By being cooperative members, women actually become investors, owners and clients of cooperatives. As entrepreneurs, the viability of their businesses is assured by the fact that they have access to credit, reasonably priced consumer goods, production supply, and marketing of their products, according to the services provided by the cooperatives. The economic importance of the cooperative to women is summed up by Ms Lou Hammond Ketilson, Associate Professor, Centre for the Study of Cooperatives, University of Saskatchewan, Canada: " Women would prefer to stand squarely on their own two feet. And cooperative organizations, historically and currently, have been identified as a preferred route for women to attain this objective. Participating in cooperatives enables women to, perhaps for the first time, invest in an enterprise. When you own part of a cooperative, you own a piece of the economy. "To those who hold the minor share of the world's power, comes a new discovery: As long as you own something you can change it."

2. Women find a voice through participation in the cooperatives (social and political)

As one type of community-based organization, cooperatives provide women with opportunities to expand their circle of relations, emerge from their everyday lives where they are saddled with reproductive tasks and where, in some cases, their choices and decisions are muted. In democratically run cooperatives, women are part of an organization where its principles and structures allow and encourage their input and contribution. Women get to share their talents and capabilities as significant members of both the cooperative and the community. This is a fulfilling achievement for women.

3. Women acquire a support network (social support)

   Women find in the collective power and strength of the cooperative members their own socio-economic strength which they lack in their individual lives. Apart from their biological families, many women come to regard their cooperatives as their other family.

   Overall, membership in the cooperatives enables women to develop and elevate their social and economic status as well as of their families. Cooperatives and communities benefit as women's conditions and status improve.

Sources:

1. The parts on the level of participation of women in cooperatives and on the services which women get from cooperatives were taken verbatim from:

   Asian Women in Cooperative Development Forum (AWCF).(1999). A development link: A look at women, cooperatives and the community. Quezon City, Philippines: AWCF.

2. Information on types and services of cooperatives were taken from

   1995 Annual Report of the National Confederation of Cooperatives (NATCCO), Philippines.

   MacPherson I. (1996). Cooperative principles for the 21st century. Geneva: ICA Communications Department.

UNIT 2
Cooperative Structure and Decision Making

MAIN MESSAGE

Decision making processes, division of tasks, work flow, and communication/ information exchanges within a cooperative are defined in the cooperative structure. At a quick glance, these key organizational processes are illustrated in the cooperative organizational chart. The more substantial explanation, however, is found in its constitution and by-laws.

Since understanding these key organizational processes, as defined in the organizational structure, is very important to every cooperative leader because it is a key to sound management system, a special session is allocated for this topic. Specifically, this session focuses on the following:

- Gender sensitive and responsive cooperative organizational structure
- Implications of this structure to decision-making, division of tasks, work flow and communication/information exchanges within the cooperative.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

This session aims to enhance the understanding of actual and potential women-leaders of cooperatives on the structure and decision making processes of cooperatives for more effective participation. Specifically, this session aims to:

1. Orient the trainees on the organizational structure of a gender sensitive and responsive cooperative.
2. Equip them with skills in understanding the cooperative's decision-making process, division of tasks, work flow, and communication/information exchanges procedures by looking at its organizational structure.

Time Requirement: 4 hours hours

Structured Learning Exercise: 90 minutes
Lecture on cooperative structure and decision making: 60 minutes
Small group sharing and plenary reporting: 90 minutes

Materials Required :

1. Board and pen or chalk.
2. Overhead projector

Steps:

1. Explain the objectives of the session.
2. To start the session, tell the participants that they will do a structured learning exercise, in the form of a ROLE PLAY, on cooperative structure.

The following steps shall be followed for the role play:

a) Divide the participants into six small groups. Each small group will portray a key group in the cooperative. These key groups are the following:

- General Assembly (GA);
- Board of Directors (BOD);
- Management staff;
- Supervisory Committee
- Education Committee
- Women and Youth Committee

There may be other committees which are more prevalent and popular in your country. If this is so, then you may choose which among the three committees in the list to replace. Having more than six groups in the role play may be difficult to facilitate. The suggestion is, hence, to stick to a total of six groups. But if the above and additional committees are all considered to be equally important in your country, and if you can facilitate the presentation and dialogue of more than six groups in the role play, then you may add more small groups.

Emphasize that this is a ROLE PLAY, and each group is asked to effectively represent in the exercise the needs, interests and concerns of their assigned group, which is the role that they will play.

b) When the six groups have been given their assigned groups to role play, then ask them to answer the following questions:

- What is your understanding of your role and functions — as GA or BOD or Management staff or a supervisory committee, education committee or women and youth committee — in the cooperative?
- What is your understanding of the roles and functions of the other five groups in the cooperative?
- How are you related to the other five groups? Illustrate or draw your answer to this third question.

c) When all six groups have written their answers to the above questions in a manila paper, then start the dialogue among the six groups. It will be best if the participants will be dressed in costumes depicting their roles during this dialogue. Start the discussion with the report of one group, such as the General Assembly.

- Ask the GA group to present their answer to the first question — their understanding of their role and functions in the cooperative.
- Then ask the other five groups to share their understanding of the role(s) of the GA in the cooperative.
- If there is a conflict in the definition of the role(s) of the GA, then facilitate a consensus building process for 15 minutes. If after 15 minutes, no consensus has been reached, then simply list down the points on the roles of GA where the six groups converge and diverge.

Follow the same process for the other five groups.

d) After all of the six groups have gone through the process, call on the first group, such as the GA, to present their illustration on how the GA is linked with the other five

groups. Do the same for the five other groups. Again if there are conflicts, try to help the participants reach a consensus in 15 minutes. If not, then you may again simply list down the points where they agree and disagree.

In all of the presentations, facilitate the exercise in a way that engages the six groups in a dialogue and consensus building process.

4. Summarize the results of the role play by presenting the agreed roles and functions of the different levels of the cooperative structure – GA, BOD, management staff, and the committees.
5. Give a deepening lecture on the organizational structure of a cooperative, if necessary.
6. After the lecture, group the participants from the same cooperative. If all the participants come from one cooperative, then you may simply divide them into small groups. Then ask each small group to answer the following question:
   - Is the structure of your cooperative the same with the one discussed in this session?
   - What parts are the same? What parts are different?
   - What do you think is the best structure of a gender-responsive cooperative? If present structure can be said to be gender sensitive, how can each level of the structure become more gender responsive?
7. When all the small groups are ready, reconvene them for a plenary sharing.
8. End the session by summarizing the presentations of the small groups, with emphasis on the agreements on how a cooperative structure can become more gender responsive.

Caution/Hint:

Some participants may not be comfortable with a creative participatory play, such as a role play, as a learning method. Nonetheless, you may ask them to try the activity as this has been very successful to many other groups. But if they are not willing to go through the process, then don't insist. You may use the proposed variation below.

Variation:

Option A:

Another way of starting a discussion of the cooperative structure is to ask for one to three volunteers to present the organizational charts of their cooperatives. Then you may revolve your discussion on the structure of cooperative around this/these organizational chart(s). In this discussion, you may highlight the roles of the different groups/units in the structure and the decision-making process. Then you may proceed with the lecture and the other succeeding steps (steps 5 to 8).

In this alternative process, the facilitator must be careful because the process of discussing the implications of the presented organizational chart on the decision making process of the organization may put the volunteers on a "hot seat" or may make them feel that the other participants are unfairly criticizing their cooperatives

Option B

If you are not confident with Option A nor with the suggested steps of this session, then another option is to present an example of a cooperative structure. For this option, you may use the

case entitled, Organizational Structure of “Dressmakers’ Cooperative”: For Case Discussion, which is provided in this manual.

In discussing the above case, you may ask the trainees to define the structure of the cooperative. When the different elements of the structure (i.e. delineation of roles and functions, communication process, work flow and decision-making process), then you may proceed to the lecture and to the succeeding steps (above steps 5 to 8).

Quick Check:

As a quick assessment of the session, you may ask the participants to answer the following question in a paper:

- Did you enjoy the exercise? How did it help or not help you appreciate the organizational structure of a cooperative?

Trainers' Reference Material #1

Cooperative Structure And Decision Making

One of the most important determinants of organizational success is the appropriateness of its organizational structure. The structure defines the delineation of roles and tasks among individuals and/or groups within the organization, the flow of work and communication process within the organization, the communication line with the external environment, and very importantly, the decision-making processes of the organization. Since a structure relates with these critical elements of the organization, it can be said that an organizational structure, to a great extent, shapes the activities of individuals and groups within an organization.

As a guide to the trainers, this paper discusses the cooperative structure which best reflects the principles of gender equity and equality. This discussion of a gender sensitive and responsive cooperative structure, thereby, shows the capacity of the cooperative to, not only run its operations effectively and efficiently, but also ensure that roles and tasks are delineated not according to gender biases, but according to the principles of gender equity and equality, and that power is shared between women and men.

I. General composition of a cooperative structure

Every cooperative must have at least:

- A general assembly (GA); and
- A board of directors (BOD).

Although registration does not require the existence of a control unit, it is advisable to have one since cooperatives which have one seem to function better. This control unit, called "supervisory committee", must be independent from the board of directors in order to be able to control the execution of its functions on behalf of the members who often lack the necessary qualifications to do them themselves.

This dual system does not replace the internal control mechanisms of the board of directors such as internal auditors, etc.

As for the optional post of manager, it is not an organ of the cooperative since its prerogatives are delegated from the board of directors.

The cooperative may also have committees. An election committee is important for the election of the members of the BOD and the supervisory committee. Other committees may also be formed by the BOD based on the needs and concerns of the cooperative, such as education committee, loan collections committee, etc. A cooperative, which actively pursues gender equity and equality as an organizational strategy and advocacy, also includes a women's committee, or a women and youth committee as one of its key committees.

To effectively pursue gender equity and equality in the whole cooperative, significant representation of women and men in every level of the organizational structure is ensured. Moreover, sex-disaggregated-data (SDD) on the profile, needs and concerns of the members as well as the benefits they and their families or communities derive from the cooperative serve as bases for decision-making in all levels of the cooperative structure.

II. General Assembly

A. Composition

The ordinary or extraordinary general assembly (GA), composed exclusively of the members, *with women equally/equitably represented with men in mixed cooperatives*, is the supreme organ of the cooperative. Third parties who have invested in the enterprise may possibly participate in the GA, but they will not have voting rights.

An ordinary GA must convene at least once a year; an extraordinary GA may take place at the request of the persons entitled to do so according to the law or the bye-laws.

If the size of a cooperative in terms of territorial coverage or number of members is such than the necessary quorum is difficult to attain, regional assemblies and/or assemblies by sections may be formed. These decentralized assemblies elect their representatives to a delegates' assembly which replaces the GA. The agenda of these meetings as well as the mode of deliberations and voting will be decided at central level so as to guarantee the same standards throughout the cooperative. In order to reinforce communication between the different levels, the members of the board of directors and the supervisory committee should participate in the meetings of these local assemblies.

To ensure that both the needs and interests of women and men are given equal attention and importance, equitable representation of women and men in these regional assemblies is taken into account. Moreover, the BOD and supervisory committee are represented in these regional assemblies by both their women- and men-representatives. In essence, the selection of delegates of the General Assembly and the representatives of the BOD and/or supervisory committee to the assemblies considers, at all times, the principle of gender equality and equity.

B. Powers

The dual character of cooperatives as associations and enterprises, is indicative of the way in which powers must be shared amongst the GA and the board of directors. According to the definition of cooperatives, the members use the enterprise to attain certain economic objectives. The management must have the necessary working margin which is indispensable for efficient management, whereas all decisions concerning the association must be taken by the GA.

Starting from this basic distinction, one may draw a list of the matters to be dealt with exclusively by the GA. These matters may not be transferred to any other body or person, not even by the unanimous decision of all the members. Among these powers, the most prominent is the right and obligation to adopt, and if necessary, to modify the bye-laws within the limits of the law and cooperative principles.

The GA may stipulate on a matter through its bye-laws where the law is silent, when the legislator leaves it a choice amongst several options, invites it to specify legal provisions or when the cooperators decide to rewrite certain clauses of the law in order to make them easier to understand.

What has been said concerning model laws is, mutatis mutandis, equally valid for the bye-laws. The adoption of model bye-laws recognized by the authorities, makes registration easier because of their supposed conformity with the law. Their adoption must, however, not be made compulsory.

Not only does the structure define the powers of the General Assembly, but it also promotes a transformative use of power among the members of the General Assembly. This will be

discussed in length in the fourth module of this manual. In brief, a transformative use of power:

- Gives importance to the active participation of all members – with women and men equally and equitably represented;
- Acknowledges the differing needs and concerns, as well as capacities and competences of women and men.
- Entails the exertion of all efforts for the building of consensus, especially on issues affecting everyone, whenever possible.
- Is transparent;
- Leads to decisions or agreements that are mutually acceptable and gainful to all individuals and sections of the organization.
- Transforms unequal relations – status, gender, sectors – into an equal, equitable and empowering one.

To ensure a transformative use of power among the members of the General Assembly, appropriate communication and decision-making systems are installed.

C. Decision Making

1. Quorum

The conflict of principle engendered by the dual nature of cooperatives, must be solved by adopting a mode of decision-making which respects the principles of both democracy and economic efficiency. Fixing a quorum, i.e. the minimum number of members who must be present at the general assembly to validly deliberate and vote, constitutes such a compromise. At all times, the fixing of quorum must, however, take into account gender equity. This is one way of avoiding situations where either men or women will dominate the deliberations and making of decisions on the policies and operations of the cooperative, and, hence, will set the direction of the cooperative only in accordance with the interests, concerns and perspectives of one (e.g men) and not of the other (e.g. women).

This quorum, most often expressed either in a percentage of the number of members at the time of convening the GA or in an absolute figure, or in a combination of the two, may vary according to the topic on the agenda.

Provision must be made for cases where the GA repeatedly fails to gather the required quorum. As a rule, a second meeting with the same agenda may decide regardless of the number of members represented.

2. Voting

The basic rule for primary cooperatives is “one member = one vote”. This also applies to members being legal persons. Plural voting rights may be granted only exceptionally, in no case, however, on the basis of the amount of capital invested by a member. The volume of transactions with the cooperative or other criteria of that type might be, under circumstances, used when allocating plural voting rights. They may, however, not be exercised when taking decisions on important matters as specified by the law. In no case must one single member be in a position to take decisions on his or her own. In secondary and tertiary cooperative organizations, however, a system of plural voting rights may be applied without such restrictions.

The law must stipulate on the voting rights of delegates, i.e. members elected by sectional assemblies to the general assembly. The participation of non-member investors in the GA will have to be regulated in a way as to ensure that they may not outweigh regular members.

For the above-mentioned reasons, the voting rights of member employees will also have to be restricted to exclude them from voting on issues related to their employment.

If voting proxy is considered, the proxy must be a member of the cooperative and should not represent more than two or three members. Voting by mail might be a way to involve the greatest possible number of members in the decision making process whenever the physical presence of the members is not necessary.

Generally ballots should be secret in order to limit the influence of certain members, mainly the president of the assembly.

3. Majorities

Generally decisions may be taken by simple majority if the required quorum of members is present. Resolutions concerning the "association contract," be it a modification of the bye-laws or a decision on an amalgamation, a division, a dissolution or an affiliation of the cooperative with a secondary or tertiary organization, must be taken by a qualified majority, generally two-thirds. In a second GA, convened because the required quorum was not attained for the first meeting, these rules may be different (see above).

4. Use of Sex-Disaggregated Data (SDD)

As earlier mentioned, all reports and supporting documents that we will be used in the discussion of topics in the agenda, in the deliberation of issues and making of decisions must be supported by sex-disaggregated data, whenever applicable. Data can be said to be sex-disaggregated when it clearly shows the situation of women separately from men's. Sex-disaggregated data may include separate profile of women- and men-members, separate description of their needs and concerns whether common or different, their contributions to the cooperative, and the benefits that they derive from the cooperative.

5. Decision-making process

A gender-responsive decision-making process entails the: a) equal access of women and men to sex-disaggregated information about the cooperative; b) equal participation of women and men in the deliberation of issues and making of decisions; and c) a consensus-building approach to decision-making. Among the requirements to make this possible are:

- Dissemination to all members of sex-disaggregated information prior to the assembly.
- Enhancement of the capacity of the leaders of the cooperative in facilitating a consensus building process.
- Raising of awareness of members on their rights and obligations, and on the organizational structure of the cooperative.
- Enhancement of the capacity of the members in participating in a consensus building process.

III. Board of Directors

A. Composition

As the policy-making body and executive organ of the cooperative, the board of directors must be formed and must function according to precise legal rules. In order to ensure gender equity and equality, the rules must include equitable representation of women and men. Since women are mostly under-represented in many policy-making bodies of cooperatives, then the rules may stipulate a fixed slot of seats for women in the board of directors, say at least 40% of seats must go to women.

B. Powers of the board of directors

The list of powers of the board of directors covers, by default, all the matters which do not explicitly come under the authority of the general assembly. It includes the power to

- Make policies which the GA can no longer undertake due to time limitation — since the GA cannot meet as often as the BOD. These policies must, however, be consistent with the constitution and bye-laws set by the GA.
- Represent the cooperative in all acts of civil life, to administer and manage the cooperative.

  This power is limited by the legal capacity of the cooperative and the decisions taken by the GA. Thus, the latter may, for example, fix a financial ceiling above which the board of directors cannot by itself commit the cooperative, or decide that certain decisions of the board of directors must be taken unanimously;
- Keep the registers of the cooperative and the minutes of its own meetings; Make certain that the accounts and the balance sheet are drawn up according to the rules in force, always keeping in mind the specific character of cooperatives.
- Verify that the audit is made regularly and within the prescribe time limits before discussing the conclusions with the supervisory committee and the GA;
- Convene ordinary or extraordinary GAs and prepare the agenda according to the bye-laws.
- Prepare the management report and the annual budget;
- Admit, possibly provisionally, new members;
- Co-opt in the case of a vacancy new members unless this power is explicitly given to the GA.
- Facilitate the exercise of their rights by the members and make certain that they perform their duties;
- Facilitate the work of the auditors;
- Nominate, if necessary, a manager or director, member or not of the cooperative and according to the same criteria as applied when electing board members, and ensure that he/she carries out the assigned duties correctly. In practice, this employee must assume the management functions which are not explicitly delegated to the board. He/she may employ and direct the necessary number of personnel.
- File an application for the opening of bankruptcy procedures;
- Make certain that its functioning be transparent by adopting legal internal regulations, unless drawn up by the GA;
- Assume the consequences of illegalities; and finally
- Take on any other rights or obligations, assigned by the GA, or contained in the bye-laws.

The transformative use of power of the General Assembly also applies to the Board of Directors.

C. Decision-making

The decision-making principles and process of the General Assembly also apply to the Board of Directors.

IV. The supervisory committee

A. Composition

The supervisory committee carries out the control function in the interest of the members. Consequently, it is exclusively composed of members of the cooperative, with both women and men equally represented.

B. Powers

The supervisory committee's principal task is to control the activities of the board of directors and those of any commission, such as the hired management staff. In order to able to carry out this task, it should have access to all information at any time. Since it is only answerable to the GA, it may only take orders from that organ. Should the board of directors fail to properly convene a GA, the supervisory committee will convene the GA.

As in the board of directors, the transformative use of power and the principles and process of decision-making of the General Assembly also apply to the supervisory committee.

V. Management Staff

The management staff, usually composed of the General Manager or Project Manager and assisting staff, is a unit commissioned by the BOD to handle the day-to-day operations of the cooperative. This unit performs tasks which the BOD can no longer execute because of limited time, as they work for the cooperative only on a part-time basis, and lack of expertise on certain areas of operation of the cooperative. To effectively help the BOD manage the cooperative, the management staff is usually composed of professionals willing and capable of working on a full-time basis to handle the day-to-day activities of the cooperative. The management staff are selected and hired based on their competence and qualifications, and not on gender biases.

To avoid any unnecessary conflict between the BOD and the management staff, the two groups clearly delineate their roles and tasks in the cooperative. Some of the functions within the powers of the BOD are usually relegated to the management staff. These are:

- Keep the registers of the cooperative and the minutes of the meetings of the BOD; Make certain that the accounts and the balance sheet are drawn up according to the rules in force, always keeping in mind the specific character of cooperatives.
- Manages the projects of the cooperative.
- Prepare the management report and the annual budget;

However, since management tasks are responsibilities assigned by the GA to the BOD but are related to hired professional staff due to the limitations of the BOD, the BOD still has the responsibility of monitoring and ensuring that the tasks of the management staff are performed within the mandate of the GA, including the mandate to ensure that the principles of gender equity and equality are applied in their daily operations as well as in their work and interpersonal relations.

Source:

Hagen, H. (1998). Framework for cooperative legislation. pp. 28-36. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Trainers' Reference Material #2

Organizational Structure of "Dressmakers' Cooperative": For Case Discussion

An adaptation of the Carpenters' Cooperative in ILO's Training for the Management of Cooperatives (MATCOM).

The Dressmakers' Cooperative started out with only fifteen members — Why? The reason was clear: In the beginning there was only enough work for fifteen members. At this starting stage, the members really felt that they were workers in and at the same time owners of a business enterprise. As owners, they had to make decisions about the management of their business.

As long as they were only fifteen people operating a rather small dress shop, they could be self-managers. In fact, they could use tea-breaks for discussions and "management decisions."

But as the business developed fast they had an increasing number of complex matters to handle. The members began to feel that too much of their time was used for management instead of production. After all, as their business was based on dressmaking, they would not earn anything at all if everybody sat around endlessly discussing issues in the office.

It did not take long for the Dressmakers' Cooperative to develop an organizational structure similar to other cooperatives.

The administrative structure of a cooperative

The final power rests with the members. It was the members who made the by-laws. The members can exercise their power in the general assemblies, which all members have a right and obligation to attend. There they can express their opinions and vote.

But it is not possible to have a general assembly every day or week to discuss all management matters. Therefore, the members elect a small committee, called the Board of Directors(BOD), to look after the management of the society on their behalf.

But not even the BOD can meet every time something has to be dealt with in the office. So someone is appointed to look after the day-to-day management. He or she is called secretary or general manager. Because of the enormous work of the general manager, other staff are hired to help her.

Now we must take a closer look at these three "powers" within a cooperative society: the general assembly, the BOD and the manager. Who decides what? Certainly there must be some rules, otherwise we would soon have chaos. The BOD may tell the manager: "That was not for you to decide. You should have asked the BOD." Or the BOD may tell the members: "We have decided …" and the members may reply: "That was wrong, you should have left the decision to all the members of the society."

Yes, indeed, if a cooperative is to function well, relations between the three "powers" must be very good, and every member must know the rules for the management of the society.

The General Assembly

Under Cooperative Acts, societies must have a big meeting once a year, called the Annual General Meeting (AGM).

The Tailors' and Tailoress Cooperative had decided in their by-laws to hold two more Ordinary General Assemblies (OGA) every year. These general assemblies gave the BOD, the manager and the members a forum in which to discuss the current state of affairs, particularly any problems, and the direction the society should take. Above all, the members got an opportunity to exchange opinions and vote on important issues.

Occasionally, it was necessary to call a Special General Assembly (SGA). For instance, last May the owner of the building in which the society had its business had died. His children wanted to sell the building rather than rent it. Would the society want to buy it? It was special issue on which members had to be consulted before a decision could be made.

The Annual General Assembly

The AGA is the most important meeting of the whole year. The main purposes of the AGA are:

- To review and discuss what happened during the past business year and to decide what should be done with any surplus (profit);
- To discuss and plan the coming business year;
- To elect a committee for the coming business year.

Let us take last year's AGA of the Dressmakers' Cooperative as an example.

The assembly was organized by the BOD. To remind members to keep the data and time for the AGA free, the BOD sent an invitation to each member more than three weeks in advance, together with the agenda for the meeting. To enable members to prepare themselves for the AGA, the BOD had included information for each agenda item with the invitations.

The members had also received the Annual Report from the BOD about the society's business, the sales, the expenses and the surplus created. So they were all very well informed and prepared for the assembly, as we shall see.

Carlos, who had been the chairperson of the BOD during the past year, also chaired the AGA. After opening the assembly and welcoming the members, he asked Linda to present the annual report, the statement of accounts and balance sheet.

"This is the balance sheet of our society," Linda explained. "It gives you a picture of our society's economy. On one side, it shows how the money has been used. On the other side, it tells you where the money comes from. Let us start with the side that tells us where the money came from. First off …."

Thanks to the information they had received before the meeting, the members were able to participate in the discussions rather than sit there listening passively. They had plenty of questions, comments and suggestions. Therefore, when time came to make decisions, each individual could exercise properly his/her power as a member by placing a thoughtful, well-informed vote.

The AGA was conducted democratically. This means that:

- Every member present at the meeting had one vote;
- Decisions were made by a majority of votes of those present and entitled to vote;
- Each decision was recorded in a minute book and read out to the meeting before the next item on the agenda was taken up.

The Board of Directors

In the preceding pages we have seen the BOD in action. But what exactly are the duties of the committee?

In the early years of the Dressmakers' Cooperative that question was easy to answer. The BOD simply had to carry out all the "managerial" tasks in the society. That is they organized the sales and tried to find new customers and more jobs for the members; they ordered materials and kept the books; they distributed the work and collected payment for deliveries. However, over a period of time a greater specialization of functions developed.

Take Linda for example. She was on the BOD. Because she had volunteered for it and had proved competent and reliable, she was usually given responsibility for taking care of all the paper-work connected with the BOD's decisions. Eventually, it was decided that office work should become her main duty. Only when she had some time left over did she work in the dress workshop. In this way Linda had become a member with mainly managerial responsibilities: namely, following up on the BOD's management decisions.

This arrangement worked very well for a couple of years. In fact, many cooperatives appoint one member to act as secretary while the BOD manages the business of the society. But, as the Dressmakers' Cooperative developed into a bigger business, this system gradually evolved to the point where many of the routine management decisions were left to Linda. This allowed the BOD to concentrate on the more important decisions. Of course, Linda kept the BOD fully informed of all she did. Eventually she became responsible for the day-to-day management of the society. Within a few years Linda had acquired considerable knowledge and experience in managing the business.

As the management of the cooperative became increasingly complex and difficult, the BOD found itself not only asking Linda's advice but also delegating more and more of its important management decisions to her. Linda had turned into the professional manager of the business. The BOD also hired two more staff to assist her with day-to-day work of the cooperative.

But the BOD still had many responsibilities. Here are some examples of the many questions that the BOD of the Dressmakers' Cooperative dealt with last year.

Financial policies:	The committee decided that customer credit should not exceed 30 days.
Preparations for General Meetings:	The committee presented an Annual Report, Accounts and Balance Sheet in the AGM (the manager had assisted in the preparations). They also presented a budget and a plan for the following year.
Financial control:	The committee studied and considered the monthly reports from the manager, and analyzed the cash balances. Were the sales, costs, etc. as planned? Why or why not?

From the examples of your own society and from those of the Dressmakers' Cooperative, you will see that the work of a society's BOD is important. Consequently, when members elect a new BOD, they must carefully consider each candidate.

The Manager

The person in charge of the day-to-day management is called the “Manager.”

Day-to-day management means dealing with the small and big matters that crop up in the course of a business day. The manager:

- Decides who does what (i.e. organizes the work)
- Supervises quality and output
- Prepares quotations and tenders
- Receives orders
- Prepares invoices
- Receives payments
- Researches and selects suppliers
- Orders supplies
- Pays suppliers
- Pays wages
- Keeps the books
- Prepares reports to the committee about the affairs of the society.

And many other matters …

The manager’s main responsibility is to see to it that the day-to-day management is carried out efficiently and in line with decisions made by the members and the committee. The manager is directly responsible to the committee, with which he or she collaborates very closely.
The BOD and the manager do meet regularly in the office — at least once a month.
The main reasons for these BOD meetings with the manager are the following:

- The manager keeps the committee informed about the day-to-day affairs of the society. She presents accounts, budget follow-ups and oral as well as written reports.
- She asks the committee for advice on matters that touch on objectives, priorities, policies or major issues.
- She advises the committee on managerial matters. For example, last month the manager convinced the committee of the need to order cloths more often. He showed that some T$10,000 could be saved for other purposes, if they reduced the stock of cloths, and instead ordered new supplies more often.

Collaboration in practice

Conflicts over the delegation of authority within cooperatives should be avoided but they are not uncommon. The manager may forget that she works for a cooperative, and that she cannot make all the decisions herself. It may also happen that one or two BOD members want to run the whole show and start interfering in matters for which the manager should be responsible. This could make her work more difficult.

The following is a selection of some of the decisions that were made by the Dressmakers’ Cooperative last year. You can see how the responsibilities were divided between members, committee members and the manager.

	The decision was made by		
	The General Meeting (Members)	**The Committee**	**The Manager**
The budget was approved for the next year.	/		
A new machine costing T$ 10,000 was purchased.		/	
The society applied for a new bank loan.		/	
A package of cloths was returned to the supplier due to bad quality.			/
Five members were asked to work overtime.			/
The typist's wage was increased.	/		
A reminder about payment was sent to a customer.			/
The working hours for all members were changed.			/
Customers who paid cash were given a 1% discount.		/	
Cora was elected chairperson of the BOD.	/		
A new system for recording sales was introduced.			/
Maria was sent to the Cooperative Union Congress.		/	
The society paid 2% bonus to all members.	/		
The interest on the bank loan was paid.			/

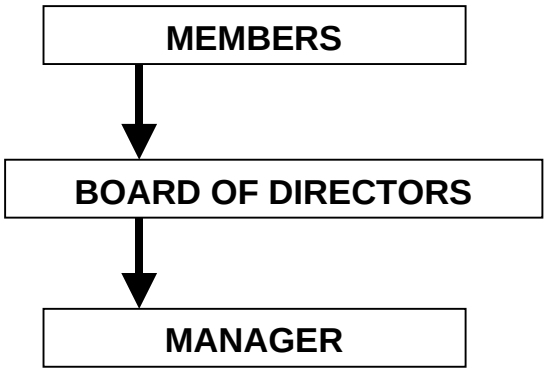
Information and reporting

Another reason why the management of the Dressmakers' Cooperative functioned so well was due to the existence of a good communication system. Of course, their cooperative still had only forty members, and as they all met in the workshop everyday it was easy to keep everyone informed of the latest news. The committee members and the manager kept all documents and correspondence available for all members to see. In this way, they prevented rumours from spreading, which could have spoilt the good atmosphere in the society.

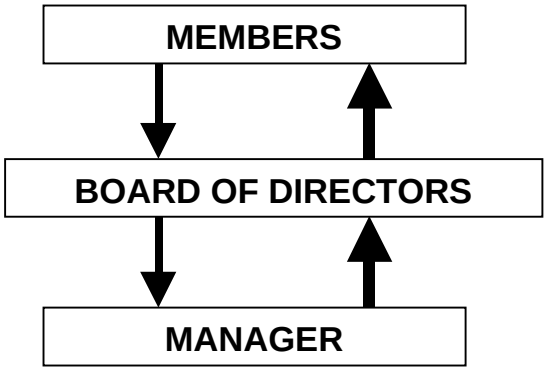
In addition to the "informal" daily contracts, the society also had its system of "formal" general meetings in order to keep everybody informed and to control the development of the society.

We have seen how the management structure of the society developed.

We can draw arrows between the three "powers" like this, to show how the members instructed and empowered the committee, and the committee in turn entrusted certain powers to the manager.



But this structure also means that we must draw arrows the other way: the manager must report regularly to the committee about the business results; and the committee must inform the members in the genera meetings.



Source:

The above is a mere adaptation of an article on a carpenters' cooperative. The cooperative was changed into a dressmakers' cooperative for women to easily visualize their participation.

ILO (1985). A workers' cooperative organization. In Training for the Management of Cooperatives (MATCOM). pp. 26-43. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

UNIT 3
Cooperative Legislation and Policies

THE MAIN MESSAGE

Cooperatives exist in a social, economic and political environment. This environment can be supportive of or unsympathetic to the mission, goals and operations of cooperatives. To sustain itself, however, cooperatives need the critical support of this environment. The specific support needed is the adaptation by the political environment of supportive cooperative legislation and policies. Simply put, cooperative legislation and policies refer to the laws and regulations of a country pertaining to the formation and operations of cooperatives within their areas of jurisdiction. In order for these legislation and policies to boost women's empowerment, then they have to be gender sensitive and responsive.

This session focuses on the cooperative legislation and policies in the societies of the trainees.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

This session aims to:

1. Familiarize the trainees with the cooperative legislations and policies of their countries.
2. Facilitate an analysis of the opportunities and threats provided by the cooperative legislations and policies in the country(ies) of the trainees to the development of gender-responsive-cooperatives.
3. Make their analysis informed by the guidelines developed by the International Labour Organization (ILO) for the revisions of cooperative legislation and policies.

Time Requirements: Four hours

1. Lecture on the ILO Framework for Cooperative Legislation: 60 minutes
2. Presentation of a country's cooperative legislation and policies: 60 minutes
3. Small group discussion: 50 minutes
4. Plenary reporting: 60 minutes
5. Synthesis: 10 minutes

Materials Required :

1. Visual Aids
2. Overhead projector
3. Manila paper, pens, tapes
4. Board

Steps:

1. Explain the main message and objectives of this session, as stated above. Then make clear that the session will have four parts:

a) Creative lecture on the ILO Framework for Cooperative Legislation.

b) Presentation of the cooperative legislation and policies in the country(ies) of the participants. If the participants come from different countries, then they will be grouped according to their countries. Each group will have a resource person to present and lead a discussion on the cooperative legislation and policies of the country of the small group.

c) Workshop discussion on the opportunities and threat provided by a country's legislation and policies to the formation of gender responsive cooperatives

d) Plenary sharing and synthesis of the workshop outputs.

2. Present with creative visual aids the guidelines of the ILO for cooperative legislations and policies, which legislators can opt to use in their reform of the cooperative system in their countries.

3. After the lecture, ask the participants to group themselves according to their countries. If all the participants come from one country, then there is no need to divide them into small groups at this point. The number of small groups will, hence, depend on the number of countries represented in the training.

   Call on the resource persons assigned to present the cooperative legislation and policies in the countries of the trainees. Each small group will have its own resource person to talk about the cooperative legislation and policies in their country.

4. After the presentation of the cooperative legislation, instruct the small groups to proceed to the discussion of the opportunities(O) and threats(T) provided by the discussed cooperative legislation and policies. If all the participants come from one country, then it will be helpful to have the OT analysis in small groups.

5. Give the following points as guides to their analysis of the cooperative legislation and policies in their countries:

· What opportunities do the cooperative legislation and policies in your country give to the development and operations of gender responsive cooperatives?

· What threats do they provide?

· What changes and improvements do you think must be done in order for these legislations and policies be more supportive of the formation and operation of gender responsive cooperatives?

6. After all small groups have completed step #5 and have written their outputs in a manila paper or any big paper, then reconvene them for a plenary sharing. Give each group 10 to 15 minutes their outputs.

7. Synthesize the outputs of the small groups.

Caution/Hints:

This session may be the first time for the participants to hear about the cooperative legislations and policies in their countries. If this is so, then they may not be prepared to make an in-depth analysis of the opportunities and threats provided by these legislations and policies. To address this, you may include, in their training kits, copies of these legislations and policies. A critical preparation to this session, therefore, is the collection of cooperative legislations and policies

in the countries of the targeted participants. Encourage the participants to read these documents before the session.

It will also be best to ask the participants to bring copies of their country's cooperative legislation and policies to the training, and to read them beforehand. For more effective facilitation of the session, THE TRAINERS MUST HAVE COPIES OF THESE LEGISLATIONS AND POLICIES, AND MUST READ THEM PRIOR TO THE TRAINING.

Variation:

If audio-visual materials on a country's cooperative legislations and policies are available, then show them to the small groups instead of a simple lecture on the topic.

Quick Check:

To initially assess the participants' view of the session, ask them to answer the following questions in a paper.

1. Should every woman-leader of a cooperative understand the cooperative legislation and policies in her country? Why?
2. Give examples of specific decisions in your cooperative which must be based on cooperative legislations and policies.

Trainers' Reference Material

Framework for Cooperative Legislation

(Excerpts from the "Framework for Cooperative Legislation" of the Cooperative Branch, International Labour Office, Geneva)

1. Introduction

The ILO, according to Article 12 of its constitution, has been furthering the development of cooperative societies since its inception. The meeting of experts on cooperative legislation, organized by the ILO in 1995 underlined the urgent need for reforms of cooperative legislations.[1]

A specific programme, i.e. COOPREFORM, was initiated in 1993 under the ILO-DANIDA programme on cooperative development in rural areas. This programme supports ILO member states in revising cooperative policies and legislations. The present document comes under this programme which intends to produce a series of manuals dealing with different aspects of cooperative reform.

These guidelines aimed primarily at the legislator, include an inventory of the matters to be considered, decisions to be taken and consequences thereof and, finally, the problems that may arise. It is, however, not a recipe to follow. By choosing to design guidelines, the ILO deliberately put aside the idea of proposing a model law. Among the many reasons which have in the past contributed to making cooperative legislation in many countries ineffective, the consequences of an excessive mimicry stand out. Experience shows that laws mainly inspired by foreign ideas have often ended up as phantom laws.

The writing of a standard law always presents the risk of transforming itself merely into a simplistic transfer of legal concepts without adapting them to the national particularities. Guidelines, on the other hand, inspired by universally recognized cooperative principles, guide the legislator in constructing a cooperative law which respects the local context. This is necessary if the new texts are to be applied efficiently. Thus, the approach chosen here responds to appeals from the international community soliciting cultural diversity.

Even though the legislator is free to adopt the text it judges most adequate, it must nevertheless keep in mind the culturally determined economic, social, political and legal framework of the country. The cooperative law is thus only one of the elements of a system where cooperative principles, certain ideas on political and economic issues and the cooperative law reciprocally stabilize and complement each other.

The reality of the meeting of different cultures and the emergence of what one could call universal values must also be taken into consideration. The recognition of the key role women play in the process of development is an example of these unavoidable dimensions which influence cooperative praxis.

It is thus up to the legislator to find a middle road between the respect for the national heritage and insertion into the global system.

2. The systemic nature of the cooperative law

The cooperative law is part of cooperative legislation. The latter is constituted by all normative,

[1] See: Meeting of Experts on Cooperative Law, Final Report, Geneva: ILO 1996, p.18.

administrative and judicial acts having an influence on the formation, the organization and the operation of cooperatives. Thus, the rule on the non discretional and non discriminatory exercise of administrative power and on the justiciability of all public acts, constitutional and administrative norms, rules on local and regional administration, real estate and private law in general, irrigation, water, investment, commercial law, company, tax, competition, labour, bankruptcy, and credit laws, regulations on imports, exports and pricing, on contracts, inheritance, accountancy, banking, consumer protection and social security, transports and marketing, etc. all form part of cooperative legislation.

The effectiveness and efficiency of the cooperative law therefore depends on the whole legal system. When drafting the law, the legislator must therefore make sure that other legal provisions do not run counter to his/her project. It will be particularly important to be vigilant regarding the provisions contained in social and labour laws, marked by the wish to guarantee minimum social protection and to re-establish a balance between unequal partners, something which is at times incompatible with the freedom of private agents. Failing which, the self-determination of cooperatives might be in danger.

This approach requires resorting to a legal expert who looks after the compatibility of the different texts. In general, the ministry of justice supervises the harmonization of the laws.

3. Why a Cooperative Law?

In certain countries, such as Denmark and Norway, cooperative movements prosper without being ruled by their own law. But there are no cooperative movements prospering without cooperative legislation. Two main reasons may be given:

a) The existence of a cooperative law is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for getting a cooperative policy to work. The rule of law is a fundamental element in the new approach to development which emphasizes the respect for human rights. This presupposes that the legal relationship between citizens and the state is founded on acts of parliament. International cooperation uses law, in an ever increasing manner, as a means of information and communication. Law is a reference point and a guide mark.

b) In complex societies where social control can no longer be based on close relationships, law has proven to be the most adequate means of regulating the activities of economic agents who are not personally linked to each other.

For example, law establishes the criteria for the definition of legal persons, which gives physical persons the possibility of avoiding personal, financial liability.

The duality of law is apparent here. It represents the just balance between the autonomy of the cooperators and the cooperatives on the one hand, and the scope of normative control by the state on the other. At the same time, law is instrument which establishes this balance.

4. The Nature of Cooperative Law

The answer to the question of whether we are in the realm of public or in the realm of private law and whether mainly externally provoked accelerated development requires a specific law, defines the kind and scope of issues to be dealt with in a cooperative law.

a) Public law or private law?

The legal nature of the cooperative law depends on the definition of its object. If cooperative legislation is to regulate the activity of the cooperative sector, it will be part of public economic law and should include besides rules on the formation, structure, operations and dissolution of cooperatives, rules on a tutelage authority and its powers. If, on the other hand, it is only a question of proposing to potential cooperators a mode of organization, one finds oneself in the domain of private law.

The insertion of the cooperative law in one or the other of these fields reflects a political choice. In the context of structural adjustment, private law is the logical choice since the legislator is not seeking to interfere in the activities of the cooperatives. In accordance with ILO Recommendation No. 127 (paragr. 10 [a]), the law thus offers cooperators a legal framework which will permit them to develop their activities in an autonomous manner.

b) Development Law?

The history of cooperatives has been frequently marked by being used as instruments to serve the development goals of the state, be it socialist of capitalist.[2]

Guided by the theories of "development of law" and of "law of development", the management of the cooperative sector by the state, originally meant to be provisional, often become institutionalized. Public funding has brought tighter control, thus closing the vicious circle of government involvement and a growing dependence of the cooperative system of the state.

No longer masters of their destiny, cooperatives have seen state officials survey their formation and operations, define their activities or organize their vertical integration.

More concretely, the formation of cooperatives has often been characterized by:

- The obligation to limit their activities to a specified territory, coinciding more often than not with the boundaries of administrative districts.

  This obligation, allegedly for the sake of cooperatives' economic efficiency and control by the government, not only contravened the freedom of the cooperative movement, but it also contributed to its politization. By the same token, the positive effects of competition on economic efficiency were excluded.
- Compulsory membership

Not only did individuals lose the possibility to constitute themselves freely as cooperatives, but they were, furthermore, obliged to join structures established at the place of their residence.

One these interventions were accepted, the interference would not stop there. State administration intervened in the management of cooperatives more or less directly. For example, it:

- Organized general assemblies (GA) to establish cooperatives; sometimes it simply created cooperatives ex nihilo;
- Held ordinary or extraordinary GAs, meetings of the board of directors and of other organs, by delegating state representatives to sit in these sessions, which sometimes had been convened directly by them.
- Took decisions normally made by the organs of the cooperative.

The personnel, elected or employed, found themselves under close supervision, regarding their selection, their remuneration and their eventual "replacement" at times by state commissioners.

[2] One may cite as an example the "British-Indian pattern of cooperatives" and a number of laws on pre-cooperatives.

Practically without a say in defining their field of activity and their internal functioning, cooperatives were often:

- Excluded from certain sectors, saw themselves assigned pre-determined objectives, and even the services to be provided to their members and users were the object of external decisions.
- Deprived of the choice of their activities, they were not free to dispose of their resources. Loan, investment, and even decisions on the distribution of a surplus had to be submitted for approval. Supposedly inefficient management could be sanctioned by freezing the cooperative's bank account.

To this a priori control, the administration would add an a posteriori control by auditing the cooperatives directly or having them audited.

Not only did the administration interfere in the day-to-day management of primary cooperatives, it also arbitrated the relationships between the different levels by:

- Creating and running secondary and tertiary cooperative organizations;
- Fusing and dividing such structures; and
- Settling disputes without there being any possibility of an appeal to ordinary tribunals.

On the other hand, cooperatives were allowed privileges in matters of taxation, access to credit or state controlled support.

Such constraints and privileges can no longer be part of cooperative law. They are incompatible with it belonging to the private law. Moreover, the law should regulate existing social activities and not try to give birth to them.

Past experience with the above mentioned theories of "development of law" and "development law" have not proven satisfactory. The legislator will, however, have to respect the implications of the human right to development, foremost by allowing for cultural diversity within the limits of cooperative principles.

5. Which instrument?

The autonomy of cooperatives will only be achieved by respecting the principle of subsidiarity. Originally conceived to promote vertical delegation of central state power, this principle calls for each cooperative to be the master of its own decisions unless these are of public concern or involve third party interests.

In this context the bye-laws of cooperatives and their internal regulations have a primordial role. Their elaboration contributes to strengthening the motivation of cooperators and thereby reinforcing the capacity of self-management. Only matters which surpass the competence of an individual cooperative may be regulated through norms, ranging from the constitution and laws, to decrees and other administrative acts.

According to the rule of law, questions relating to cooperative principles must be regulated by law, whereas decrees or other administrative acts will operationalize the law.

Provisions of a temporary nature or those which are subject to frequent changes, such as rules on fixed interest rates, should not be inscribed in the law.

Once inscribed in the law, a rule cannot be cancelled unless there is a revision of the law. Similarly, a text of any nature cannot nullify clauses contained in other texts of the same order

which existed prior to the new legislation. This explains why the systemic character of a cooperative law should always be kept in mind.

6. One Cooperative Law or several laws?

Considering the diversity of self-help organizations in terms of activity, number of members, level of development, needs, their degree of inter-relatedness with competitors and other business organizations and the existence of several types of cooperatives (producers', service, consumer cooperatives) in all economic sectors, be they single- or multi-purpose cooperatives, the legislator will have to decide whether to pass one single law catering for their different aspects, possibly containing specific chapters for particular cases, or whether to pass several laws.

It is even possible that the civil code, the company law and/or other fields of law make a specific cooperative legislation superfluous.

As already mentioned, however, in no event may the legislator allow for essential matters to be regulated through administrative acts, by stipulating in excessively general terms.

Taking into account the advantages and inconveniences of the different alternatives, resorting to a single law including , if necessary, specific chapters dealing with particular types or activities of cooperatives, seems to be the best solution. It …

- Guarantees the autonomy of cooperatives because of its inevitably general character;
- Reduces bureaucracy;
- Favours the unity of the cooperative movement; and finally
- Guarantees legal security for those dealing with cooperatives.

7. Language of the cooperative law

It is not unusual that the primary addresses of the cooperative law neither master the official language in which the text is written, nor understand the legal terminology.

The promulgating of the law in vernacular languages, the use of an accessible style or the adoption of a law that one can understand without having, in as far as possible, to resort to other texts, are some of the means to improve access to the cooperative law. However, the cooperative law must not be an exception. Its language must be consistent with that of the other legal texts so as to ensure the uniformity of the legal system.

Unless one wants to instigate a revolution at the level of the language of the law, an understanding of the law, a prerequisite for its acceptance, must be reached by thorough popularization which is not a simple question of translation.

8. Format of the cooperative law

The format of the cooperative law might seem of secondary importance. Nevertheless, it must be noted that form and content are one.

A brief law, defining an organizational framework for cooperatives only, necessarily refers to other provisions, making it less intelligible and therefore relatively difficult to apply. From a practical point of view, a detailed law thus seems preferable. However, such a text risks impending the autonomy of cooperatives by limiting notably the role of their bye-laws. On the other hand, it prevents the excessive resort to administrative decisions.

The dimension of time has to be taken into consideration as well. Very often cooperative laws have been marked by too detailed texts which become inapplicable because of frequent political changes.

9. An ABC of a cooperative law

Starting with their formation and ending with their dissolution cooperatives are subject to legislation. Their internal functioning as well as their dealings with third parties have to be regulated.

As a rule, the bye-laws recapitulate and specify the main points of the law and relevant administrative acts.

The following are the main topics or contents of a cooperative law:

- Preamble
- General provisions
- Formation, registration and publication
- Obligations and rights of members
- Organs and management of the cooperative society
- Capital formation, accounts and distribution of results
- Audit;
- Forms of dissolution;
- Simplified structures;
- Vertical integration;
- Dispute settlement;
- Miscellaneous, transitory and final provisions.

10. Legislative Procedure

The participation of the main actors of the cooperative movement in the process of the elaboration of the law constitutes one of the most effective means of disseminating and applying the text. This kind of approach appears even more justified since the very idea of cooperation is based on participation.

This participatory approach has been further developed and applied by the ILO in several countries.[3]

11. Popularization of the cooperative law

Knowing that in a good many countries, the official language and, *a fortiori*, the legal vocabulary are not mastered by the addressees of the law, who are often even illiterate, one understands that maximum attention must be focused on the popularization of the cooperative law. This massive task rests as must with the state as the cooperative movement.

[3] See the Recommendations generales relatives ^ la reforme des politiques cooperatives of the Panafrican Cooperative Conference in July 1996.

UNIT 4
A Vision of a Gender Responsive Cooperative

MAIN MESSAGE

As a way of integrating the experiences of the trainees in the first two modules of this manual, and as a prelude to the next modules, which focus more on the personal development of the trainees and on the enhancement of their leadership and management skills, this session invites the trainees to go through a visioning exercise. In this exercise, the participants will develop their vision of a gender responsive cooperative. To facilitate the visioning exercise, the participants will list all their key learning from the two modules.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to:

1. Help the participants develop their own vision of a gender responsive cooperative, as a way of summing-up and integrating the lessons and experiences they acquired from all the sessions of the first two modules of this manual, entitled respectively, "Gender in Cooperatives" and "Fundamentals of Cooperatives."
2. Assess the learning of the participants from the first two modules of this manual.

Time Requirements: 3 hours

Introduction:	10 minutes
Small group discussion:	60 minutes
Plenary reporting and discussion:	90 minutes
Quick Check:	30 minutes

Materials Required:

1. Manila Paper and markers for each small group;
2. Board and chalks or markers
3. Masking tapes

Steps:

1. Explain the objectives and process of this session. For a common understanding of the term, vision, you may give the following definition:

   A vision is a description of a desired future state, and an expression of a desired impact. For this session, the visioning exercise will include a description of a gender-responsive cooperative, and an explanation of the desired impact of this gender-responsive cooperative on women and men, and on their relations within and outside of the cooperatives.

2. Divide the participants into small groups. Each small group should have not more than 6 members. Women and men can be mixed in a group. Then distribute to the small groups manila papers and colored markers, and give them the following instructions:

   a) List all your key learning from all the sessions of the first two modules of this manual.

   b) Based on these lessons, draw your vision of a gender responsive cooperative in a manila paper. The drawing must reflect how gender concerns and principles are integrated in the:

      - Purposes, values and principles of the cooperative. Emphasized here is the recognition of the equal worth and potentials of women and men, and the balanced integration of traits and values associated with women and men. You may encourage the trainees to review the ICA Cooperative Identity.
      - Types of services that the cooperative provides. Remind the trainees that a gender responsive cooperative addresses both the practical and strategic needs of women.
      - Organizational structure. You may tell them to review here the structure of a gender responsive cooperative, bearing in mind the following:
        – the composition of the different levels of the structure: GA, BOD, etc.
        – the importance of SDD
        – delineation of roles and tasks
        – decision-making process and perspective to power
        – others
      - Capability building programs and support systems for women and men. (If these were not yet included in the list of services of the cooperative.)
      - Characteristic of the external environment of a gender responsive cooperative. They may review here their discussion of cooperative legislation and policies.
      - Impact of a Gender Responsive Cooperative
        – Level of confidence of women and men.
        – Behavioral patterns of women- and men-leaders and members (how they treat each other, and what they do in their households and workplaces so that both women and men have equal opportunities to participate in and benefit from the cooperative),
        – Gender issues addressed. You may encourage them to check if the gender issues in the Asian context and in cooperatives are sustainable addressed.

   c) To further enhance their vision, you may encourage the participants to review:

      – The gender analysis and planning concepts discussed in the last session of the first module, and check if the key points have been integrated.
      – Their list of lessons from the first two modules, and check if they all have been reflected in the vision.

Tell them that they have 60 minutes to finish their small group tasks.

3. When the small groups are ready to present their lessons from the different sessions of modules 1 and 2, and their vision of a gender responsive cooperative, ask them to share their outputs to the big group. Each group has fifteen minutes to present their output. You may more time if necessary.
4. Synthesize the outputs of all the small groups, and have this synthesis approved by all the participants as their collective "Vision of a Gender-Responsive Cooperative."
5. Write the synthesized vision in a big paper. Then facilitate a symbolic signing of the vision by all of the participants.
6. When all the participants have signed the vision, distribute the quick check form. Give them 20 minutes to answer it. When everyone has answered the quick check form, ask for at least five volunteers to share their answers.
7. End the session with a synthesis of the sharing of these volunteers.

Variation:

If the participants are not comfortable with illustrating their vision of a gender responsive cooperative, then another option is to simply ask them to list down in words the characteristics of their envisioned gender responsive coop, using the same guidelines as stated in step #2b.

Quick Check

1. Do you find the formation of a gender-responsive cooperative realistic and attainable? Why? What do you think are the helping and hindering factors?
2. From a scale of 1 to 10, with ten as the score for a gender responsive cooperative, and one as the score for a gender discriminating cooperative, where do you think your cooperative lies? Why?
3. What do you plan to do after this training to help in making your cooperative more gender responsive?

Trainers' Reference Material

Trainers' Guide for the Integration of Modules 1 & 2 and for the Development of a Vision of a Gender responsive Cooperative

I. Key Learning Points of Modules 1 and 2:

Note to Trainers: If you find any key learning points that are missing in the following list, you may add them. The participants may also mention other key learning points that are not here.

A. Development of Gender views

- We acquired our views about women and men, and their normative relation with each other through our process of socialization with the people and social institutions in our socio-cultural environment.
- Since our socio-cultural environment is predominantly patriarchal, we learned to view women as inferior to men and as only capable of doing household and related works. And since unpaid household and related works are associated with women, and paid work outside of the house is associated with men, then unpaid household works are valued less than paid work outside of the house.
- We transmit these views to all our areas of involvement, including the cooperatives. As a reflection of this traditional view of women and men, more men occupy the leadership structures of cooperatives.

B. Manifestations of gender bias (against women) in Asian societies and in cooperatives

- In summary, gender bias against women in Asia is manifested in the following forms. (Please see reference material for details.)
  1. Marginalization
  2. Subordination
  3. Multiple Burden
  4. Gender stereotyping
  5. Different forms of violence against women
  6. Women's low self-worth as a result of the above.
- Areas of cooperatives where gender issues can be found if not sensitive and responsive to gender concerns are the following:
  1. Membership requirements
  2. Types of information gathered on membership
  3. Leadership structures and processes
  4. The manner by which services are selected and provided to the members
  5. The manner by which members' attitudes and other concerns (e.g. relationship of women and men in the households and other family problems) that affect their participation in the cooperatives are handled.

C. Key gender concepts and approaches

- The traditional gender views and the manifestations of gender issues in the Asian societies and in cooperatives can best be addressed if people understand gender concepts and

approaches. These concepts and approaches will help them effectively conduct gender analysis and planning.

- Gender concepts include:
  1. Difference between the terms sex and gender.
  2. "Productive-reproductive divide" as a cause and effect of gender inequality.
  3. "Productive-reproductive divide" as resulting into men and women's unequal access to and control of resources and the benefits derived from the resources.
  4. Practical and strategic gender needs of women, that if addressed will help in women's empowerment and therefore, the achievement of gender equity and equality.
- Gender approaches include:
  1. Women in Development, which is viewed to address women's practical gender needs, but not their strategic needs.
  2. Women and Development, which advocates for women's representation in economic, political and social spheres, failing, however, on addressing the problematic gender relations of women and men, particularly the "productive-reproductive divide."
  3. Gender and Development, which focuses on the unequal power relations between women and men, and aims for the transformation of gender relations, by identifying and responding to the practical and strategic gender needs of women in all levels and facets of the societal structures.

D. Cooperatives as an Enabling Environment for Gender Equity and Equality

- Unequal gender relations serve as a major stumbling block to the fulfillment of the principles and achievement of the goals of cooperatives. This is because women's special contribution and distinctive competence are not fully maximized. Women should be equally and equitably represented in the leadership structures of cooperative because:
  - It is only with their active participation that the principles of democracy and fairness in cooperatives will be actualized.
  - They understand more their own needs and aspirations. Hence, their active participation will facilitate the effective and efficient designing of sustainable economic programs for all the members.
  - In so doing, the cooperatives can systematically make use of the distinctive competence of women.
- For this reason, the definition of cooperative as well as its key values and principles, as outlined in the ICA Statement of Cooperative Identity, gives emphasis to the provision of equal treatment to women and men, and the recognition of the equal worth of positive masculine and feminine traits and values, and of the importance of a balanced integration of masculinity and femininity in its operation. (Please see reference material on the analysis of the ICA Statement of Cooperative Identify from a gender perspective.)
- Cooperatives, as primarily an economic organization, offer services that can help women be free from their economic dependence on men. Aside from this, cooperatives can also offer other services that can address the practical and strategic needs of women.

For practical gender needs, services may include:

- Health care

- Childcare
- Transportation
- Literacy
- Training on income-generating projects.

For strategic gender needs, services include:

- Taking action on different forms of violence against women, in the households and workplaces.
- Providing services that will help women gain economic security.
- Leadership capability building to help women participate in decision making bodies of cooperatives, and in other areas of involvement.

- Cooperative structure must also be designed in accordance to gender principles. Each level of the structure must, hence, reflect the integration of gender concerns. Gender concerns integration can be seen in the:
  - Composition (significant representation of women and men)
  - Delineation of roles and tasks (must not be based on gender stereotypes).
  - Transformative use of power
- For gender-responsive cooperatives to thrive, the support of the social and political environment is crucial. Hence, cooperatives must be aware of legislations and policies affecting them, and must also work for the development of gender-responsive cooperative legislations and policies.

II. Vision of a Gender-Responsive Cooperative

With an in-depth understanding of the above key learning points of modules 1 and 2 of this manual, the participants are expected to find the development of a vision of a gender-responsive cooperative easier to do. It is, actually, simply integrating all the learning points of modules 1 and 2.

As an example of a vision, a gender-responsive cooperative may be described to be the following:

A. Vision Statement of a Gender Responsive Cooperative

A gender responsive cooperative envisions itself to be an autonomous association, voluntarily and systematically formed by both women and men based on sex-disaggregated information about their needs and the conditions of their communities, towards meeting their common economic, social and cultural needs, including their practical and strategic gender needs, through a business enterprise that is jointly-owned and managed with a transformative leadership orientation.

This cooperative reflects the universal values and principles of a cooperative as defined by the International Cooperative Alliance.

Values:

- Self-help
- Self-responsibility
- Democracy
- Equality

- Equity
- Solidarity
- Transformative power

Principles:

- Voluntary and open membership.
- Democratic member control
- Member economic participation
- Autonomy and independence
- Education, training and information
- Cooperation among cooperatives
- Concern for community.

All of these principles are actualized in a way that checks and prevents any manifestation of gender bias.

B. Types of Services

The types of services of a gender-responsive cooperative are selected and developed based on sex-disaggregated data on the needs and concerns of the members, and addresses women's practical and strategic gender needs. These services may include, but are not limited to:

For practical gender needs, services include:

– Health care
– Childcare
– Transportation
– Literacy
– Training on income-generating projects.

For strategic gender needs, services include:

– Taking action on different forms of violence against women, in the households and workplaces.
– Providing services that will help women gain economic security.
– Leadership capability building to help women participate in decision making bodies of cooperatives, and in other areas of involvement.

C. Cooperative Structure

In all levels of the cooperative structure – General Assembly, Board of Directors, Supervisory committee and other committees — transformative power is reflected. This type of power orientation :

- Gives importance to the equal representation and participation of women and men.
- Acknowledges the differing needs, priorities and concerns, as well as the distinctive capacities and competences of women and men.
- Entails the exertion of all efforts for the building of consensus, especially on issues affecting everyone, whenever possible.
- Is transparent;

- Leads to decisions or agreements that are mutually acceptable and gainful to all individuals and sections of the organization.
- Transforms unequal relations – status, gender, sectors – into an equal, equitable and empowering one.

  To emphasize, the decision-making process in this cooperative ensures: a) equal access of women and men to sex-disaggregated information about the cooperative; b) equal participation of women and men in the deliberation of issues and making of decisions; and c) a consensus-building approach to decision-making. To do this, a gender-responsive cooperative does, among others, the following:
- Dissemination to all members of sex-disaggregated data about the conditions of the membership and the operations of the cooperative.
- Enhancement of the capacity of the leaders of the cooperative in facilitating a consensus building process.
- Raising the awareness of the members on their rights and obligations, and on the organizational structure of the cooperative.
- Enhancement of the capacity of the members in participating in a consensus building process.

D. Cooperative Legislation and Policies

A gender-responsive cooperative thrives with gender-responsive cooperative legislation and policies. Cooperative legislation and policies can be said to be gender responsive when it promotes:

- The use of sex-disaggregated data in analyzing the conditions of members and communities;
- Equal and equitable representation of women and men in all levels of the structures of the cooperative.
- A decision-making process which upholds the principles of transformative power.

E. Impact of a Gender-Responsive Cooperative includes:

- Formation of self-confident and assertive women. Women, with their willingness and confidence in taking on leadership roles and tasks, are able to represent women's voice in the decision making bodies of the cooperative.
- Willingness of men to share power with women not only in the cooperative, but also in the households. Men are more willing to do work in the households.
- Economic independence of women, and more economic growth for the cooperative;
- Better relationship among members of the cooperative and among family members.
- Development and availability of more options for personal growth for both women and men.

Leadership Training Manual for Women Leaders of Cooperatives

MODULE

3

Self-Transformation

MODULE 3
Self-Transformation

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MODULE 3
Self-Transformation

Overview

I. OBJECTIVES

This module aims to:

1. Guide the trainees in determining their own personal strengths and weaknesses, as well as their training needs and the kind of environment they need for their development as incumbent and potential leaders of cooperatives.
2. Encourage the participants to acknowledge and harness their knowledge, skills and attitude, and to move towards the actualization of their leadership potentials.
3. Introduce to the participants a concept on the road towards self-transformation, which stresses the importance of self-awareness, self-acceptance and self-responsibility and assertiveness,

   This module has only one session carrying the title of the module, “Self-Transformation”.

II. CONTENTS

The session is divided into two parts.

The first part has three activities. These activities are titled, respectively:

1. Revisiting Gender Myths
2. My Pie of Life
3. Removing Barriers to Action

The second part has three activities as well. These activities are titled, respectively:

1. Qualities of an Effective Cooperative Leader
2. My Strengths and Weaknesses as a Member and a Potential/Incumber Leader of my Cooperative
3. Removing Barriers to Action

Both parts are designed to be conducted in approximately 8 hours.

Self-Transformation

MAIN MESSAGE

For women to win elective posts in cooperatives and effectively perform their leadership roles, they ought to have and to exude a basic confidence and belief in their own individual capacities and worth, and also to humbly accept and acknowledge the criticality of the roles, capacities and worth of other women and men as well. These qualities can be developed if women have a deep level of awareness of their own individual strengths and limitations, and a will to continually actualize and transform their potentials.

To help women-participants attain this level of personal development, this session presents to them a roadmap towards self-transformation. The road has three areas, where travelers have to stop to reach their destination. These are:

- Self-Awareness
- Self-Acceptance
- Self-Responsibility and Assertiveness.

For women-participants to journey into these key places of the road towards self-transformation, this session provides them with tools for the assessment of their personal strengths and weaknesses as incumbent and potential leaders of cooperatives, with guides to facilitate self-acceptance, and with keys to the development of self-responsibility and assertiveness, and, thereby, their attainment of self-transformation.

Though this module focuses on individual woman's actions towards self-development, it does not, however, negate the importance of the role of the environment in women's personal development and empowerment.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to:

1. Provide the trainees with tools and guides for self-awareness, and for the development of self-acceptance, self-responsibility and self-assertiveness.
2. Facilitate the trainees' discovery or enhanced awareness of their strengths and limitations, and the factors that help and hinder their assumption of leadership positions in cooperatives.

Time Requirements: Approximately eight hours

Introduction of the session: 5 minutes

First Part: 4 hours

1. Activity #1: Revisiting Gender Myths: At least 90 minutes
2. Activity #2: My Pie of Life: At least 60 minutes

3. Activity #3: Removing Barriers to Action: At least 90 minutes

Second Part: 3 ½ hours

1. Activity #1: Qualities of an Effective Cooperative Leader: 30 minutes
2. Activity #2: My Strengths and Weaknesses as a Member and a Potential/Incumbent Leader of my Cooperative: 90 minutes
3. Activity #3: Removing Barriers to Action: 90 minutes

Integration and Closing: (30 minutes)

Lecturette: 15 minutes

Quick Check: 15 minutes

Materials Required:

1. Copies of the following self-awareness tools: a) My Pie of Life; b) Removing Barriers to becoming an Empowered Woman; c) Assessment of Strengths and Weaknesses as Member and Potential/Incumbent Leader of Cooperative; and d) Removing Barriers to becoming an Effective Cooperative Leader
2. 8" x 3" idea cards of three colors: yellow, blue and green.
3. Board and markers.
4. Manila papers, tapes and pens.
5. Visual aids
6. Overhead projector

Steps:

For mood setting, you may invite the participants to relax their bodies, starting from their heads to their feet, and their minds by keeping away worries and other distracting concerns momentarily. Have a one minute of silence after these words of relaxation. Then give an introductory statement to the session. You may explain the objectives of the session.
This session is divided into two main parts. The first part will deal with the development of the participants as women; and the second part will deal with their development as leaders.

First Part: Development As Women

This part of the session has three sections, namely:

a) Formulation of a list of qualities of an empowered woman.

b) Assessing how one spends her time

c) Removing Barriers to Action

Activity #1: Formulation of a list of qualities of an empowered woman (90 minutes)

1. Instruct the individual participants to review the gender myths they identified during the first session of the first module of this manual, "Gender Socialization and Culture." Aside from these myths, they may think of more traditional **"shoulds"** or roles of women at home, in the workplaces and in their communities which they may write in the following matrix:

	Households	Workplaces	Communities
Gender myths			

2. Once all the participants have completed their listing of their gender myths, which refer to one's gender stereotypes of women, form them into small groups with 6 members each. Then, instruct the members of a group to share their gender myths to their group mates and, as a group, to change or transform them into the qualities of an empowered woman. An empowered woman is one who recognizes her equal worth and capacity as well as her right to equal access to and control of resources with men and other women. Since the "productive-reproductive divide" has been experienced to be a cause and effect of gender inequality, this problem should hence be tackled and resolved in the list of qualities of an empowered woman. Examples of qualities of an empowered woman are the following:

	At home	Workplaces	Communities
Empowered Women	Assert for a sharing of responsibilities in taking care of children and household works with men, especially in situations where both of them are involved in productive work.	Confidently share their competencies and give their best efforts for the achievement of the goals of their work. To effectively do this, they actively participate in decision-making processes affecting their workplace.	Being a significant and critical part of the community, women work hand-in-hand with men for the development and governance of their communities.

3. After all groups have developed their list of qualities of an empowered woman,

reconvene them for a plenary sharing. Synthesize their lists of qualities of an empowered woman, and this synthesis will serve as the big group's list of qualities of an empowered woman.

Activity #2: My Pie of Life (60 minutes)

1. As a way of linking this activity with the previous activity, you may say:

   "In the previous activity, we were able to develop a list of qualities of an empowered woman. As a way of assessing where we are now vis-à-vis these qualities, we will now be looking at how we spend our time or our lives – if indeed we are able to manage our time and our lives to develop and live up to these qualities."

2. Introduce the tool entitled, "My Pie of Life," (see attached Self-Awareness Tool #1) with which the participants will assess how they spend their time.

   Tell them that this is a very important self-awareness exercise because information surfaced from this exercise will help them reflect on how to move from where they are now to the kind of life they want to have, that is of being an empowered woman. Give them 20 minutes to do this exercise. If they need more time, you may extend the time for the exercise to 30 minutes.

3. Form the participants into triads, and give the members of the triads thirty to forty-five minutes to share their "life inventories".

4. Plenary sharing will be done after the next exercise. You may hence proceed to the next activity once all triads have finished their sharing.

Activity #3: Removing Barriers to Action (90 minutes)

1. Introduce the tool, "Removing Barriers to Action", (see attached Self-awareness Tool #2) where each trainee will be asked to identify factors within and outside of herself which hinder her holistic growth as an empowered woman. Give them another twenty minutes to answer this tool.

2. When the trainees have completed Self-Awareness tool #2, then tell them to go back to their triads.

3. Give each triad thirty minutes to share the results of their answers to the tool, "Removing Barriers to Action". Then ask them to prepare to share to the big group the highlights of their sharing on the two tools, "My Pie of Life" and "Removing Barriers," specifically their common strengths and weaknesses, and the common factors in the environment which help and hinder their witnessing of the scripts of empowered women.

4. Give each triad five minutes to present the highlights of their sharing to the big group.

5. End the session by stressing on the importance of self-awareness, self-acceptance and self-responsibility to their personal growth and to their development as a woman and a person. For this, you may use the first paragraph of "The Main Message" of this session guide.

Second Part: Development as Leaders

Open the second part of this session by saying:

> "An indication of an empowered woman is her willingness and capability to take on leadership roles together with other women and men. One area where women can make a difference is in her organization. In our particular situation, this relates to our cooperatives. Leadership in cooperatives, however, entails leadership qualities different from those required in other fields, such as in national governance, and others. In this session, hence, we will discuss and reflect on the requirements of leadership in cooperatives."

Then explain that this second part of the session has three parts:

- Listing of qualities of an effective leader of a cooperative.
- Assessment of one's own strengths and weaknesses as members and potential/ incumbent leaders of cooperatives;
- Removing barriers to becoming an effective leader of a cooperative

Activity #1: Qualities of an Effective Leader (30 minutes)

1. Convene the participants in the plenary hall and give each of them three idea cards (8" x 3" size) of different colors – yellow, blue, and green.
2. Tell them to write on the yellow idea card, a KNOWLEDGE which an effective leader of a cooperative should have. (One card must contain only one idea.) Then, on the blue idea card, tell them to write an ATTITUDE which an effective leader of a cooperative should have; then on the green idea card, a SKILL that every leader of cooperatives should have.
3. When each one has written a knowledge, attitude and skill on the yellow, blue and green cards respectively, then invite them to paste their cards on the assigned board.
4. When all the cards are on the board, group the cards with similar ideas. Then, make a summary. If the participants have other ideas which are not yet on the board, give them more cards: yellow for knowledge, blue for attitude and green for skills. Remind them to write only one idea in each card. Then tell them to paste these cards on the board.
5. Group all similar cards, then make a summary. At the end of the activity, you will have hence a list of knowledge, attitude and skills that a leader of a cooperative should have to become effective. You may add more qualities which, you think, the participants missed. You may use the attached reference material as a guide.

Activity #2: My Strengths and Weaknesses as a Member and Potential/ Incumbent Leader of My Cooperative (90 minutes)

1. Present the tool (See attached Self-awareness Tool #3) which is a questionnaire that assesses each trainee's level of involvement in their cooperatives, and their responses

to, and hence, their strengths and weaknesses in the face of, different situations and challenges of leadership positions in cooperatives.

2. Give the participants thirty minutes to answer the questionnaire, and individually analyze their answers. In analyzing their answers, the participants will identify their strengths and weaknesses as members and potential/incumbent leaders of their cooperatives based on their answers to the questionnaire vis-à-vis the qualities of an effective leader of a cooperative.
3. When all participants have completed their tasks, then instruct them to go back to their triads (same triads of the first part of this session) for sharing. In the triads, the other members may help a member identify more areas of strengths and weaknesses based on her answers to the questionnaire.
4. After the triad sharing, give the participants 10 minutes to individually and silently reflect on her strengths and weaknesses of the activity, and to say to herself that she will act on these strengths and weaknesses. After this silent reflection, you may now proceed to the next activity.

Activity #3: Removing Barriers to Becoming an Effective Leader of my Cooperative (90 minutes)

1. Give the participants the tool, "Removing Barriers To Action," the same tool used in the first part of this session. This time, the focus will be on barriers to becoming an effective leader of a cooperative.
2. Give them 20 minutes to answer the tool. Their answers can be the same as those in the first session.
3. When all participants have completed answering the tool, then ask them to go back to their triads for sharing. This time, however, one triad will join with another triad. Hence, each small group will have six members. Tell each group to help their members sharpen their identification of their barriers to action, and the necessary steps to remove these barriers.
4. When all groups have completed the tasks, then instruct them to integrate the results of the two activities: "My Strengths and Weaknesses as a Member and Potential/ Incumbent Leader of My Cooperative," and "Removing Barriers to Becoming an Effective Leader of my Cooperative." In this integration, the groups must list their common strengths and weaknesses, and their common barriers to becoming effective leaders and steps to reduce the barriers, as well as those that are particular or unique to some of their members.

To integrate the two parts of this session and all of the activities, ~~you may~~ give an input on the road map to self-transformation. You may use the reference material provided in this manual.

Then finally, distribute the quick check forms to the participants. Give them fifteen minutes to answer the form individually.

Caution/Hints/Tips:

Some participants may not be comfortable with this type of sessions. They may participate in

the individual reflection or assessment exercises, but they may not be prepared to share their personal reflections and assessment to anyone. If this is the case, then encourage them to share but don't force them. For instance, you may request them to share only those portions which they are prepared to divulge to others. Moreover, to maximize the impact of the session, you may encourage the participants to write in any writing materials, such as notebooks or journals, their self-reflections.

Variation:

You may choose other activities, not found in this module, and tools, instead of writing in idea cards or notebooks/journals, which you think are more effective in facilitating the self-awareness and self-transformation processes of women in your culture.

Quick Check:

As an initial checking of the experiences of the participants with this session, you may ask them the following questions:

1. Did the session help you become more aware of your self?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Comment

2. If yes, how did it help you?

   What new things did you learn about yourself? _____

   _____

   _____

   What views of your self were affirmed? _____

   _____

   _____

3. Based on the results of this session, do you think you can be an effective leader of your cooperative? Why? _____

   _____

   _____

4. If no or you don't have any comment on the session, why? _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. How can we further improve the session? _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

Self Development Tool #1

The Pie of Life

Purpose:

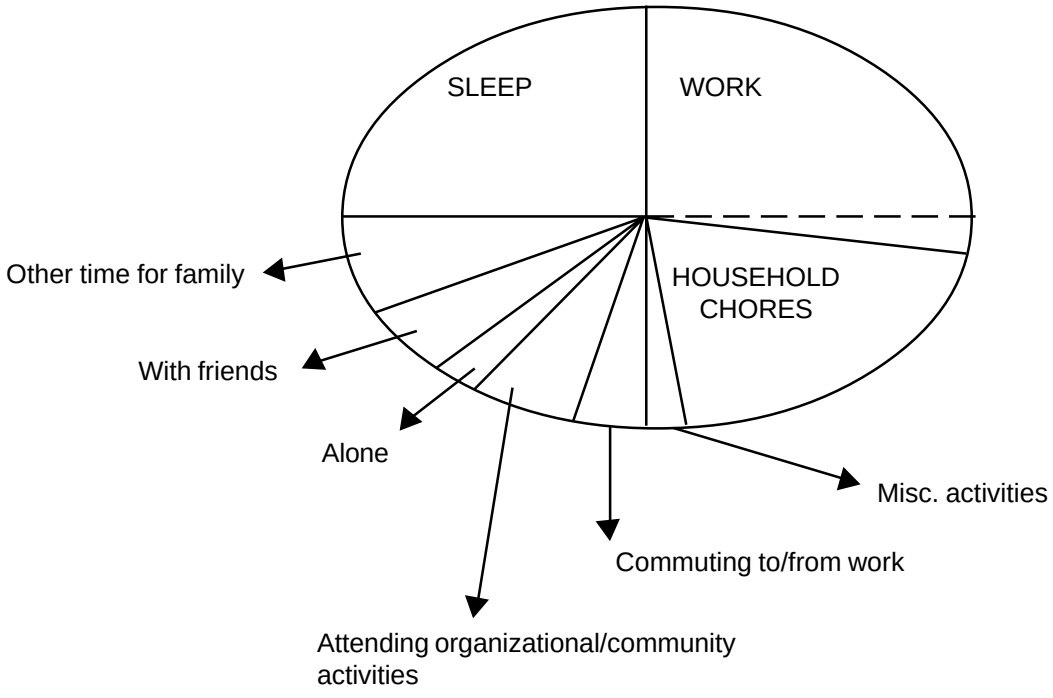
This tools asks the trainees to make an inventory of their lives — to see how they actually do spend their time, money and so on. The Pie of Life can raise some thought-provoking questions about how the trainees live their lives. This information is needed if they hope to move from what they are now to what they want to be.

Procedure

Draw a large circle on a sheet of paper to represent your different involvements. Now look at how you use a typical day Divide your circle into four quarters using dotted lines. Each slice represents six hours. Estimate how many hours or parts of an hour you spend on each of the following areas on a typical day. How many hours do you spend:

1. At work, at a job that earns you money?
2. Commuting to work?
3. On chores around the house;
4. With family, including mealtimes?
5. On sleep?
6. With friends, socializing?
7. Alone, playing, reading, watching TV?
8. Attending organizational/ community activities?
9. On miscellaneous other pastimes?

Your estimates will not be exact, but they should add up to twenty-four, the number of hours in everyone's day. Draw slices in your pie to represent proportionately the part of the day you spend on each category. Your pie may look something like this:



Now reflect on these questions and write about them in your self-reflection journal:

1. Are you satisfied with the relative sizes of your slices?
2. Ideally, how big would you want each slice to be? Draw your ideal pie.
3. Realistically, is there anything you can do to begin to change the size of some of your slices?

If time permits, take one segment (for example, FAMILY) and make another pie to break down the time spent in that category. For example, if the whole family pie represents five or six hours, plot a typical family "day", putting in the time for meals, play, working together, praying, socializing, watching TV, and so on — whatever you do as a family. You might do one pie for a typical weekday and another one for a typical Sunday.

After each pie is executed, the above questions are again addressed.

NOTE: There is no right way to divide up a pie. Each of us lives a different life. There is no implication that it is necessary to change the time devoted to any specific category. The focus is on inventorying and looking at your life more closely. Any decisions to change are up to you.

There are many things that can be looked at in terms of slices of the pie of life, for example, a pie on where the money goes each week, on the music you listen to, the books, magazines and newspapers you read, the people who visit your home, and others.

In addition to being a factual inventory of your lives, the Pie of Life can ask for a subjective inventory. For example, you can plot the proportions of the day that you feel HIGH, NEUTRAL or LOW. Or a WORK pie can be drawn to show the portions that are CREATIVE, INTERESTING, DULL but important, and BUSYWORK (dull and relatively unimportant).

Whenever you examine how you divide a pie of life now, as you are actually living it, the inevitable and important follow-up questions can be asked: "How would I ideally like to divide this pie?"

Source:
Simon, B.S., Howe, L. W., Kirschenbaum, H. (1995). Values Clarification: A Practical, Action-Directed Workbook. pp. 178 - 181. New York: Warner Books.

Self-Development Tool # 2

Removing Barriers to Becoming an Empowered Woman

Purpose:

This tool is designed to help the participants identify and remove barriers to action that often block and plague their development as empowered women.

Procedure:

Write at the top of a paper some action you would like to take or decision you would like to make (e.g. to become empowered woman at home, in the workplace and in the community). It should be an action you are having some difficulty taking or that you fear to take. Then draw a line lengthwise down the middle of the paper. On the left-hand side of the paper, list all perceived or real barriers within and outside of yourself, that seem to be keeping you from acting. On the right-hand side of the paper, list steps you could take that might help remove or reduce each of the barriers.

In the triads, members can help one another think of ways to remove their barriers to action.

Your paper should like the one below.

GOAL: TO BECOME AN EMPOWERED WOMAN AT HOME, WORKPLACE AND COMMUNITY	
Barriers	***Steps to Removing the Barrier***
Barrier #1:	Steps to Removing Barrier #1
Barrier #2:	Steps to Removing Barrier #2
Barrier #3:	Steps to Removing Barrier #3:
Barrier #4:	Steps to Removing Barrier #4:
others	

Source:

Simon, B.S., Howe, L. W., Kirschenbaum, H. (1995). Values Clarification: A Practical, Action-Directed Workbook. pp. 178 - 181. New York: Warner Books.

Self Development Tool #3

Assessment of One's Level of Involvement in Cooperative and Leadership Capability

A. Level of Involvement in Cooperative

1. When did you become a member of your cooperative? _____
2. How did you become a member? _____
   _____
3. Why did you join this cooperative? What benefits did you expect to derive from joining?
   _____
4. Assess your level of involvement in your cooperative since you joined it:
   a) Review your attendance in the key activities of your cooperative.

Key Activities of the Cooperative	Total Number of Times Activity was conducted since you joined	Your attendance in these activities			
		Attended		Not Attended	
		No.*	%	No.**	%
1. General Assemblies					
2. Special Meetings					
3.					
4.					
5.					

* Number of times you attended the activity.

** Number of times you did not attend.

   b) What factors motivated you to attend activities? _____
   _____
   _____

   c) What were your reasons for not attending activities? _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

   d) What do you think are your key contributions to your cooperative? _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

e) What benefits do you get from being involved in your cooperative? _____
_____
_____

f) What other contributions can you give to your cooperative? _____
_____
_____

g) What factors hindered you from giving these additional contributions? _____
_____
_____

B. Capability to Respond to the Challenges of Leadership in Cooperatives

Please give your position on each statement by checking on the appropriate box:

1. The presiding officer has just sent a communication saying that she is sick and cannot make it to the meeting of one of the committees of your cooperative. As the one who arrived the earliest, you have been requested to take over and facilitate this meeting. What are you going to do?

   ☐ 5 Yes, I will immediately accept the task, and run the meeting of the committee

   ☐ 4 Yes, I will accept the task, but will tell them that I need help because I am not very skilled in facilitating meetings.

   ☐ 3 Yes, I will accept the task, but only if no other person accepts the task.

   ☐ 2 No, I will tell them to let me first observe the facilitation of this meeting. Then I will agree to facilitate if same problem arises in future meetings.

   ☐ 1 No, I will not accept the task because I don't think I am capable of running meetings.

2. I have great difficulty turning down requests for favors (Please tick the box which best describes your assessment of your self in regard this statement).

   ☐ 5 Strongly disagree

   ☐ 4 Slightly disagree

   ☐ 3 Can't tell

   ☐ 2 Slightly agree

   ☐ 1 Agree

3. I feel uneasy to disagree with people in authority. (Please tick the box which best describes your assessment of your self in regard this statement).

   ☐ 5 Strongly disagree

   ☐ 4 Slightly disagree

   ☐ 3 Can't tell

   ☐ 2 Slightly agree

   ☐ 1 Agree

4. When your cooperative is faced with a problem, what do you usually do? (Please tick appropriate box.)

☐ 5 I gather information on the problem, analyze it, then join meetings to discuss the problem, propose solutions, and participate in the decision-making process on how to address the problem.

☐ 4 I gather information on the problem, analyze it, then discuss this with another member or leader hoping that this person articulates this view in the meeting. I tend to speak in the meeting only when asked.

☐ 3 I gather information on the problem, analyze it, and attend meetings only to listen to the views of other people, and observe their process of handling or resolving the problem. I tend not to speak because people might laugh at or reject my views and suggestions.

☐ 2 I attend meetings to listen to the views of other people on the problem. I don't gather information nor analyze the problem because I don't know how to do it.

☐ 1 I simply wait for the decisions of officers on the problem. I don't see my attendance in meeting as necessary.

5. A member of the cooperative complains that one of the staff has been very rude on the telephone. If you were the manager, what are you going to do?

☐ 5 I 'll talk to the concerned staff, get him/her to see the problem, if any that s/he has created, listen to her perspective the problem. Then, we'll discuss and agree on the appropriate actions.

☐ 4 I'll ask my staff to explain to me the problem, call up the client and apologize.

☐ 3 I'll scold my staff and demand the s/he apologizes at once.

☐ 2 I'll scold my staff and warn him/her that is s/he is rude again I'll fire him/her.

☐ 1 It is better not to do anything about the problem, and to let time heal the wound; OR I'll immediately fire my staff.

6. You were invited by the head of your village to share in a village assembly, where top politicians, and foreign visitors are expected to attend, your learning from this training. What are you going to do?

☐ 5 I will gladly accept the invitation and ask for the permission of my cooperative to share my learning and experiences from this training to the village assembly.

☐ 4 I will tell my village head that I will relay the invitation to my cooperative, and it is up to my cooperative to decide on who to send to this village assembly. I will then convince the Board of my cooperative to, as much as possible, find another more articulate leader or member who attended this training. If my cooperative will, however, insist that I go, then I will abide by their decision.

☐ 3 I will tell my village head that I will relay the invitation to my cooperative, and it is up to my cooperative to decide on who to send to this village assembly. I will then tell the Cooperative Board to find another person, and to allow

me to have more time to gather more self-confidence. In next similar type of activity, I promised them that I will take on the task.

☐ 2 I will tell my village head that I will relay the invitation to my cooperative, and it is up to my cooperative to decide on who to send to this village assembly. I will then tell the Cooperative Board to find another person and never to assign to me this kind of task.

☐ 1 I will think of alibis to say that I will not be available for the said assembly. I don't think I have the courage to face such kind and number of people.

7. The manager presents to the Cooperative Board, of which you are a member, updates on problems faced by the cooperative on financial management, budgeting and marketing. What are you going to do?

☐ 5 Based on my substantial knowledge of financial management, budgeting and marketing, I will ask questions and clarifications from the manager, make recommendations on how to address the situation, and participate in the building of consensus on the most appropriate solution to the situation.

☐ 4 Suggest to the Board to suspend any discussion on the problem until the next meeting. Before the next meeting, I will study concepts on financial management, budgeting and marketing to make my analysis and recommendations more substantive.

☐ 3 I will analyze and give recommendations based on my very limited knowledge of financial management, budgeting and marketing.

☐ 2 I will simply listen to the discussion of the other members of the Board and the manager, and apologize for my lack of knowledge and skills in the topic.

☐ 1 I will tell the Board to let the manager take care of this matter because the Board is not capable of making any comment or suggestion on the problem, for lack of training on the topic.

8. Imagine yourself attending a meeting of the Board of your cooperative. Another member of the Board, looking tense and angry, immediately reprimands you for something , he said, you forgot to do but in fact was not clear to you. What are you going to do?

☐ 5 If I am not yet emotionally prepared to tackle the problem, I will ask for a moment of silence, and a moment of thinking and reflecting. If a short silence is not enough, I will ask for more time. But when emotionally ready, I will ask for a dialogue on the issue to clarify the problem, share perspectives and emotions on the issue in a manageable way, and agree on the necessary actions that must be undertaken to resolve the problem.

☐ 4 I will ask questions to clarify the accusation, and immediately apologize for the sake of smooth interpersonal relationship in the cooperative.

☐ 3 I will ask questions to clarify the accusation, but I will not do anything to resolve the problem because I am not used to this kind of situation. It will be better, I think, to let time heal and forget.

☐ 2 Though I want to burst out, I will keep silent during the meeting. But after the meeting, I will confront that person and fight back.

☐ 1 I will shout back at him/ her, and on top of my voice, I will tell him/her that s/ he has no right to treat me in that way; or cry and walk-out of the meeting, and swear never again to attend meetings if that person is around.

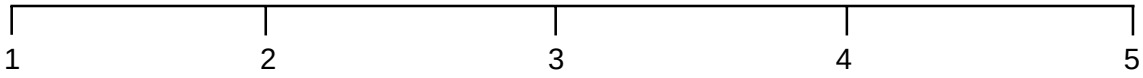
Guide in Analyzing Answers:

A. Assessment of Level of Involvement in Cooperative

Based on your answers to the first part of this instrument, please identify the helping and hindering factors to your full active involvement in your cooperative.

B. Capability to Respond to Challenges of Cooperative Leadership

As shown here, answers 1 to 5 indicate your level of preparedness and capability to do a leadership task, with #1 the weakest and #5 the strongest. Hence, in one extreme, an answer of #1 indicates that one's capacity is still very weak in this area. In the other extreme, an answer of #5 indicates that one's capacity in this area is very strong.



Weakness Strengths

Statement #1:	Capacity to run meetings.
Statement #2 & #3:	Assertiveness
Statement #4:	Problem Solving capacity
Statement #5:	Conflict management/resolution capacity
Statement #6:	Public speaking and networking capacity
Statement #7:	Technical Skills in organizational and business management
Statement #8:	Emotional management

Based on your answers on the above eight statements, please identify your strengths and weaknesses in the areas of knowledge, skills and orientation on:

1. Running meetings
2. Asserting yourself
3. Problem solving
4. Conflict management/resolution
5. Public speaking and networking
6. Technical skills in organizational and business management
7. Management of emotions

Knowledge: depth of understanding of concepts

Skills: capacity to use or apply the concepts in actual situations

Orientation: degree of self-confidence, and willingness to enhance or learn and apply the skill.

Self Development Tool #4

Removing Barriers to Effective Leadership in Cooperatives

Purpose:

This tool is designed to help the participants identify and remove barriers to action that often block and plague their development as leaders of their cooperatives.

Procedure:

Write at the top of a paper some action you would like to take or decision you would like to make (e.g. to become an effective leader of my cooperative). It should be an action you are having some difficulty taking or that you fear to take. Then draw a line lengthwise down the middle of the paper. On the left-hand side of the paper, list all perceived or real barriers within and outside of yourself, that seem to be keeping you from acting. On the right-hand side of the paper, list steps you could take that might help remove or reduce each of the barriers.

In the triads, members can help one another think of ways to remove their barriers to action.

Your paper should like the one below.

GOAL: TO BECOME AN EFFECTIVE LEADER OF MY COOPERATIVE	
Barriers	**Steps to Removing the Barrier**
Barrier #1:	Steps to Removing Barrier #1
Barrier #2:	Steps to Removing Barrier #2
Barrier #3:	Steps to Removing Barrier #3:
Barrier #4:	Steps to Removing Barrier #4:
others	

Source:

Simon, B.S., Howe, L. W., Kirschenbaum, H. (1995). Values Clarification: A Practical, Action-Directed Workbook. pp. 178 - 181. New York: Warner

Trainers' Reference Material #1

Qualities Of An Effective Cooperative Leader

In human resource development, a person's character and attitudes are described in three dimensions: the cognitive or mental development, the affect or emotional development, and behavioral development. The same person-description is popularly used in many training programs. Usually, the term, knowledge development, is used for cognitive development; the term, attitudinal or orientation development, for the affective aspect; and skills development for behavioral development.

To describe the qualities of an effective cooperative leader, the same dimensions shall be viewed. The terms to be used, however, are those which trainers are more familiar with.

I. Knowledge Development

Knowledge development refers to the acquisition of information and know-how on certain topics, and the processing and internalization of these information and know-how into something that guide the actions of a person. The highest form of knowledge is wisdom, which is knowledge transformed to become one's own framework and philosophy of life.

To become an effective leader of a cooperative, a woman is challenged to acquire the following basic knowledge: (Each is discussed extensively in the different modules of this manual; and will not, hence, be further explained.)

1. Definition, values and principles of a cooperative.
   Knowledge of the ICA Statement of Cooperative Identify and other definitions of cooperatives can help acquire this knowledge.
2. Fundamentals of cooperatives
   Fundamentals of cooperatives include the types and services of cooperatives, cooperative structure and basic operations, legislations and policies, and other information that will help the woman-leader have a full-grasp of the business operations of the cooperative. This includes a knowledge of organizational and project management and development.
3. Gender concepts and approaches
   The knowledge of gender concepts and approaches include the understanding of the manifestations of gender bias in societies of the members and in the cooperative itself, and on how to address them. This knowledge is viewed to help the leader optimally mobilize the competencies of women- and men-leaders and members for the achievement of the goals of the cooperative.

Aside from the above list of knowledge, you may add more basic topics which you think every woman-leader should know.

II. Attitudinal and orientation development

Attitudinal and orientation development refers to the way a leader relates or interacts with her own self and with other people, as well as to the way she regards herself, other people and her work in the cooperative.

The following are among the personal qualities that may fall under this category.

1. Personal integrity
   - Assumes strong moral responsibility toward those whom she leads.
   - Keeps the binding together of a group or team through integrity.
   - Sets moral tone and value system for the rest of those who are being led.
2. Determination
   - Takes repeated or different actions to overcome an obstacle.
   - Makes personal sacrifice or expends extraordinary efforts to complete a given task or to achieve a pre-determined goal.
   - Has firmness of mind with own judgment in the face of opposition or early lack of success.
3. Courage
   - Exhibits bravery even under difficult situations.
   - Has patience in achieving the desired goal or in overcoming obstacles.
   - Displays inner strength in day-to-day decisions relating to any aspect.
4. Self-responsibility
   - Decides how good she wants to be, how hard she wants to work and how far she wants to go.
   - Takes responsibility for the setbacks when things don't workout as planned.
5. Understanding people
   - Pays attention to the human element in all situations.
   - Expresses consideration for human feelings, what motivates them, how they think and how they react.
   - Respects others' views and opinions.
6. Self-confidence
   - Believes in one's self.
   - Displays trust in one's own ability to complete a difficult task or meet a challenge.
7. Humility
   - Exhibits a modest behavior in dealing with people.
   - Has a simple, unassuming character which is attractive to others.
8. Openness
   - As an extension to self-integrity, remains explicit in all issues.
   - Makes frank expressions and provides frank explanations if questioned

III. Skills development

While attitudinal/orientation development refers to the character of the person, skills development, on the other hand, refers to the capacity of the woman – to what she is capable of doing.

Skills needed for a woman to be an effective leader are the following:

1. Thinking and planning ahead
   - Develops simple and clear thinking for the short and long terms. She is then skilled in developing gender responsive strategic and operational plans.
   - Believes that planning begins with self, followed by planning with other leaders and members for the organization or group being led.
   - Capacity to develop specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and time-bound plans.
   - Capacity to think of programs/projects and activities that will address the practical and strategic needs of women.
2. Making things happen
   - Has a kind of double vision to spot the talent and the essential person inside and allocates tasks accordingly.
   - Takes part actively in getting things done with the belief that one should set an example for others.
3. Calculated risk taking
   - Takes what is perceived to be moderate risks.
   - States a preference for situations that involve moderate risks.
4. Decision-making
   - Assesses the possible options and consequences prior to making decisions.
   - Shows keenness in making timely decisions.
   - Wants to be held accountable for decisions made.
5. Initiative taking
   - Makes the first attempt without waiting for others.
   - Believes in doing things even if they do not conform to past norms or have never been done in the past.
6. Creative and experimental
   - Thinks and acts beyond mind set boundaries
   - Trusts that change is necessary to meet the challenges in the environment.
   - Takes modest risk in experimenting the creative decision taken and will not hesitate to revert back if positive results are not achieved.
7. Conceptualizing
   - Has the ability to derive conclusions from past and present experiences as learnings for implementation in the future.
   - Focuses on development and progress rather than static status maintenance.
8. Listening and questioning
   - Believes that listening is the key to two-way communication.
   - Questions any unclarified issues to make sure that there are no doubts.
   - Respects others' views and expects open feedback for questions raised.
9. Team playing
   - Respects that she is part of a team.
   - Capable of facilitating meetings and discussions.
   - Has the ability to manage and solve conflicts that arise between or among team members, or between own self and other team members.
10. Monitoring and Evaluating
    - Facilitates regular participatory assessment of the level and trend of development of the organization.
    - Develops timely suggestions and actions on how to address deficiencies that will be identified in the operations.

You may add more skills in the list.

Trainers' Reference Material # 2

The Road to Self-Transformation

I. The Importance of Self-Awareness

The advocacy for gender equality and equity is a clear indication of the falling away of old traditions and structures, where women are regarded as inferior and subservient to men. With this growing questioning of the traditional view of women as limited in capacities and as mainly meant for household works, also comes the questioning of hierarchical structures of social organizations (traditionally dominated by men) as the most effective way of managing people. Indeed, the traditional authorities are beginning to lose respect and command. In their place, the values of equality, equity, and sharing of power are coming in as the more popular mode of interaction among people (e.g. women-men, leaders-members, managers-staff, etc.)

With this falling away of traditional structures, and the increasing demand for sharing of power and equity, people are more challenged and obliged to choose more and more aspects of their existence. While, before, customs and traditions impose on the people their social roles and the manner by which they would perform these roles, today people have more options on how to live their lives. For instance, in cooperatives, with the growing awareness of the effects of unequal gender relations on the achievement of the goals of cooperatives, women are now provided with more support and opportunities to become a more active part of the organization and to become a significant part of its decision-making bodies. To appropriately respond, women have to think of how these options will make a difference in their lives, and of how taking these options will make a difference in the lives of other people and in the whole organization and society, in general. The thinking starts with having a sense of reality, and with being aware of what it going on – within the self and in the social environment. As Nathaniel Branden (1997) said, "In aligning ourselves with reality as best we understand it, we optimize our chances of success." In stressing the importance of self-awareness, Branden said: (1997)

> When we begin to reflect on what it means to live consciously, we may find ourselves thinking in terms of paying attention to our environment, seeking to understand the world around us, looking for evidence that tells us if we are right or mistaken in our assumptions, searching out information that bears on our goals, learning more about our work, and other matters pertaining to the world external to self. That is all correct, but it is only half the story. The other half of living consciously has to do with self-awareness—with a concern to understand the inner world of needs, motives, thoughts, mental states, emotions, and bodily feelings.
>
> If the essence of rationality is respect for the facts of reality, that must include the facts of one's own being. Our inner world, too, is part of reality. Mind is as real as matter. No one can be said to be living consciously who exempts self-awareness and self-examination from the agenda.
>
> We all know people who are full of information about the external world and may be very observant in certain situations but who are utterly oblivious to their inner processes and the meaning of those processes. These people exist in an acute sense alienation. They have no interest concerning their own inner world—the world of needs, emotions—which often makes them ineffective in the external (social) world.
>
> If we are to function effectively, we must learn to look into two directions—to preserve contact with the world and with the self. For example, if we are to achieve some

particular goal, we need to know the objective requirements of a given situation and its emotional meaning to us. We need to know the facts and our appraisal of the facts. We need to know what we must do and what we feel about what we must do. In the literal moment of action, we may not choose to focus on our feelings (or we may, depending on circumstances), but as a rule, it is dangerous to be oblivious to the personal significance of situations.

II. The Process of Self-Transformation

The process of self-development can be likened to the process of tuning a guitar. (You may use other metaphors, which you and the participants are more familiar with.)

In tuning a guitar, one has first to know the STANDARD TUNE of each chord: That the top most base chord must be attuned to the musical note, MI; the next base cord (downward) to the note, LA; then the next chord to the note, RE; then the next chord to the note, SOL; then the next chord to the note, SI; and the last lowest chord to the note, MI. When played together, all the chords must, hence, resonate the combined sounds of the notes, MI-LA-RE-SOL-SI-MI. This is the STANDARD TUNE of the guitar chords. It is not, however, enough to know this. Rather, one also how to be familiar with the sounds of these notes. To know the sounds of these notes, one has to listen through her ears and her heart. Familiarity with the tune of these notes is developed by constantly listening to them.

The first step in tuning a guitar, hence, entails knowing and being familiar to the STANDARD TUNE of the six chords of the guitar, to which each chord will be respectively attuned.

In self-development, the STANDARD TUNE of the guitar chords symbolizes the principles, values, social norms to which one will attune oneself. For instance, the principles of gender equality and equity can serve as the STANDARD to which one will develop or pattern oneself. To be able to attune oneself to the principles of gender equity and equality, one must not only know the concepts, but must also learn them by heart.

After knowing the standard tune of each chord, the next step is to play each chord and check if it is attuned to the standard note. The process, hence, entails making a judgment on whether a chord is out-of-tune or not.

In self-development, the process of playing a chord and ascertaining if it is attuned to the standard chord symbolizes the process of examining oneself and making a judgment on whether the self lives the principles of gender equality and equity, for instance. Here, one makes a judgment of own strengths and weaknesses, or areas that need improving or further tuning.

When one has made a judgment on whether a chord is out-of-tune or not, the next step is to make a decision to attune the chord, which means turning its peg until the chord resonates the standard tune.

In self-development, when one has made a judgment of own strengths and weaknesses, then the next step is to take responsibility and action. That is, to recognize that the self has a choice to improve oneself or not. The challenge now is to enhance one's identified strengths and change areas that need improvement based on one's own understanding of life's principles, such as gender equality and equity.

After ensuring that all the chords of the guitar are attuned to the standard tune, the next step is to make use of the guitar – to play it and make a difference in the lives of people. While playing, some chords may get out-of-tune. If this happens, the process of tuning restarts.

In self-development, after one has acted towards self-transformation, then the self must be

used for one's own benefit and for the benefit of other people. In the process, a person may find the self to be needing more improvement to become more responsive to personal and social needs. Then the process of self-development again starts.

Just like the tuning of guitar, self-development is a never-ending process. In brief, the process entails the following:

- Understanding and embrace, by choice, of a life principle or a social norm, such as gender equality and equity.
- Self-examination to know if the self is attuned to the chosen life principle or social norms. This results into self-awareness.
- Self-acceptance which demands the acknowledgement of one's own strengths and weaknesses, vis-à-vis the chosen social norms or principles.
- Self-responsibility, which entails the recognition that one can choose the kind of live that s/he wants to live.
- Self-assertiveness, which entails dealing with other people on equal and equitable terms.
- Living life purposefully, which entails taking action for self-development and transformation, and making a difference in life.

Branden (1997) provides a view of the essence of these requirements of self-transformation.

- *The practice of self-acceptance*: the willingness to own, experience and take responsibility for our thoughts, feelings and actions, without evasion, denial or disowning – and also without self-repudiation; giving oneself permission to think one's thoughts, experience one's emotions and look at one's actions without necessarily liking, endorsing and condoning them, the virtue of realism applied to the self.
- *The practice of self-responsibility*: realizing that we are the author of our choices and action; that each one of us is responsible for our life and well-being and for the attainment of our goals; that if we need the cooperation of other people to achieve our goals, we must offer values in exchange; and that the question is not "Who's to blame?" but always "What needs to be done?" (What do I need to do?"
- *The practice of self-assertiveness*: being authentic in our dealings with others; treating our values and persons with decent respect in social contexts; refusing to fake the reality of who we are or what we esteem in order to avoid disapproval; the willingness to stand up for ourselves and our ideas in appropriate ways in appropriate contexts.
- *The practice of living purposefully*: identifying our short-tem and long-term goals or purposes and the actions needed to attain them (formulating an action plan); organizing behavior in the service of those goals; monitoring action to be sure we stay on track; and paying attention to outcome so as to recognize if and when we need to go back to the drawing board.
- The practice of personal integrity: living with congruence between what we know, what we profess, and what we do; telling the truth, honoring our commitments, exemplifying in action the values we profess to admire.

Reference:

Branden, N. (1997). The art of living consciously: The power of awareness to transform everyday life. USA: Simon & Schuster.

Leadership Training Manual for
Women Leaders of Cooperatives

MODULE

4

What is Expected of A Cooperative Leader

MODULE 4
What is Expected of A Cooperative Leader

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MODULE 4
What is Expected of A Cooperative Leader

Overview

I. OBJECTIVES

This module is a 16-hour-training activity which aims to:

1. Provide the trainees with theories that will help them be decisive with their leadership styles and actions.
2. Enhance the capacity of the participants in different basic skills needed of a cooperative leader.
3. Develop the confidence of the women-leaders in assuming leadership roles in cooperatives.

2. OVERVIEW OF MODULE UNITS

Units	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 1: Leadership Styles	1. To help the women trainees make an informed choice of their leadership styles. 2. To provide the trainees with opportunity to assess and reflect on their present leadership style vis-à-vis the call of the advocacy for gender equity and equality for a transformational type of leadership.	• Different leadership styles: their nature and their underpinning principles; • Transformational leadership as a type of leadership which upholds the integration of positive feminist and masculine traits in a leader or team of leaders, which recognizes the value of the representation of both women and men in leadership structures.	2 1/2 hours
Unit 2: Commun-ication	1. To enable the participants to recognize the skills in effective communication, particularly assertiveness, active listening, probing and feedback giving, as needed by all leaders advocating for gender equality and equity in cooperatives. 2. Equip the participants with knowledge and skills in effective communication. 3. Help the participants assess and enhance their capability in effective communication.	• Assertiveness • Active listening • Probing • Feedback Giving	4 hours

Units	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 3: How to Conduct Meetings	To enhance the skills of the participants in facilitating meetings by providing them with : 1. Knowledge on how to conduct meetings in accordance with the rules of formality — Robert's Rule of Meetings. 2. Tips on how to effectively prepare for, conduct and follow-up meetings. 3. Techniques on how to handle unhelpful types behavior during meetings.	• Key processes of meetings — what must be done before, during and after the meeting to effectively serve its purposes, including Robert's Rules of Meetings. • Effective ways of handling unhelpful types of behavior during meetings.	3 hours
Unit 4: Problem Solving & Decision Making	To help the participants: 1. Understand the importance of problem solving and decision making for effective leadership in cooperatives; 2. Develop knowledge on the systematic process of decision making and problem solving; 3. Effectively integrate the positive feminine and masculine traits in the problem solving process; 4. Be skilled in the application of systematic problem solving process in cooperatives.	• Definition of problem solving and decision making • Systematic process of problem solving and decision making • Application of this problem solving technique in cooperatives.	2 hours
Unit 5: Conflict Management/ Resolution	To help the participants to: 1. Effectively diagnose conflicts; 2. Choose the appropriate response to a conflict; and 3. Systematically negotiate for conflict management/ resolution.	• Conflict analysis • Different responses to conflict • Principles and techniques of negotiation	4 1/2 hours

UNIT 1
Leadership Styles

THE MAIN MESSAGE

Effective leaders are intentional in their actions. This means that their actions are informed by a sound analysis of the situation, are based on an intelligent choice of the best response — from an array of possible responses — to a situation, and are reflective of their values and principles. In other words, their actions are not baseless, are not chosen out of whims and are not arbitrarily done. And if every critical action is intentional, so with their leadership framework upon which their actions are hinged.

Because of the importance of helping women leaders be conscious of and be intentional with their leadership styles, this session deals with the following:

- Different leadership styles: their nature and their underpinning principles;
- Transformational leadership as a type of leadership which upholds the integration of positive feminist and masculine traits in a leader or team of leaders, which recognizes the value of the representation of both women and men in leadership structures, and with which, gender equality and equity in cooperatives can be achieved and sustained.

A review of the desired qualities of leaders of cooperatives discussed in module 3 will help enhance this session.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

1. To help the women-trainees make an informed choice of their leadership styles.
2. To provide the trainees with opportunity to assess and reflect on their present leadership style vis-à-vis the principles of gender equity and equality and of transformative leadership.

Time Requirement: three-and-a-half hours

1. Introduction: 15 minutes
2. Exercise: Paper Tower Building : 30 minutes
3. Processing of exercise: 45 minutes
4. Lecture and discussion: leadership styles: 60 minutes
5. Self-Reflection and sharing: 60 minutes

Materials Required :

1. 1 lead trainer and two assistant trainers
2. Old newspapers in bundles
3. Scissors according to the number of groups

4. Gum or any other pasting material
5. Card board
6. Cello-tape or masking tape in adequate quantity
7. Board
8. Marker pens
9. Handouts and visual aids on “Leadership”

Steps :

1. Ask the participants if they know of any tower in the country or outside the country. Get them to name a few.
2. Check if anyone has made or seen a paper tower.
3. Tell them that they are now going to construct a paper tower. Each one will be involved in its construction.
4. Divide the participants into six groups of 4-5 members and get them to sit together.
5. Request for a volunteer from each group to be the leader, or the group can choose a leader from among their members. Gather all the leaders in a place where their members cannot hear your instructions. The instruction is: Each leader will simulate a particular type of leader. Two leaders will simulate autocratic leaders; another two will act as democratic leaders, and the last two will simulate laissez faire leaders. Hence, two small groups will experience autocratic leadership, another two groups a democratic leadership, and the last 2 a laissez faire leadership. Give the leaders a written explanation of their respective roles, as follows:

Autocratic Leaders:
Leaders who tend to make unilateral decisions, dictate work methods of members, limit members’ knowledge about goals and the next steps to be performed, and gives punitive feedback.

Democratic Leaders
Leaders who tend to involve the group in decision making, let the group determine work methods, make overall goals known, and use feedback as an opportunity for helpful coaching.

Laissez Faire Leaders
Leaders who generally give the group complete freedom, avoid giving feedback, and tell the participants to think of their own answers to their questions when asked.

Remind the volunteer-leaders about the key to the success of the exercise – that is, their correct simulation of their assigned roles. Hence, plead to them not to divert from their roles even if they do not conform with their assigned leadership style. Tell them not to reveal as well the instruction, and to act spontaneously as if no instruction on their leadership roles was

given. Their roles will be revealed to their small groups only during the processing of the exercise.

6. When the volunteer leaders have returned to their small groups, explain to all the groups the exercise — that they will build a paper tower with the materials provided, and their paper towers will be judged based on the following factors:
   – Height of the tower; the taller it is the better it is judged.
   – Strength of the tower; the stronger it is the better it is judged and
   – Creativity; how creatively the tower has been built by the group under the leaders' supervision.
7. The time allocated for the activity is 20 minutes.
8. State that the leader is responsible for the performance of the team.
9. Assign different work areas for the working groups.
10. Give the signal for the groups to start.
11. While the groups are doing their tasks, the trainers should walk around to observe the different leaders' approaches in getting things done.
12. After the groups have completed the task, the trainers should evaluate the towers and determine the best one based on the cited criteria.
13. Process the exercise by asking the small groups the following questions:
    - Were you satisfied with your output — paper tower — and your process towards building this tower?
    - Why are you satisfied or not satisfied? What factors, do you think, helped or hindered the achievement of your goal?
    - What can you say about the role of your leader during the paper tower building? Were you satisfied with her leadership approach? Why?

    Write the answers of the small groups to the above questions on the board in the following format:

Groups	Satisfied with Output and Process?	Helping Factors	Hindering Factors	Leaders' role and contribution	Satisfied with leader's contribution?
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					

14. At this point, reveal to them the roles played by the volunteer leaders. You may read the written instruction given to each leader. Visual aids have been prepared for this purpose. Then deepen the discussion on the leadership roles by asking the small

groups the following questions:

- In what situations is a type of leadership effective, and in what situations is it not?
- Generally speaking, what type of leadership do you prefer? Why?
- Which one best supports the advocacy for gender equality and equity? Why?

You may write the answers to the above questions on the board in the following format:

	Situations where effective	**Situations where not effective**	**Generally preferred? Why?**	**Supports gender equality and equity? Why?**
Autocratic				
Laissez-Faire				
Democratic				

15. Expand the discussion of leadership styles by giving an input on the following:
    - Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership
    - Transformative Leadership
    - Review of qualities of leaders of cooperatives

    Reading materials and visual aids are provided in this manual to help you with this lecture.
16. After the lecture, give the participants ten minutes to silently reflect on the following questions:
    - Based on these concepts of leadership, what can you say about your own style as a leader? What kind of a leader are you? What type of leader do you aspire to be?
    - How is your chosen type of leadership related to the advocacy for gender equality and equity?
    - What improvements do you think must be done in your leadership styles?

    Tell them to write their answers on their journal.
17. Ask the participants to go back to their small groups for sharing. Give each group 45 minutes for sharing.
18. The distribute to the participants the quick check form of this session. Ask them to answer the questions and to submit their accomplished forms to the trainers.

Caution/Hints:

If there is a shortage of material for the building of paper towers, say that they should build their paper tower with the resources provided them. Therefore the leader should ensure that the task is accomplished within the framework of resource availability.

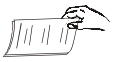
Variations :

Instead of paper tower, any other construction is possible. For example, a paper Christmas tree, a paper house etc. You may also use other types of materials, such as straws, sticks, etc.

Quick Check:

The quick check forms of this session will contain the following questions:

- What are the different types of leadership you learned from this session?
- Are you satisfied with the way the topic was discussed? Why? What are your suggestions for improving this session?

Handout #1 

Situational Leadership

This handout is an extract from a document titled Leader/Manager developed and distributed by the Manitoba Institute of Management, Canada with the assistance of Technonet Asia, Singapore in 1993

1. Introduction

What is the difference between an effective and an ineffective leader? Let's examine this question to discover the difference between effective and non-effective leadership behaviour.

For years, when people talked about leadership style, they identified three definitive types of leadership – autocratic, laissez-faire and democratic. Autocratic leadership was based on a position of power and the use of authority; laissez-faire type leadership was seen, at the other extreme, to give utmost freedom to the members, and hence, little, if not nil, control from the leaders; and democratic leadership was associated with inter-personal power where follower participation in problem solving and decision-making was practiced with the leader acting as participation facilitator. From this framework of studying and identifying leadership styles, a leader is seen to be espousing in clear-cut fashion any of the three types of leadership.

Nonetheless, further research done by Ken Blanchard and Paul Hersey, two researchers at the Centre for Leadership Studies at Ohio State University, has shown that leadership styles tend to vary from situation to situation and that it is not helpful to think about leadership as an either/or continuum. Their work has provided us with a very practical approach to examining what leaders do and what makes some more effective than others do. They call it Situational Leadership.

While developing the theory, extensive observations were made of managers in action. These observations were made on two groups of managers – those who were very effective in their job and those who were very ineffective. The observers, of course, didn't know whether they were observing the effective managers or the ineffective ones.

2. Types of Leadership Behaviours

The observations of Blanchard and Hersey of the behavior of managers in their study led to the classification of managerial behavior into two broad categories: the Directive Behaviour and the Supportive Behaviour.

- ***Directive Behaviour*** – Directive behaviour is defined as the extent to which a leader engages in one-way communication; spells out the followers role and tells the follower what to do, where to do it, when to do it, how to do it; and closely supervises performance.
- ***Supportive Behaviour*** – Supportive behaviour is defined as the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication, listens, provides support and encouragement, facilitates interaction, and involves the follower in decision-making.

3. Leadership Styles

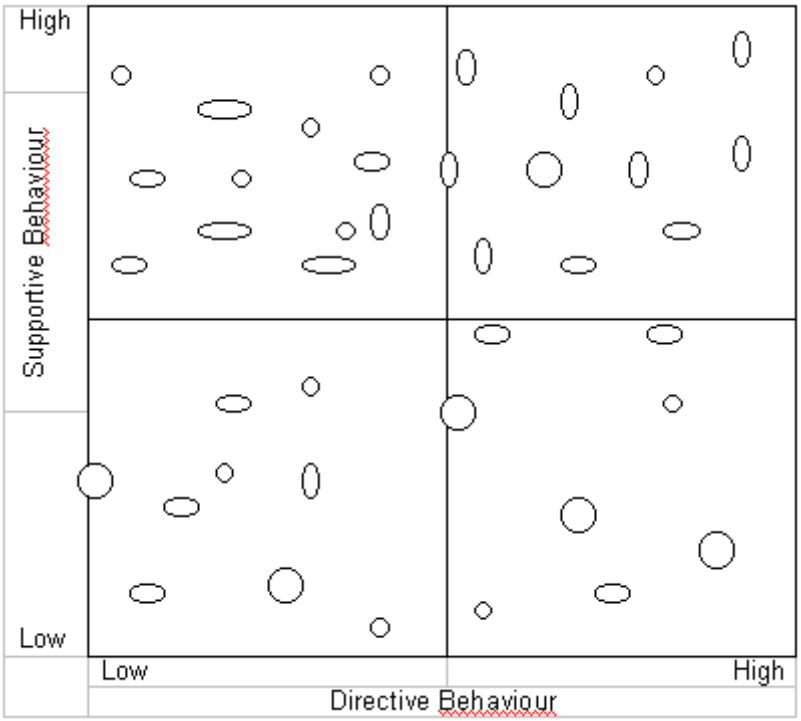
With these two categories of managerial behavior, leadership style can be defined in terms of the amount of directive and supportive behaviour which a leader exhibits. In the study of

Blanchard and Hersey, four distinct leadership styles were identified on the grid given in Exhibit 1 below.

Directive behaviour is identified along the horizontal axis, and supportive behaviour is represented along the vertical axis. In the study, this grid was used to plot leadership styles as they were observed among the managers in the study group.

EXHIBIT 1

Individual Patterns of Behaviour Identified in Situational Leadership



As the results came in the researchers realized that managerial behaviour could effectively be described through the use of four leadership styles – refer to grid in Exhibit 2.

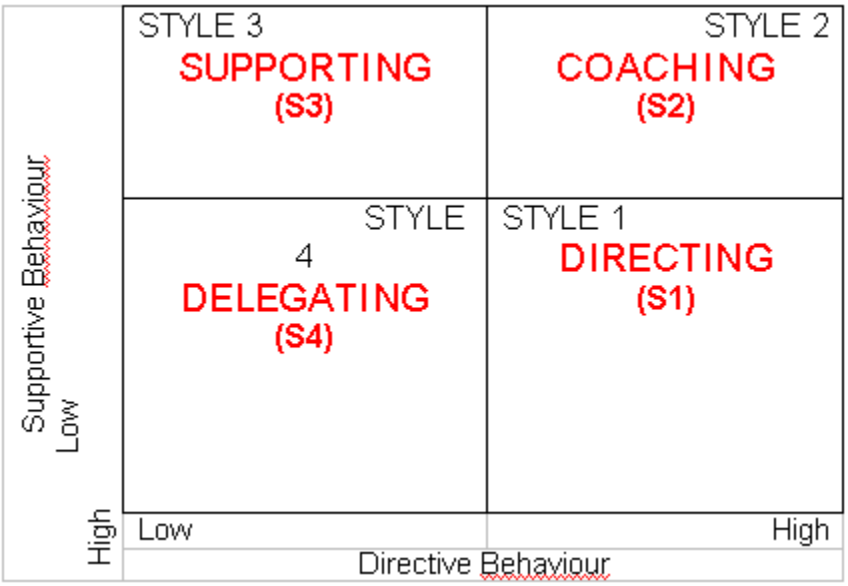
- ***Style 1: High Directive/Low Supportive*** - This style is described as the "tell" style of leadership. Leaders whose behaviour fit this pattern spend a higher than normal amount of time telling people what to do, when to do it, how to do it, etc. Their style is characterised by the use of very directive behaviour and a need to closely supervise the work being done. Solely the leader initiates problem solving and decision making. Solutions and decisions are announced to the followers.
- ***Style 2: High Directive/High Supportive*** - This style is described as the "consulting" style of leadership. Leaders who are observed to be using this style used a higher than average amount of both directive and supportive behaviours. That is they do not only tell people what to do and how to do it but they are also encouraging and warm toward the follower. The leader has now increased the amount of two-way communication and

supportive behaviour. She/he attempts to hear the followers' feelings about decisions as well as their ideas and suggestions. While support is increased, control over decision-making remains with the manager.

- ***Style 3: Low Directive/High Supportive*** - This style of leadership is labelled as the "participating" style. It is the opposite of style 1. In this style the amount of control the leader exercises over problem-solving and decision-making shifts significantly. Style 3 allows the leader and follower to share in problem solving and decision making. Two way communication is increased. The manager's role is to actively listen and facilitate problem solving on the part of the follower. The manager therefore is warm, encouraging, friendly and supportive but offers little in the way of direction.
- ***Style 4: Low Directive/Low Supportive*** - This style is called the "delegating style". Using this style the manager delegates all problem solving and decision making to the follower. The follower obtains significant control over how the work is to be done and is basically allowed to run his or her own show.

EXHIBIT 2

What the Leader Does in Situational Leadership



3. Which Style is Best?

   The observations that were made on the managerial behaviours yielded information about:

   - Which leadership styles were used by the effective managers, and
   - Which leadership styles did the ineffective managers use?

The researchers had hypothesized that Style 2 would be the one used by the effective managers most of the time. In other words, they considered that style as the "best" style.

The results were surprising. They found that the effective leaders showed no signs of favouring Style 2. In fact they could not distinguish the behaviour of the effective managers from that of the ineffective ones. There were effective managers who used each of the four styles and ineffective managers who used each of the styles as well. How could this be so?

Further study revealed that there were two major factors that seemed to make a difference between the way the effective managers behaved as opposed to the way the ineffective managers behaved.

First, it depends on conditions of high risk or emergency conditions. Whenever there was risk to personnel or property it was obvious that Style 1 worked the best. Style 1 demands directive behaviour on the part of the leader. It is apparent that when danger is involved, people need a leader who can take charge.

Second, it depends on the skill level and motivation of the followers. The lower the level of skill and motivation, the more likely Style 1 and Style 2 would be effective. The higher the level of skill and motivation, the more likely Style 3 or 4 would be effective.

4. Assessing an Employee's Development Level

It was mentioned above that the most important considerations that the leader must make when choosing a leadership style are the skill and motivation of the follower. We call this the development level of the follower.

- ***Skill Level or Can the Follower do the Work?***

  Here we are talking about the follower's skill, knowledge and abilities to do a specific task. This can vary from task to task since it is common for a follower to be very skilled in one task and not so skilled in another.

- ***Motivation Level or Will the Worker do the Work?***

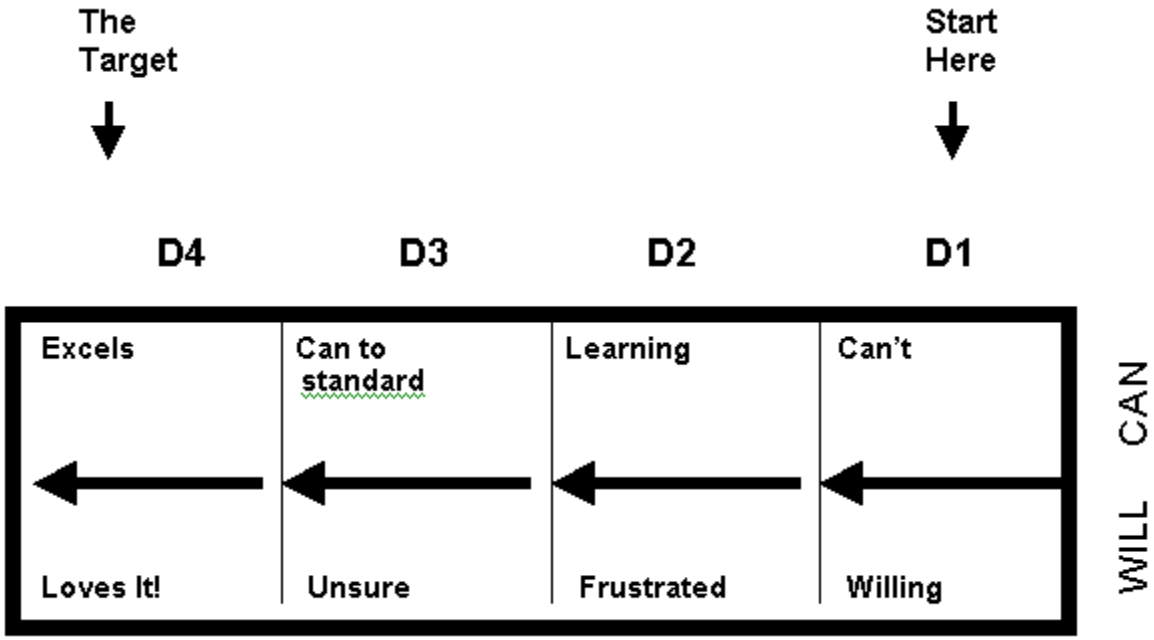
  Here we are concerned with the level of motivation and interest the follower has in a specific task. Again this is task specific and could be high for one part of the job and low for another.

Skill and motivation levels when considered together determine the Development Level of the follower. For convenience, a four-point scale has been designed to relate the development level to leadership style. Exhibit 3 illustrates this scale.

EXHIBIT 3

Follower Development Scale in Situational Leadership

The Development Cycle Regarding a Certain Task



Movement from left to right on the Development Scale is indicative of follower growth in both skills and motivation.

- ***Development Level 1: The Enthusiastic Incompetent*** - It is assumed that most workers start out on a new task with low skills but with some enthusiasm. These people are often labelled the enthusiastic incompetents. They don't know enough to do a good job but are highly motivated to try anything. The danger is that they will go ahead and try to do something without adequate supervision and make a serious or costly mistake.

  The researchers found that effective leaders used a S1 style of management when dealing with the D1. Thus, they were able to give the follower what she/he needed: the direction, guidance and know-how to perform the task. The effective leader realized that the D1 could be dangerous to the work team without close supervision.

- ***Development Level 2: The Disillusioned Learner*** - Development level 2 is characterised by a drop in motivation. Perhaps the follower finds the task more difficult to master than predicted. Perhaps she/he is discouraged by the length of time required to master the task. When this happens we get a "disillusioned learner".

  The researchers found that the effective leaders when dealing with a D2 used a S2 style of management – a style that was both highly directive and highly

supportive. They continued to give the follower direction because they had not yet mastered the task and were still concerned about skill level. At the same time they provided a lot of support because the followers needed help to get through their self-doubts.

- ***Development Level 3: The Reluctant Contributor*** - The D3 follower is characterised by having the skills to do the job but yet lacking the self-confidence to try it on their own. This state is often the result of too much S2 behaviour (high direction and high support) on the part of the leader. Then, when the leader tries to reduce the amount of direction given, the follower may be afraid to proceed on her/his own.

  The D3 follower responded best to the highly supportive but non-directive leader (S3 style). This style gave the follower the support and encouragement she/he needed while allowing the follower to do the job herself/himself.

- ***Development Level 4: The Conscious Competent*** - We call the D4 the conscious competent because she/he is good at the task and is aware of why s/he is good. This allows her/him to critique, evaluate, and improve her/his own performance.

  D4 followers were willing, able and delighted to take responsibility. They excelled at the task and loved to do it. The leaders who were effective at managing this group were those who gave them the responsibility and then gave them the freedom they needed to do the job effectively.

5. A Developmental Theory

The Situational Theory of leadership is thus a prescriptive theory. It is summarized in the diagram in Exhibit 4. The diagram indicates how leadership style is matched with the follower's developmental level. The theory thus allows the leader to provide the follower with what she/he needs. If she/he requires direction, the theory prescribes a directive style (S1 or S2) of leadership. If she/he requires support, the theory prescribes a supportive style of leadership.

The theory says then, that there is no one best leadership style. It claims that effective leaders are able to adapt their style to fit the situation.

A word of caution about regression!

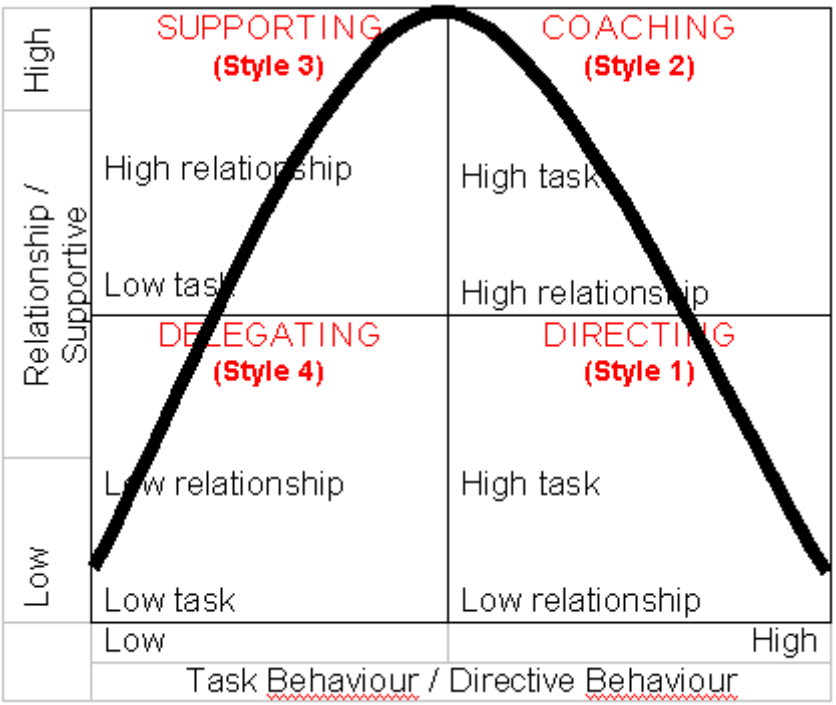
The leader is usually challenged to develop her/his followers to become D4's. But the challenge does not stop there. Once there, the followers must be managed in a way that keeps them performing at a high level. The regression scale shown in Exhibits 3 and 4 where the arrows are depicted in the reverse direction indicates that the scale has provided for regression.

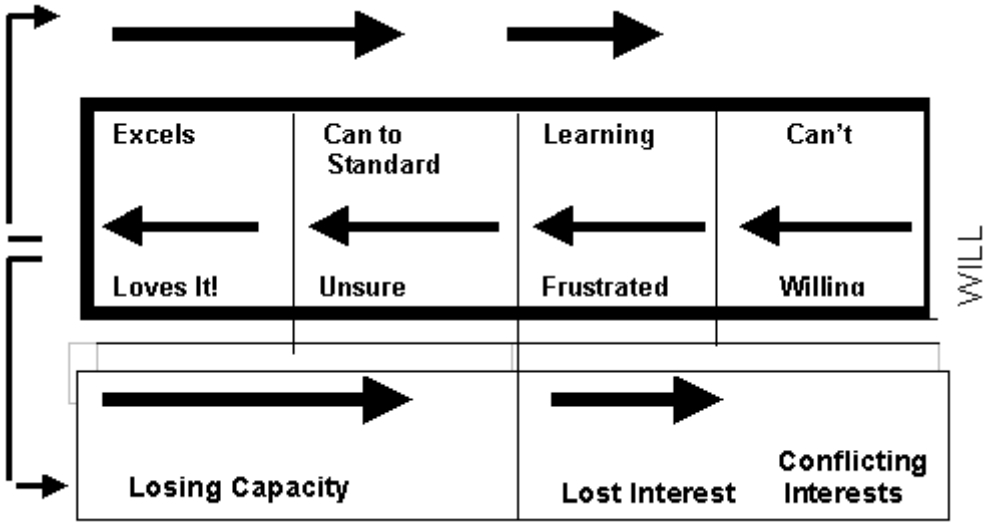
Regression is simply the opposite of development. It could occur at any level. This shows that the follower has passed through the learning curve and is no longer motivated by the acquisition of new skills. The followers' interest has declined or been transferred to some other activity, which may in fact interfere with performance.

Regression usually occurs in the motivation scale. It is less likely that regression will occur in the skill area unless there is a depletion of skills owing to external reasons.

EXHIBIT 4

Summary of Situational Leadership





Handout #2

Transformative Leadership

I. Introduction

In our discussion of why cooperatives need women, which is in the first module of this manual, two general points were raised. One, that women and men are essentially the same in worth and capability. For this reason, in the area of leadership and management, women can be as competent as men. Two, that they are also different not only because of their biological differences, but also because of the way the society has honed them as women and men. With the influence of the socio-cultural environment, women develop and nurture in themselves more feminine traits, and men, more masculine traits. This is asserted to be more cultural than biological because past studies have shown that even men can have feminine traits, and women can have masculine traits as well, and that the division or classification of traits into feminine and masculine is more of a social construction than a natural phenomenon.

A manifestation of the difference between women and men, as shown by past studies, is in the area of conflict management, where women, generally, tend to show more process-oriented ways of handling conflicts. Again, because of its cultural underpinning, the result of these studies is not absolute, for there can be men who are more process-oriented in their manner of handling conflicts, and women who are more output-oriented and adversarial in their ways of confronting conflicts. There can also be women and men who nurture in themselves and demonstrate in their actions both feminine and masculine traits. Truly, in the midst of culture's shaping of minds and behavior, a woman and a man still can, if opportunities are present, make a choice of what they want to be, and of what they want to do.

The studies, discussed in Module 1, which showed that women can be as competent as men, are those of Donnel & Hall (1980), and Ragins & Sundstrom (1990). Both studies yielded results that were contrary to the expectations of the general socio-cultural environment, which views women as unfit for leadership and management positions and as inferior to men. The conclusions reached in the study of Donnel and Hall were the following:

- The difference between female and male managers in work motivation profiles was significant. The work motivation profiles of female managers were more "achieving than those of their male counterparts";
- The male managers were found to be more competent in interpersonal practices than their female counterparts. The male managers were found to be more open and candid with their colleagues than were the female managers; and
- Women, in general, do not differ from men, in general, in management styles.

The study of Ragins and Sundstrom, on the other hand, found that subordinates rated female managers higher than male managers on expert power. It was also shown that male and female managers did not show the expected differences in combined reward, coercive, legitimate and referent power. In interpreting the results of this research, Ragins and Sundstrom cited two broad implications. The first implication mentioned was "that sex-role stereotypes and expectations may be replaced by more accurate perceptions of managers' power when subordinates have adequate information about their managers' organizational influence." The other implication of the study was "that female managers may fare better than is currently expected."

To emphasize, both studies have shown that not only can women be as competent as men, but that women can also have masculine traits, such as expert and coercive power; and men, as well, can have feminine traits, such as being competent in interpersonal relations.

II. Need for Change in Leadership Perspective

In the field of leadership, since power is more associated with the masculine trait, leadership structures have been dominated by men. This is because women, for possessing more feminine traits, are considered to be unfit for leadership and management positions. Thus, not only are leadership positions dominated by men, but the prevailing leadership perspective is also predominantly masculine. Specifically, the top-down management styles have been construed in the research literature as more "masculine" in nature. Masculine approaches to leadership from this perspective capture a vertical division of labour in which managers tell subordinates what to do. This style is much more oriented toward an authoritarian approach with respect to organizational structure and decision making.

Nonetheless, since empirical studies have led to the questioning of the traditional view of women as unfit for leadership position, and to the raising of awareness on the equal value of feminine traits with masculine traits, as well as to the equal worth of women and men in the whole society, including in the areas of organizational and political development, the demand for a change and transformation of leadership perspective has come about. This call is more strengthened by the growing complexity of the economic sphere, which has pushed for women's assumption of roles in the production and leadership as well. Specifically, business organizations in the 90s, with the growing globalization of economy, have realized that they require the type of leadership that builds effective work teams and capitalizes more on people skills to really move forward and meet the challenges of the continuing change.

The skills and orientation needed in effectively responding to this change and challenge are more associated with a leadership style that integrates the positive aspects of both the masculine and feminine traits. Since feminine traits associated with women and the masculine traits associated with men are critical elements of this leadership style, hence the need for both women and men to be in leadership positions has been acknowledged and has been increasingly recognized. Nonetheless, the goal is not to depend on women for the desired feminine leadership qualities and on men for the desired masculine leadership qualities, but that the integration of both feminine and masculine qualities of leadership be both developed in women and men. Transformed leaders are, hence, women and men who possess the positive feminine and masculine traits and who push for gender equality and equity in the organization, at the households and in the whole society.

Because of this realization of the importance of women's representation in leadership positions, of their equal worth with men, and of the positive values of the feminine and masculine traits in organizational and political development, the transformative type of leadership has been developed.

III. Transformational Leadership: What it is

Transformative leadership is described to be entailing two inter-linking dimensions (CLD, 1999). The first is the element of gender equality in leadership. This involves the increasing of the number of women leaders to achieve the goal of equality in number between the sexes in

leadership positions and in political representation. The second is the element of transforming the dominant political values, processes and institutions themselves in order to bring to fore a different way of perceiving and using power. The link between these two elements is very important. This is because the increase in the number of women in leadership positions will not automatically translate into a movement from the traditional type of leadership, which downgrades the capacity of women and negates their distinctive needs and interests. The women-leaders can also be convinced that the masculine trait is more favorable than the feminine trait. Hence, once in leadership positions, these women can also resonate traditional leadership approaches. To bring change, women must raise gender issues, must demand for gender equity, and must utilize and wield alternative forms of power. This substantive aspect of women's participation in leadership, not simply in number, is what ultimately matters in re-creating a new vision and practice of leadership and of politics.

Aside from the increase in the number of women-leaders, another important aspect, therefore, of transformative leadership is the impact of the women leaders. Some criteria that can be used in the assessment of this impact are the following (CLD, 1999):

- Change in the perception of the capacity of women and men — that women can be as competent as men in leadership positions, and in politics, in general.
- Change in discourse where who participate politically manage to impact on the way women in general can and should be referred to.
- Change in coverage refers to how history is written and taught. School textbooks depicting mothers as "always the one at home" and fathers as "always out working" need to be rewritten as more and more women begin to go out of their homes to make contribution to politics and economy.
- Change in policies and legislation where women's issues have found their way to the organizational, as well as national agenda.
- Change of institutions where specialized institutions which develop, monitor and implement gender equality and equity from within and without, are set up.

If transformative leadership aims not only for the increase in the number of women in leadership positions, but also for a change in leadership perspectives and approaches, then the next question is on the nature of this transformative leadership approach. To this, a list of leadership characteristics have been developed, namely: (Griggs, 1989)

- Use of consensus decision making process
- View of power in relational terms and as something to be shared.
- Support for productive, non-adversarial approaches to conflict confrontation and resolution;
- Building of supportive working environments;
- Promotion of diversity in the workplace.

Transformative leaders have critiqued the traditional definition of power and have reframed it in a way that does not require domination of others. A related view of power suggests that it can be defined as energy and strength rather than domination and control. Power is viewed as a source of synergy — something to be shared. Whereas the traditional view looks at power as "power over others," the transformative perspective, on the other hand, sees power as "power with others".

Furthermore, the transformative leadership perspective argues that leadership practiced from a transformative point of view creates work settings characterized by warmth, understanding, encouragement, support, nurturance, listening, empathy, and mutual trust. Leadership approaches that reflect this perspective are said to be more facilitative and consultative in nature. The leadership skills include the ability to empower others, coaching, sharing information, building trust and loyalty, cooperation, consensus building, inspiring, being attuned to employees' needs and aspirations, compassion, and being both task- and people-oriented.

The commitment to diversity has also been a mainstay since the early 19th century. GAD advocates have taken a stand against oppression related to gender and race. They have, by their different leadership styles, demonstrated that diversity of skill, thought and management approach is valuable. Women have been instrumental, when taking leadership roles, in changing workplaces through the adoption of work and family-balancing strategies, getting a parental leave act passed, and advocating for alternative work arrangements to create workplace flexibility and increased productivity. Valuing diversity in these different ways implies that differences in leadership style create more opportunities for ladder climbing for both women and men.

The first four elements of transformative leadership are reflective of a participatory and people-centered type of leadership or management. The last element — diversity — on the other hand, is consistent with the situational leadership type of Hersey and Blanchard. With this view, transformative leadership can be said to combine the principles of these two types of leadership into one form. It is people-centered in general and is trusting of the general capacities of both women and men to effectively participate in the management of the organization, but it is as well sensitive to the demands and needs of the changing situation. Moreover, transformative leadership is promotive of gender equality and equity because it:

- is aware of the implications of the low representation of women in leadership structures;
- seeks for the equal and equitable representation of women in leadership positions; and
- aims for a kind of leadership which recognizes and integrates the feminine traits with positive masculine traits in leadership approaches.

In many ways, leadership skills drawn from the transformative perspective create a new style of leadership for both women and men that is more appropriate for different types of organizations facing the challenges of globalization of economy in the 1990s and the 2000s. To develop the proper attitude and appropriate skills needed in this type of leadership, it may help to look at the following list of feminine and masculine traits which men and women, respectively, can develop to acquire a effective androgynous style of management or leadership.

Typical masculine strengths that women can develop	**Typical feminine strengths that men can develop**
• Learn how to be powerful and forthright. • Become entrepreneurial. • Have a direct visible impact on others, rather than just function behind the scenes. • State your own needs and refuse to back down, even if the immediate response is not of acceptance. • Focus on a task and regard it as equally important to the relationships with the people doing the task.	• The ability to recognize, accept and express feelings. • Respect for feelings as a basic and essential part of life, as guides to authenticity and effectiveness, rather than as barriers to achievement.. • Accept the vulnerability and imperfection of others. • A belief in the right to do work for self fulfillment as well as for money.

Typical masculine strengths that women can develop	Typical feminine strengths that men can develop
• Intellectualize and generalize from experience. • Behave "impersonally" rather than personalizing experience and denying another's reality because it is different. • Stop turning anger, blame and pain inward. • Stop accepting feelings of suffering and victimization. • Take the option of being invulnerable to destructive feedback. • Stop being irritable, and being passive-resistant about resentments and anger. • Respond directly with "I" statements, rather than blaming "you" ones (e.g. "I'm not comfortable with that" rather than "You shouldn't do that.") • Become an effective problem solver by being analytical, systematic and directive. • Change self-limiting behaviors (examples of changes are: allowing interruptions and laughing after making serious statement. • Become a risk-taker (calculating probabilities and making appropriate trade-offs).	• A belief in the values of non work as well as work identify. • The ability to fail at a task without feeling of being a failure as a person. • The ability to accept and express the need to be nurtured at all times. • The ability to touch and be close to both men and women without necessarily experiencing or suggesting sexual connotations. • Skill at listening emphatically and actively without feeling responsible for solving others' problems. • The ability to share feelings as the most meaningful part of one's interaction with others, with the acceptance of the risks and vulnerability which sharing brings. • The ability to relate to experiences on a personal level rather than to assume that the only valid approach to life and interpersonal interactions is an abstract, rational and strictly objective one. • Build support systems with others and share competence with them, rather than compete with them. • Acceptance of the emotional, spontaneous and irrational parts of the self.

Adopted from: Sargent, A. (1981). The androgynous manager. In Smith, D. (1981). Women and leadership. New York: Amacom.

Suggested Reading Material:

AWCF (2001). Trainer's manual on transformative leaders training for cooperatives: Transformative leadership, transformative cooperatives. Philippines: AWCF.

UNIT 2
Communication Skills

THE MAIN MESSAGE

Two aspects of communication are very important to an effective leadership in cooperatives, namely: 1) the ability to effectively express and assert oneself, such as one's own needs, viewpoints, positions and proposals; and 2) the ability to understand the viewpoints or perspectives of other leaders and members, as well as those of the staff and partners of the cooperative. To develop one's ability in self-assertion, one has to assess and harness skills in assertion. To effectively understand the viewpoints of other people, on the other hand, adroitness in active listening and probing is necessary. Another important communication skill is the ability to give effective confirmatory and/or corrective feedback. This skill in giving feedback cuts across the two aspects of communication. Giving feedback involves a skill in assertion as well as skill in listening to and probing the thoughts and feelings of other people on a certain issue or concern.

Recognizing the importance of communication skills to leadership, this session deals with concepts and methods that will help the women trainees harness their skills on the following:

- Assertiveness
- Active listening
- Probing
- Feedback Giving

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

1. To enable the participants to recognize the skills in effective communication, particularly assertiveness, active listening, probing and feedback giving, as needed by all leaders advocating for gender equality and equity in cooperatives.
2. Equip the participants with knowledge and skills in effective communication.
3. Help the participants assess and enhance their capability in effective communication.

Time Requirement: four hours and thirty minutes

First part: Assertiveness Skills Training: 1 hour

1. Introduction: 5 minutes
2. Accomplishment of questionnaire: 15 minutes
3. Sharing: 30 minutes
4. Lecture on assertiveness: 40 minutes

Second part: Active listening, probing and feedback giving: 2 1/2 hours

1. Lecture: 30 minutes
2. Simulation:
    - Preparation: 15 minutes

- Active listening : 20 minutes
- Active listening and Probing: 20 minutes
- Active listening, probing and feedback giving : 30 minutes
- Triads: 30 minutes

3. Synthesis: 5 minutes

Materials Required

1. A television set and a video camera, if available.
2. One video tape, if available.
3. Feedback forms on active listening, probing and feedback giving
4. Handouts on effective communication
5. Visual aids
6. Over head projector

Steps:

1. Present the objectives of this session, and explain that the session has two main parts: the assertiveness training part, and the active listening, probing and feedback-giving part. The first part essentially concerns about one's self-expression; the second part, on the other hand, is on understanding the expression of the other. Both comprise the core of the effective communication process.

First Part: Assertiveness Training

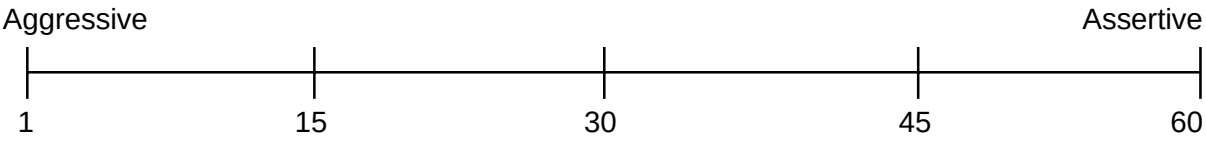
2. Start the discussion on assertiveness by asking the participants to recall any situation of conflict, to which they have first-hand information as a party or a witness. The conflict can be between a mother and her child, wife versus husband, sister versus sister, or any conflict within the cooperative. Tell them to imagine being again in the midst of the conflict, and to observe their natural reaction. If they are in the said situation, what will be their response? How are they going to handle the situation? Are they going to fight, to flight or to find other ways of addressing the situation? Ask them to be honest with themselves. Give them ten minutes to silently recall the conflict situation, and to recollect their actual or possible responses to the situation.

   Tell them to write in their journal the conflict and their response to it.

2. Then distribute to them the assertiveness questionnaire and ask them to fill them up.

   Source: Low, J. (1990). Winning Tactics for Managers. Singapore: McGraw-Hill.

How Assertive Are You?



Instructions:

a) Select a point on the line above (from 1 to 60) and mark on it with an “x” to indicate what you perceive as your orientation either towards being “assertive” or toward ding “aggressive.”

b) Complete the following questionnaire.

Questionnaire

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Can’t Tell	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
A	B	C	O	D	E	F

For each statement below, circle the letter the corresponds with the response that most accurately matches with what you think.

1. I become irritated when others disagree with my views.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
2. My subordinates have learnt never to make mistakes in their work.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
3. I feel uneasy to disagree with people in authority	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
4. When things go wrong, I simply shout at the top of my voice.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
5. I become vindictive when being criticized.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
6. A nagging salesman on the telephone makes me lose my temper easily.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
7. I blame others whenever I feel depressed and miserable.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
8. I don’t let others know when they are hurting my pride.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
9. If what I say hurts other person’s feelings, that is just too bad.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
10. I have great difficulty in turning down requests for favors.	A	B	C	O	D	E	F
SCORING							
Add up the total of same response for each column.							
Calculate the score for each response by multiplying it with the following numbers: Ax6, Bx5, Cx4, Dx3, Ex2, Fx1.							
Add your total scores.							

Now record this score on the line (1-60) by marking an “0” on the point along the line corresponding to the number of your total score. Compare the position of “x” with that of “0”.

What implications can you draw from any gap between “x” and “0”?

Give the participants 15 minutes to answer the above questionnaire.

3. Form buzz groups – three to four people seated beside each other. Then, give the buzz groups thirty minutes for sharing on their responses to conflict situations and the results of their assertiveness tests
4. Then give a lecture on assertiveness, giving emphasis on the following points:
   - Definition of assertiveness
   - Guidelines on how to become assertive especially in conflict situations.
   - Traditional assumptions that keep a person from being assertive
   - Legitimate rights of every person to become assertive.

Second Part: Active Listening, probing and feedback giving

1. Give a lecture on the communication loop, active listening, probing and feedback giving. Reading materials are provided in this manual for your guidance.
2. To sharpen the participants’ understanding and acquisition of the skills, demonstrate how the three skills are done. To do this, ask for three volunteers from the participants.
   - Ask the first volunteer to assist you in demonstrating the active listening skill by preparing any short story. This can be a story about gender issues in her cooperative. When this volunteer is ready with her story, tell her to sit with you in front of the seminar room facing all the other participants. Ask her to share with you her story, and you will actively listen. In actively listening to her, make sure that you follow the key procedures in active listening, such as:
     – Use of appropriate body posture and eye contact;
     – Asking of clarifying questions, if necessary.
     – Paraphrasing key points of the speaker, from time to time.
     – Asking if your paraphrases and summary are correct.
     – Reflecting the core feelings of the speaker.
     – Summarizing the whole story at the end.

     Do this listening exercise for five minutes.

     For an effective processing of the simulation of the active listening skill, it will be best to video tape it, if equipments are available. In the discussion of how active listening is demonstrated, you may view the video taped simulation and pause it in areas where the key procedures of active listening were done. For instance, pause the video tape to bring the attention of the participants to the body posture of the listener, then pause again every time the listener paraphrases a point of the speaker, then pause again when the core feeling(s) is/are reflected. Then finally, ask the participant to listen very carefully to the summary given by the listener.

     After the review of how the active listening skill was demonstrated, ask the participants for comments, reflections and questions on the active listening skill.
   - Call on the second volunteer to assist you in demonstrating the integration of active listening and probing skills. Ask her to prepare another story. This story can

be about the responses of her cooperative to the gender issues in her cooperative. When she is ready with her story, tell her to sit with you in front of the seminar room facing the other participants. Tell her to relate to you her story and that you will actively listen and probe. Hence, aside from the above procedures of active listening, you should demonstrate the key procedures of probing.

- Asking open-ended questions;
- Asking one question at a time;
- Giving time for the speaker to answer; don't fill in silences immediately.
- Acknowledging the answers of the speaker to your probes;

Do this exercise for 7 minutes.

This simulation can also be video taped for easier review and discussion. As you did in the discussion of the simulation of the active listening skill, you review the tape, and pause it in areas where the key procedures of active listening and probing were done.

Then ask for the comments, reflections and questions of the participants on the procedures and value of active listening and probing.

- Finally, call on the last volunteer. This time, however, you will be the one to prepare a case. The case is about somebody who you think did or said something that inhibits the growth of an organization or of the relationship between or among the people in an organization. The case must be specific such that the volunteer will role play the person to be given corrective feedback. For instance, Pedro always comes in late for meetings or is always absent from meetings. Pedro will be role played by the volunteer, and you will show how to give effective corrective feedback to Pedro.

  Start by explaining to the volunteer her role in this case. For instance, if you use the above case then you will explain to her that she will play the role of Pedro. Since this is only a simulation exercise, the volunteer is free to add more data on the case during the skill demonstration. When the volunteer is ready to play her role, then ask her to sit, as what the first two volunteers did, with you in front of the seminar room facing the other participants. Your aim here is to show how to integrate the three skills : active listening, probing and feedback giving. Hence, aside from the aforementioned procedures of active listening and probing, you should show how effective feedback giving is done.

  - As much as possible, start with positive feedback.
  - Describe the behavior or recall the statement given, which you think must be changed, and the consequences of this behavior or/and statement.
  - Be specific, don't generalize. Limit your discussion to the specific behavior and statement.
  - Use "I messages" in giving your opinion and recommendations on how to address the situation. "I messages" refer to messages that start with phrases, such as "I think …" "In my opinion …"
  - Ask for the reaction of the other party.
  - Seek agreement on how to address the situation.

Do this exercise for 10 minutes.

As you did in the simulation of the first two skills, you may also video tape this skill simulation. Then review the tape and pause in key areas where the procedures of active listening, probing and feedback giving are done highlighting and discussion.

Ask the participants for their comments, reflections and questions on the procedures and importance of effective feedback giving.

3. After your demonstration of the three skills, give all the other participants the opportunity to practice active listening, probing and feedback giving skills by forming them into triads. In the triads the following steps shall be followed:

   3.1 Active listening exercise

   - One member of the triad will act as the story teller, the other member as the active listener, and the last member the observer and giver of comments.
   - Give them ten minutes for the simulation and giving of comments.
   - Instruct them to use *Feedback Form #1: Active Listening* for the giving of comments.

   3.2 Active listening and probing exercise

   - The story teller in the active listening exercise will, this time, be the active listener and prober. The former observer will be the story teller, and the former active listener the story teller.
   - Give them ten minutes for the simulation and giving of comments.
   - Instruct them to use *Feedback Form #2: Probing* for the giving of comments.

   3.3 Active listening, probing and feedback giving

   - The storyteller in the previous exercise on active listening and probing will be the skill demonstrator and hence the story developer. The observer in the last exercise will act out the person in the story to be given feedback. And the former active listener and prober will be the observer and giver of comments.
   - Give them fifteen minutes for the whole exercise, including the preparation where the story developer explains the case to the one who will enact the feedback receiver role.
   - Instruct them to use *Feedback Form #3: Feedback-Giving* for the giving of comments and suggestions.

4. End the session with a sharing of some participants on their answers to the quick check form.

Caution/Hints:

This session demands that the trainer be well adept in effective communication skills, including the manner of facilitating the simulation of these skills. Though the session looks very simple, it is still important for the trainers to practice the session among themselves before the training.

Variation:

If more time can be allotted for this session, then you can start the second part of the session — discussion on active listening, probing and feedback giving — with the "rumor clinic" game:

1. Ask for five volunteers from the participants. Then let one of them to stay in the seminar room, and the other four to go to the nearest place where they cannot hear nor see the discussion in the room.
2. When the four volunteers are already in a place where they cannot hear nor see the instructions to the first volunteer, show a picture to the first volunteer. Any picture can be used. Instruct the first volunteer to remember all the details of the picture because she would relay what she saw to the second volunteer. Then keep the picture in a place where no one can see it.
3. Call on the second volunteer. Tell the other three volunteers to stay where they are. The first volunteer then shares to the second volunteer what she saw in the picture. The second volunteer is not allowed to ask any question. Instruct her to remember all that she heard because she would relay the same message to the third volunteer.
4. So the second volunteer relays what she heard to the third volunteer, and the third to the fourth, and the fourth to the fifth. All are not allowed to ask questions.
5. The last volunteer relates to the big group what s/he understands or remembers from what the fourth volunteer said. From experience, the message that the fifth volunteer shares to the plenary is very different from what the first volunteer saw in the picture.

   The lesson of the exercise is to check the veracity of information that we get. If not, then somewhere along the way, something can go wrong in the communication channel. It is, thus, important to ensure that we get and interpret correctly the information that we receive. This can be done through active listening, probing and feedback giving.

   From here, you can give a lecture on the three basic communication skills.

Quick Check:

At the end of the session ask the participants to answer the following questions in a sheet of paper. Then select two to four volunteers to share their answers:

1. What new things did you learn in this session?
2. In what situations within and outside of the cooperative can you use this skill? Give one concrete example in the cooperative, and another example outside of the cooperative.
3. Did you enjoy the session? What are your suggestions on how to improve this session?

Trainers' Reference Material

Effective Communication

I. Introduction

Although communication applies to all phases of managing, it is particularly important in the function of leading. Basically communication is defined as the transfer of information from the sender to the receiver with the information being understood by the receiver.

Two aspects of communication are very important to leadership. These are: 1) the ability to effectively express and assert oneself, such as one's own needs, viewpoints, proposals, and others; and 2) the ability to understand the viewpoints or perspectives of other people. To develop one's ability in self expression, assertiveness skill must be learned and practiced. And to effectively understand the viewpoints of other people, active listening and probing skills are necessary. Another important communication skill is the ability to give effective confirmatory and corrective feedback. This skill cuts across the two above mentioned aspects of communication. Giving feedback involves skill in assertion as well as skill in actively listening to and probing the thoughts and feelings of another person.

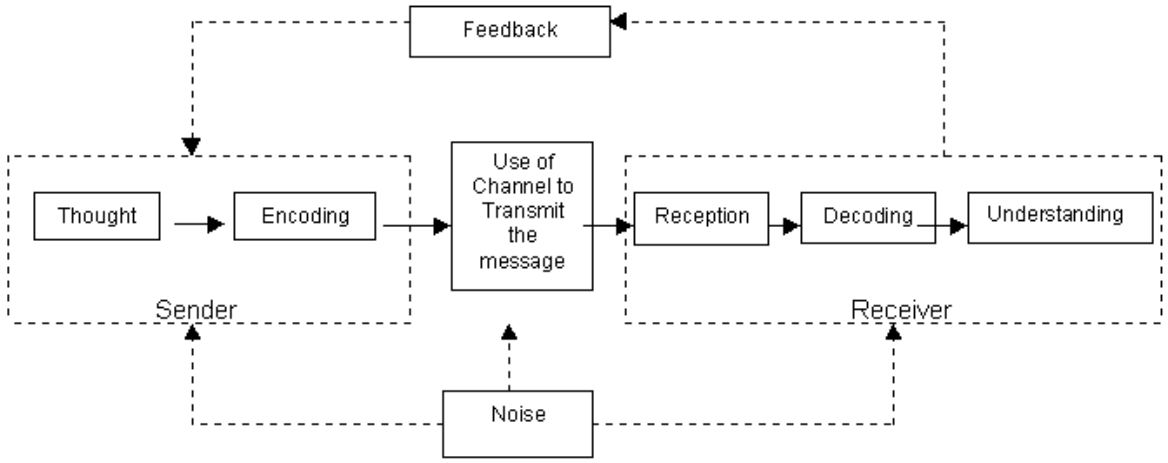
II. Communication Process

A. Elements of a Communication Process

The communication process shown in Figure 1 involves the sender who transmits a message through a selected channel to the receiver.

FIGURE 1

A Communication Process Model



1. The Sender of the Message

   Communication begins with the sender who has a message, which can be a thought or a feeling. This message is then encoded in a way that can be understood by both the sender and the receiver.

2. Use of a Channel to Transmit the Message

   The information is transmitted over a "channel" that links the sender with the receiver. The message may be oral or written, and it may be transmitted through a memorandum, a computer, the telephone, a telegram, or television. Television, of course, also facilitates the transmission of gestures and visual clues. At times, two or more channels are used.

   In a telephone conversation, for instance, two people may reach a basic agreement that they later confirm by a letter. Since many choices are available, each with advantages and disadvantages, the proper selection of the channel is vital for effective communication.

3. The Receiver of the Message

   The receiver has, first, to be "ready" for the message so that s/he can decode — in forms understandable to her — it. A person thinking about a problem at home may pay insufficient attention to what is being said thus increasing the probability of a communication breakdown. After paying attention to the speaker and the message, the next step in the process is "decoding", in which the receiver converts the message into thoughts. Accurate communication can occur only when both the sender and the receiver attach the same or at least similar meanings to the symbols that compose the message. A message encoded into English requires a receiver who understands English. This is obvious. Less obvious, and frequently overlooked, is the use of technical or professional jargon that may not be understood by the recipient of the message. So communication is not complete unless it is understood. "Understanding" is in the mind of both the sender and the receiver. Persons with closed minds will normally not completely understand messages, especially if the information is contrary to their value system.

4. Noise and Feedback in Communication

   Unfortunately, communication is affected by **noise**, which is anything – whether in the sender, the transmission, or the receiver – that hinders communication. For example:

   - A noisy or confined environment may hinder the development of a clear thought.
   - Encoding may be faulty because of the use of ambiguous symbols.
   - Transmission may be interrupted by static in the channel, such as may be experienced in a poor telephone connection.
   - Inaccurate reception may be caused by inattention.
   - Decoding may be faulty because wrong meaning may be attached to words and other symbols.
   - Understanding can be obstructed by prejudices.

     To check the effectiveness of communication, "feedback" is essential. We can never be sure whether or not a message has been effectively encoded, transmitted, decoded, and understood until it is confirmed by feedback. Similarly, feedback indicates whether individual or organizational change has taken place as a result of communication.

B. Types of Communication

Written and oral communication media have favourable and unfavourable characteristics; consequently, they are often used together so that the favourable qualities of each can

complement the other. In addition, visual aids may be used to supplement both oral and written communications. For example, the lecture in the leadership training session was made more effective by using the paper tower building exercise, written handouts and visual aids. Evidence is shown that when a message is repeated through several media, the people receiving it will more accurately comprehend and recall it.

1. Written Communication

   Written communication has the *advantage* of providing records, references, and legal defenses. Written communication can also promote uniformity in policy and procedure and can reduce costs, in some cases.

   The disadvantages are that written messages may create mountains of paper, may be poorly expressed by ineffective writers, and may provide no immediate feedback. Consequently, it may take a long time to know whether a message has been received and properly understood.

   It is always better to use simple words and phrases in business communication so that the recipient easily understands it.

2. Oral Communication

   A great deal of information is communicated orally. Oral communication can be a face-to-face meeting of two people, or a manager addressing a large audience; it can be formal or informal, and it can be planned or accidental.

   The *advantages* of oral communication are that it can provide for speedy interchange with immediate feedback. People can ask questions and clarify points. In a face-to-face interaction, the effect can be noted. Furthermore, a meeting with the superior may give the subordinate a feeling of importance. Clearly, informal or planned meetings can greatly contribute to the understanding of the issues.

   However, oral communication also has *disadvantages*. It does not always save time, as any one knows who has attended meetings in which no results or agreements were achieved. These meetings can be costly in terms of time and money.

3. Nonverbal Communication

   We communicate in many different ways. What we say can be reinforced (or contradicted) by nonverbal communication, such as facial expressions and body gestures. Nonverbal communication is expected to support the verbal. But it does not always do so. For example, an autocratic manager who pounds a fist on the table while announcing that from now on participative management will be practiced, certainly creates a credibility gap. Similarly, managers who state that they have an open-door-policy, but then have a secretary carefully screen people who want to see the boss, create an incongruency between what they say and the way they behave. Clearly, nonverbal communication may support or contradict verbal communication, giving rise to the saying that actions often speak louder than words.

C. Barriers and Breakdowns in Communication

Communication problems are often symptoms of more deeply rooted problems. These problems can exist in the sender, in the transmission of the message, or in the receiver. Some of them are as follows:

1. Lack of Planning to Communicate

   Good communication seldom happens by chance. Too often people start talking and

writing without first thinking, planning, and stating the purpose of the message. Yet, giving the reasons for a directive, selecting the most appropriate channel, and choosing proper timing can greatly improve understanding and reduce resistance to change.

2. Poorly Expressed Messages

   No matter how clear the idea in the mind of the sender of communication, it may still be marked by poorly chosen words, omissions, lack of coherence, poor organization of ideas, awkward sentence structure, platitudes, unnecessary jargon, and a failure to clarify the implications of the message. This lack of clarity and precision, which can be costly, can be avoided through greater care in encoding the message.

3. Loss by Transmission and Poor Retention

   In a series of transmissions from one person to the next, the message becomes less and less accurate. Poor retention of information is another serious problem. Repetition of the message and the use of several channels are necessary to avoid this problem.

4. Poor Listening and Premature Evaluation

   There are many talkers but few listeners. Listening demands full attention and self-discipline. It also means avoiding premature evaluation of what the other person has to say. A common tendency is to judge, to approve or disapprove what is being said, rather than trying to understand the speaker's frame of reference. Yet listening without making hasty judgement can make the whole enterprise more effective and more efficient.

5. Impersonal Communication

   Effective communication is more than simply transmitting information to employees. It requires face-to-face communication in an environment of openness and trust.

6. Distrust, Threat and Fear

   Distrust, threat, and fear undermine communication. In a climate containing these forces, any message will be viewed with skepticism. Distrust can be the result of inconsistent behaviour by the superior, or it can be due to past experiences in which the subordinate was punished for honestly reporting unfavourable, but true, information to the boss. Similarly, in the light of threats – whether real or imagined – people tend to tighten up, become defensive, and distort information. What is needed is a climate of trust, which facilitates open and honest communication.

7. Insufficient Period for Adjustment to Change

   The purpose of communication is to effect change, which may seriously concern employees: shifts in the time, place, type, and order of work or shifts in group arrangements or skills to be used. Some communication points to the need for further training, career adjustment, or status arrangements. Changes affect people in different ways, and it may take time to think through the full meaning of a message.

8. Preoccupation

   An individual who is focusing on internal stimuli may listen in such a way that some of the message comes through or so little of it that s/he cannot grasp the message appropriately and may respond in such a way that his/her blocking of the message is apparent.

9. Emotional block

   Words may have become emotion-charged for an individual, possibly due to his/her conditioning in childhood or to current circumstances in the individual's life at the time the communication attempt is made.

10. Hostility

    This can occur when communicating with an individual with whom you are angry, or it may be a carryover from a recent experience. It may also be the subject matter which arouses hostility. When individuals are engaged in a hostile confrontation, then often distort messages from the other in such a way that provides fuel for further venting of hostility.

11. Charisma of the speaker

    A charismatic person can often make old, trivial messages seen new and important to the receiver of the message; however, this too can become detrimental to communication since the receiver of the message is less likely to question or ask for clarification of the message.

12. Hidden agenda

    A person with special interest, i.e. hidden agenda, may hear all messages only in reference to his/her own needs or may not be able to hear messages which do not relate to his/her own interest.

13. Culturally-determined verbal patterns

    May lead to another type of communication distortion-stereotypin. A conventional individual may "hear" all attempts at communication as radical if the speaker had a non-conventional physical appearance.

14. Physical environment

    Alone, this may create conditions under which communication cannot take place effectively. An individual's physical state may also be detrimental to communication.

15. Defensiveness

    The insecurity of the individual tends to distort questions into accusations and his/her replies into justifications.

16. Status

    An individual in a position of high status may find communication difficult with most of the people with whom s/he must interact since his/her perceived power differently affects various individuals. One person may be preoccupied with impressing the source of power, while another may be defensive, feeling that his/her job or perhaps his/her own status is threatened by the powerful individual.

III. Communication Skills

A. Assertiveness

Assertiveness is defined as the ability to clearly communicate one's opinions, needs, wants, interests, feelings, and others to another person(s) in a non-defensive and non-threatening way. To be assertive, particularly in a conflict situation, the following steps can be used as a guide (Condiffe, 1995).

Step 1: Preparation

- Think about what your objectives are. Another technique is to think about how your relationship with the other person or group will be affected by what you are going to say.
- If you have time, write down what you want to say or rehearse it with somebody else.
- Check if you what you want to say is appropriate given the nature of your relationship with the other person or group.
- If possible, choose an appropriate time and place to be assertive.

Step 2: Assertion message

An assertion message has three parts:

- Precisely describe the behavior, or situation, or statements, or concerns which is the subject of the discussion. For example,

  " I would like to seek for a discussion of the low representation of women in the leadership structure of our cooperative."
- Precisely describe your thoughts and feelings in relation to or arising out of the described situation. For example,

  "Since women comprise more than 40% of our membership, I think that the interests and concerns of women must be adequately represented in our decision making bodies. I also feel dismayed that many of our men-members discourage women from aspiring for leadership positions as evidenced by their jokes and side comments during our general assembly last Saturday."
- Precisely describe your views on the consequences of the situation. For example,

  "In my view, if this situation — the low women representation in our leadership and the words of discouragement from our many men-members — persists then, we will not be able to motivate the women-members to actively support and patronize our cooperative, and we will not be able to make use of our women's distinctive skills in developing our coops."

For the assertion message to be understood and acknowledged, it is important for it to be specific, concrete, non-interpretative, non-attacking, serious and objective.

The following is a partial list of traditional assumptions learned in childhood which keep a person from being an assertive adult, and the responses to these assumptions.

Traditional Assumptions	**Your Legitimate Rights**
1. It is selfish to put your needs before others' needs.	You have a right to put yourself first, sometimes.
2. It is shameful to make mistakes. You should have an appropriate response to every occasion.	You have a right to make mistakes.
3. If you can't convince others that your feelings are reasonable, then you must be wrong or may you are going crazy.	You have a right to be the final judge of your feelings and to accept them as legitimate.
4. You should respect the views of others, especially if they are in a position of authority. Keep your differences of opinion to yourself. Listen and learn.	You have a right to have your own opinions.

Traditional Assumptions	Your Legitimate Rights
5. You always try to be logical and consistent.	You have a right to change your mind or decide on a different course of action.
6. You should never interrupt people. Asking questions reveals your stupidity to others.	You have a right to interrupt to ask for clarification.
7. Things could get even worse, don't rock the boat.	You have the right to negotiate for change.
8. You should not take up others' valuable time with your problems.	You have a right to feel and express pain.
9. People don't want to hear that you feel bad, so keep it to yourself.	You have a right to feel and express pain.
10. Knowing that you did something well is its own reward. People don't like show-offs.	You have a right to receive formal recognition for your work and achievements.
Successful people are secretly disliked and envied. Be modest when complimented.	
11. Don't be anti-social. People will think that you don't like them if you say you'd want to be alone.	You have a right to be alone.

B. Understanding Other People's Viewpoints

After effectively and constructively expressing your thoughts and/or feelings on a situation, then the next step is to try to understand what the other person or group is trying to express, both thoughts and feelings. The key skills needed in understanding other people are active listening and probing.

1 . Active Listening (MODA, 1992)

Definition: Active listening is the capability of one person to demonstrate and prove his/her understanding of the substantive and emotional messages of the speaker.

Purposes: This skill is important for the following reasons:

- Helps build and maintain rapport;
- Helps gather data;
- Helps check perceptions and filters to communication;
- Helps the speaker clarify and develop his/her ideas;
- Builds respect and consideration.

Procedures: To prove to the speaker that you are actively listening to his/her message, the following actions are suggested to be done while listening:

- Use of conducive listening posture;
- Use of appropriate eye contact;
- Paraphrase or repeat in own words the message of the speaker to check understanding of parts of the message;

- Reflect the core feelings expressed verbally and non-verbally by the speaker;
- Ask clarifying questions if necessary;
- Give statements of understanding (e.g. I understand; I see…)
- Ask or welcome clarifications and corrections of your understanding of her/his message;
- Summarize the speaker's core message.

Examples of starting words of a paraphrase or a summary of the message of the speaker are:

- "So you think…"
- "You feel … because…"
- "It sounds like …"
- "This is how I understand your point …"
- "From your point of view …"

  Then a paraphrase or a summary can be followed by a question that seeks for correction of validation. For instance, after paraphrasing a part of the message of the speaker and after summarizing his/her whole message, you ask: "Did I get you right?"

2. Probing (MODA, 1992)

Definition: Probes are statements or questions designed to elicit relevant data from another person.

Purposes: Probes are done for the following reasons:

- Obtain more information;
- Clarify other person's feelings;
- Clarify other person's thinking;
- Test assumptions regarding the positions or viewpoints of other person (e.g. if indeed the other person is not open to any other proposals other than his/her own.)

Procedures: The following are suggested in effective probing:

- To get a comprehensive picture of the situation, it will help to know: what the situation is; the reasons behind the situation; the thoughts and feeling of the other person on the situation; the reasons behind those thoughts and feelings; actions that s/he have already undertaken; and her/his thoughts on other possible actions to be undertaken.
- Ask open-ended questions, such as, what, why, how, where, when, who. (Closed questions are questions answerable by yes or no. The suggestion is to as much as possible avoid using closed question. If this was not avoided, then a closed question must be followed up by open ended questions.)
- Ask one question at a time;
- Give the other person time to answer. Don't immediately fill up the silence;
- Reinforce answers verbally (e.g. "Your answer helped me understand your views on the situation) and/or non-verbally (e.g. nodding of head to signify understanding).

  A key reminder in probing is not to inject your own thoughts into the discussion. Hence, leading questions which express one's suggestions to a situation in the form of questions must be avoided while probing. The output of probes must be a picture or clear understanding of the thoughts and feelings of another person or group.

C. Feedback-Giving (MODA, 1992)

After understanding the thoughts and feelings of another person through active listening and probing, in many situation, it is necessary to give your own thoughts and feelings on the messages of the other person. This process of giving your own thoughts and feelings on a message — which can be in the form of statements or actions — is called feedback giving.

Definition: An invitation to another person or group to discover, explore and act on self-enhancing and organization-enhancing alternatives. It is a way of inviting others to feel rewarded for their performance and to keep the pace of success, or to place demand on themselves for more effective performance.

As such, it is an alternative to commanding, telling, ordering, persuading, cajoling, pleading, demanding and the like.

Feedback relates to:

- Recognizing success (confirmatory feedback)

  When expectations are clear and performance indicators are shared, the role of the feedback giver is to complement self-feedback through a dialogue with the receiver. The stronger the linkage between the performance expectation and appraisal, the easier and more effective the recognition.
- Developing new perspectives (corrective feedback)

  An invitation to another person or group to reexamine some perspective, belief, attitude, assumption, idea, prejudice or frame of reference that is seen by the challenger as self and/or organization-inhibiting.
- Facilitating change of unhelpful behaviors (corrective feedback)

  An invitation to another person or group to correct some behaviors considered by the feedback giver as inhibiting to the individual or to the organization.

Purposes: This is a very important leadership skill because:

- This encourages other people to repeat or to continue actions that are beneficial to the whole organization;
- This encourages the other person to consider new perspectives to the situation and alternative behaviors for the good of the self, other people and the whole organization;
- This expresses one's point of view in a way that the other person can hear. It minimizes the other person's need to be defensive.

Procedures: To give effective feedback, the following are suggested:

- Start with positive feedback (as much as possible, if there is any);
- Describe the behavior. Be specific in describing the behavior — what particular action(s) was(were) done or words/statements said; when?
- Describe the consequences of the behavior. If the feedback is positive, then give the good results of the action or statement. If corrective, then describe the negative effects of the action or statements.
- Use "I" messages in giving your own opinion, comments or suggestions on the action or statement, instead of saying "You should …". This means that your views should not be expressed in an imposing manner. Examples beginning statements of "I" messages are:

"I think …", "In my point of view …" etc.

- Seek for the other's response to your feedback by requesting him/her in a non-threatening manner to give comments or views on your feedback.

Honing one's skills in assertion, active listening, probing and feedback giving is very important, such that once developed and practiced, a leader can be said to have acquired 50% or more of skills needed for effective leadership.

References:

1. Condiffe, P. (1995). Conflict management. A practical guide. Malaysia: Business Information Press.
2. Pfeiffer, J. W, & Jones, J. (1969). Structured learning experiences for human relations training. Iowa:
3. Management Organization of Development Associates (MODA). Training manual on principled negotiation. Distributed during a negotiation training workshop in October, 1992 in Maryland, USA.

FEEDBACK FORM #1: ACTIVE LISTENING

Name of Active Listener: _____

Name of Speaker/Storyteller: _____

Name of Observer: _____

Active Listening Techniques	Did the active listener use the following active listening techniques? Please write a check (/) if yes.	What improvements do you think can be done in the use of the active listener of each of the techniques?
Use of effective body language		
Use of appropriate eye contact		
Asking of clarifying questions		
Paraphrasing		
Reflection of core feelings		
Giving statements of understanding		
Summary of the core message		

FEEDBACK FORM #2: PROBING

Name of Active Listener: _____

Name of Speaker/Storyteller: _____

Name of Observer: _____

Active Listening Techniques	Did the prober use the techniques in probing? Please write a check (/) if yes.	What improvements do you think can be done in the use of the prober of each of the techniques?
Comprehensiveness of questions—from what/when/ who to why to how		
Asking of open-ended questions		
Asking one question at a time		
Giving of time for the other person to answer		
Reinforcingof answers		

FEEDBACK FORM #3: FEEDBACK GIVING

Name of Fedback Giver: _____

Name of Feedback Receiver: _____

Name of Observer: _____

Please accomplish as well *Feedback Form #1: Active listening* and *Feedback Form #2: Probing.*

Feedback Giving Techniques	Did the feedback giver use the techniques in effective feedback giving? Please write a check (/) if yes.	What improvements do you think can be done in the use of the feedback giver of each of the techniques?
As much as possible, start with a confirmatory feedback when giving a corrective feedback.		
Described the behavior—action and/or statements.		
Described the consequences of behavior — action and/or statements.		
Use of "I" messages in giving own views and proposals.		
Checked for clarity of understanding of other's viewpoints.		

UNIT 3
How to Conduct Meetings

THE MAIN MESSAGE

For the leaders and members of an organization to reach agreements on how to run the organization, including what its goals are, its strategies, systems, and others, they have to sit down, talk and make decisions collectively. Especially for cooperatives which uphold a participatory or democratic form of management and leadership, meetings among leaders, and leaders with members, are considered an essential component of the organization's operations. This is one of the key areas where the second principle of cooperatives comes to life. To review, the second principle states that "cooperatives are democratic organizations controlled by their members who actively participate in setting their policies and making decisions."

Because of their importance in the operations of cooperatives and in the fulfillment of one of its universal principles, these meetings have to be conducted regularly, efficiently and efficaciously. In recognition of this view of meetings, this session tackles the following:

- Key processes of meetings — what must be done before, during and after the meeting to effectively serve its purposes.
- The Robert's Rules of Meetings.
- Effective ways of handling unhelpful types of behavior during meetings.
- Legal requirements in facilitating a General Assembly of a cooperative.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

This session aims to enhance the skills of the participants in facilitating meetings by providing them with :

1. Knowledge on how to conduct meetings in non-formal and formal ways. The formal method of conducting meetings is in accordance with Robert's Rule of Meetings.
2. Tips on how to effectively prepare for, conduct and follow-up meetings.
3. Techniques on how to handle unhelpful types behavior during meetings.
4. Legal requirements in facilitating the General Assembly of a cooperative.

Time Requirements: three hours

Introduction: 5 minutes
Small group discussion: 30 minutes
Presentation and plenary discussion: 90 minutes
Lecture: 55 minutes

Materials Required :

1. Written explanation and instructions on the task of each small group;
2. Board, flipcharts and pen

3. Manila papers, pens and masking tapes
4. Visual aids
5. Overhead projector

Steps:

1. Explain the objectives and methods of this session.
2. Divide the participants into three small groups. Each group will be assigned a task:
   - The first group will present to the plenary through role playing the process of a meeting — from preparation to actual meeting to follow-up.
   - The second group will act out six (6) types of unhelpful behavior in meetings, and how these unhelpful behaviors can be handled effectively by the facilitator; this list of behaviors — in animal metaphors — will be given by the trainer.
   - The third group will act out another six (6) types of unhelpful behavior during meetings, and how these unhelpful behaviors can be handled effectively by the facilitator. This list of unhelpful behaviors — in animal metaphors — will also be given by the trainer.

   Give each group a written explanation and instruction on its task. (See attachment)
3. Give each small group thirty minutes to discuss their tasks and prepare for their presentation.
   - The first group can start with a brainstorming of the usual steps undertaken before, during and after a meeting. When the group has agreed on these steps, they will prepare for a role playing of these steps
   - The second and third groups will start with a discussion of their assigned unhelpful behaviors in meetings. The following guide can be used during the discussion:

Unhelpful behaviors	Manifestations in meetings	Effects on meetings	How to handle

   After their discussion of each unhelpful behavior, the second and third groups must also prepare to act out these behaviors in the context of a meeting
4. During the presentation of each group, instruct the audience — i.e. second and third groups when the first group presents, the first and third groups when the second group presents, and so on — to record their understanding of the message of the presentation. This includes the:
   - The process of a meeting — from the presentation of the first group;
   - How to handle different types of unhelpful behavior — from the presentation of the second and third groups.

Give each small group twenty minutes to present their tasks.

5. When all groups have presented, facilitate a discussion of the messages of each group by asking the participants to share what they recorded as the messages conveyed by each group. Write the gist of the discussion on the board. At the end of the discussion, the perspectives of the participants on the following must be written on the board:
   - Process of a meeting;
   - List of unhelpful behaviors in meeting and on how to handle them.
6. Deepen the discussion by giving a lecture on:
   - Conducting meetings in accordance with the rules of formality
   - Tips in running meetings;
   - Techniques in handling unhelpful behaviors in meetings (if discussion on this has not yet been exhaustive).
   - Legal requirements in facilitating the General Assembly of a cooperative.

Caution/Hints:

Role playing of meetings sometimes drags and becomes boring. To avoid this, you can suggest to the small groups to be creative, precise and swift. To do this, they can use other creative methods, such as pantomime (with narration), visual aids to depict roles, and others.

Variation:

To reduce time allotted for this session, another way of holding this session is through one role playing only. In this role play, the process of meetings and some unhelpful behaviors will simultaneously be simulated by a group of participants. Other participants will act as observers and recorders of the messages of the role play.

Quick Check:

After the session, ask the participants to answer quick check forms containing the following questions. Remind them to write their names on their accomplished forms, and to submit them to the training staff.

1. Have you experienced facilitating meetings? _____

   If yes, what types of meetings? _____
2. If you have experienced facilitating meetings, which of the points discussed — process of meeting and handling of unhelpful behavior — have you been doing? _____

   _____

   _____
3. What are the new things you learned about facilitating meetings? _____

   _____

   _____
4. Are you ready to apply these new learning in facilitating meetings? _____
   If no, what are the hindering factors? _____

Trainers' Reference Material #1

Rules of Formality in Conducting Meetings: Robert's Rules of Meeting

From Low, J. (1990). What You Must Do as a Chairperson During a Meeting. In Low , J. (1990) Winning tactics for managers. pp. 176-178. Singapore: McGraw-Hill Book Co.

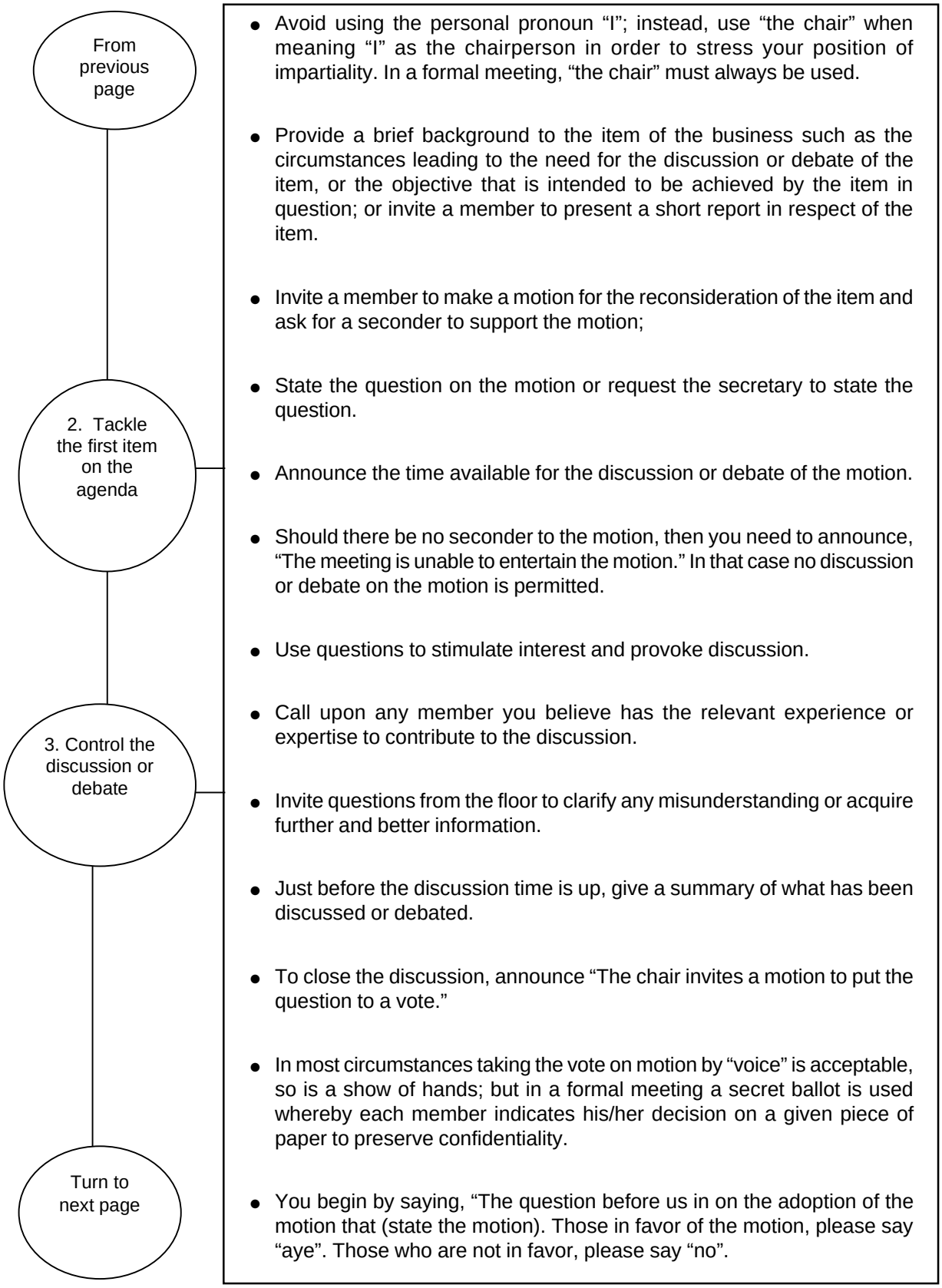
START

1. Open the meeting

Turn to next page

What you need to know and say

- Each meeting must begin on time (as much as it must end according to the stated time). According to some researchers, meetings schedules to begin at the hour of the clock (e.g., 2:00 pm) are likely to find people arriving late whereas people tend to be punctual if meetings start at say 2:15 pm or 2:45 pm!
- If the meeting is to be conducted in accordance with the rules of formality, you need to open the meeting by calling the meeting to order. Eg., :Ladies and Gentlemen. The meeting will now come to order."
- State and explain the purpose or objectives of the meeting, ensuring that at this stage you focus only on the outputs (not the inputs) of the meeting.
- Welcome and introduce the new members.
- Explain the meeting procedure, emphasizing:
  a) That all remarks are to be addressed to the chair;
  b) That members wishing to speak must first "obtain the floor"; i.e., be recognized by the chair to have the right to speak at that time;
  c) That members will adhere to the allotted time for each debate or discussion;
  d) That in arriving at each resolution a vote will be taken and unless otherwise provided by the constitution of the organization, a simple majority will suffice.
  e) That in a deadlock situation, the chairperson will have a casting vote;
  f) That the business of the meeting will proceed in the order as set out in the agenda; and
  g) That each request for action or amendment is raised by members in the form of a "motion" that is properly put to the chair.
- Appoint a secretary for the meeting who will
  a) Take notes during each meeting;
  b) Prepare, print and circulate the minutes of the meeting; and
  c) Provide support service for each meeting.
- Where it is applicable, determine whether there is sufficient quorum of members present for the meeting.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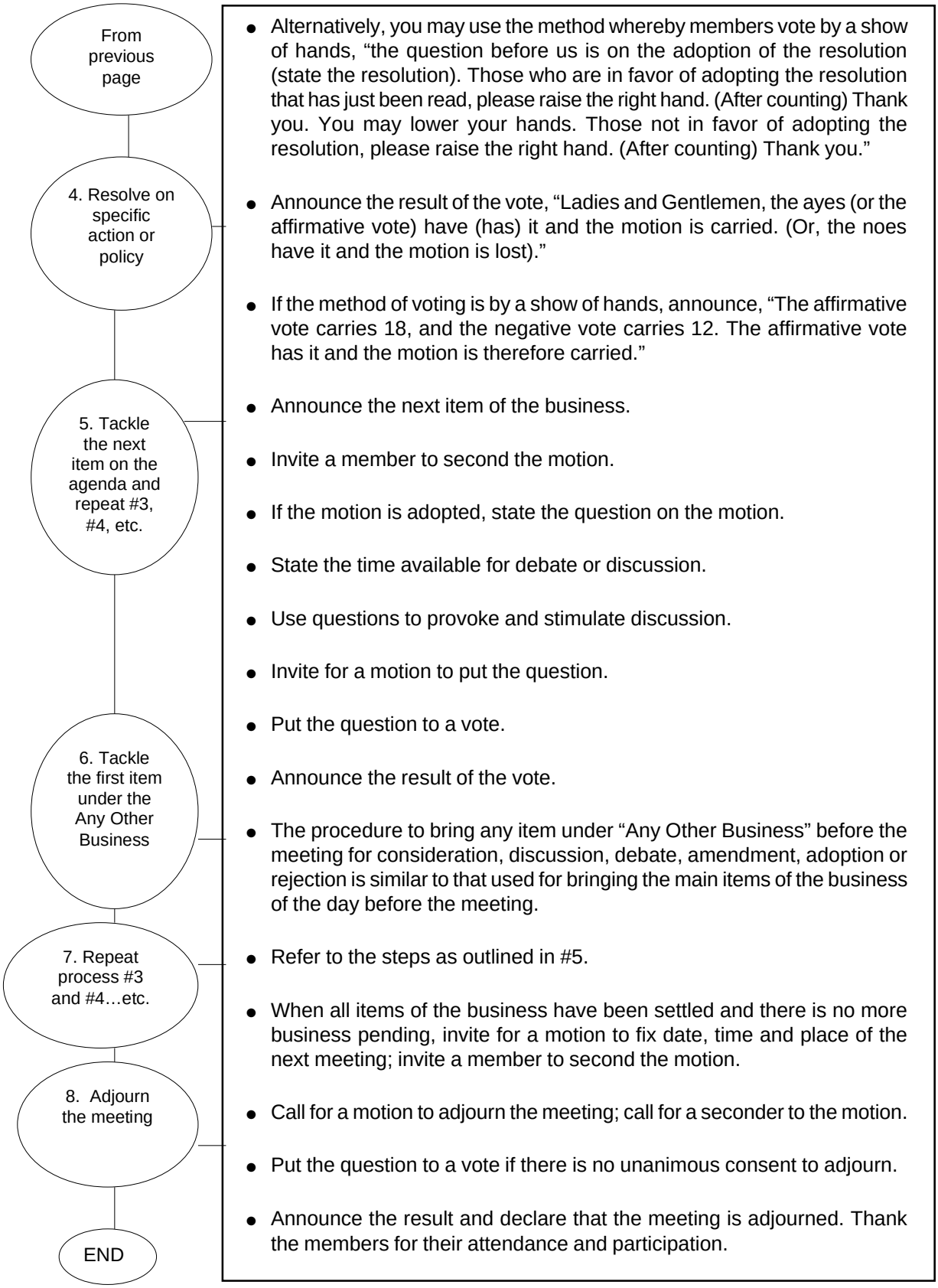
2. Tackle the first item on the agenda
3. Control the discussion or debate
Turn to next page
• Avoid using the personal pronoun "I"; instead, use "the chair" when meaning "I" as the chairperson in order to stress your position of impartiality. In a formal meeting, "the chair" must always be used.
• Provide a brief background to the item of the business such as the circumstances leading to the need for the discussion or debate of the item, or the objective that is intended to be achieved by the item in question; or invite a member to present a short report in respect of the item.
• Invite a member to make a motion for the reconsideration of the item and ask for a seconder to support the motion;
• State the question on the motion or request the secretary to state the question.
• Announce the time available for the discussion or debate of the motion.
• Should there be no seconder to the motion, then you need to announce, "The meeting is unable to entertain the motion." In that case no discussion or debate on the motion is permitted.
• Use questions to stimulate interest and provoke discussion.
• Call upon any member you believe has the relevant experience or expertise to contribute to the discussion.
• Invite questions from the floor to clarify any misunderstanding or acquire further and better information.
• Just before the discussion time is up, give a summary of what has been discussed or debated.
• To close the discussion, announce "The chair invites a motion to put the question to a vote."
• In most circumstances taking the vote on motion by "voice" is acceptable, so is a show of hands; but in a formal meeting a secret ballot is used whereby each member indicates his/her decision on a given piece of paper to preserve confidentiality.
• You begin by saying, "The question before us in on the adoption of the motion that (state the motion). Those in favor of the motion, please say "aye". Those who are not in favor, please say "no".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4. Resolve on specific action or policy
5. Tackle the next item on the agenda and repeat #3, #4, etc.
6. Tackle the first item under the Any Other Business
7. Repeat process #3 and #4…etc.
8. Adjourn the meeting
END
• Alternatively, you may use the method whereby members vote by a show of hands, "the question before us is on the adoption of the resolution (state the resolution). Those who are in favor of adopting the resolution that has just been read, please raise the right hand. (After counting) Thank you. You may lower your hands. Those not in favor of adopting the resolution, please raise the right hand. (After counting) Thank you."
• Announce the result of the vote, "Ladies and Gentlemen, the ayes (or the affirmative vote) have (has) it and the motion is carried. (Or, the noes have it and the motion is lost)."
• If the method of voting is by a show of hands, announce, "The affirmative vote carries 18, and the negative vote carries 12. The affirmative vote has it and the motion is therefore carried."
• Announce the next item of the business.
• Invite a member to second the motion.
• If the motion is adopted, state the question on the motion.
• State the time available for debate or discussion.
• Use questions to provoke and stimulate discussion.
• Invite for a motion to put the question.
• Put the question to a vote.
• Announce the result of the vote.
• The procedure to bring any item under "Any Other Business" before the meeting for consideration, discussion, debate, amendment, adoption or rejection is similar to that used for bringing the main items of the business of the day before the meeting.
• Refer to the steps as outlined in #5.
• When all items of the business have been settled and there is no more business pending, invite for a motion to fix date, time and place of the next meeting; invite a member to second the motion.
• Call for a motion to adjourn the meeting; call for a seconder to the motion.
• Put the question to a vote if there is no unanimous consent to adjourn.
• Announce the result and declare that the meeting is adjourned. Thank the members for their attendance and participation.

Trainers' Reference Material #2

Facilitating and Participating in Meetings

From "Organizing for Social Change" by Bobo, Kendall and Max (1991)

I. Guidelines in Planning and Facilitating Meetings

1) Preparation

The following factors must be considered in planning the meeting:

Site: The choice of the meeting site will affect who comes to a meeting. Criteria for choosing a site include:

- Familiarity
- Accessibility
- Adequate facilities.

Timing: Set the meeting at a time that is most convenient for those you want to attend.

Chairperson: Every meeting should have a chairperson whose main job is to facilitate the meeting. It is best to have someone who does not need to present program suggestions or answer lots of questions to serve as the chairperson, who should be free to focus on facilitating the meetings instead of talking. The chairperson should be involved in setting the agenda so that s/he understands it and thinks it is workable.

Agenda: Whoever works on the agenda should assure that participants receive a printed agenda, which should list the topics and provide some background on the discussion. Another helpful tool for the chairperson is to assign suggested time limits for each agenda item. Make sure that everyone leaves with something concrete to do.
For organizational meetings where many decisions will be made, such as board meetings, consider ordering the decisions as follows:

- Easy decisions — ask the group to make a few easy decisions; it gets people off to the right start.
- Hard, controversial decisions — Next, put the hard decisions that require lots of discussions.
- Moderate, non-controversial decisions — At the end, decisions that are of moderate importance, but upon which most people will probably agree. People are tired, so they don't want to debate things. And you want to end the meeting on a harmonious note, if at all possible.

Once an agenda has been developed, review it to ensure that it meets the goals of the meeting. Change it if necessary.

Background materials/proposals: Whoever plans the agenda should identify materials and proposals that would provide the necessary background for people to make good decisions and would save the group time.

Meeting roles: Assign all meeting roles before the actual meeting. There are at least five reasons for people having particular leadership roles in a meeting.

- The first is that someone is good at something — leading a song, facilitating discussion, welcoming people, or whatever.
- The second is that the responsibility is part of someone's role. It is the treasurer's job to give the financial report.
- The third reason for assigning a particular role is political. It would be politically good for your organization if a particular person played a leadership role in the meeting.
- The fourth reason is to develop leaders. People need experience in making presentations and leading discussions in order to develop.
- The fifth it to get people to attend. People will come if they have role to play, thus the more roles you have, the better.

Typical roles in meetings include:

- Facilitator/chairperson. This person sees that the meeting moves forward and follows the agenda, unless the agenda is changed by a vote of the group.
- Notetaker. This person takes notes about the meeting. The person or the facilitator may also write the meeting's main points on a newsprint, which is placed so that everyone attending can see it.
- Timekeeper. A timekeeper reminds the chairperson about the time constraints.
- Presenters. A variety of people can present various programs, ideas and reports, as appropriate to the group. These people should be different from the facilitator/chairperson.
- Tone-setter. This should be a person who can open or close a meeting with a prayer or song.
- Greeter. In large organizational meetings, ask at least one person to welcome new people and get their names and addresses as they enter.

Room Arrangements/Logistics. Before the meeting, assess the actual room you will use in order to plan the room arrangements and logistical details. Possible items to consider include:

- Chair arrangements;
- Places to hand newsprint pads;
- Outlets for audio-visual equipments;
- Place for people to sign in;
- Refreshments;
- Microphone set-ups.

Turn-out. If you want your large membership meetings to be well-attended, make plans to remind people. Do not rely on mailings to get people to a meeting. GROUNDWORK! through telephone if possible or through house-to-house visitations. Explain the issues that will be discussed at the meeting, why they are important and identify points of controversy. If you are hoping for larger number of people, seek the assistance of other people in inviting them.

2. Meeting Facilitation

Being a good facilitator is both a skill and an art. It is a skill in that people can learn certain techniques and can improve their ability with practice. It is an art in that some people just have more of knack for it than others. Some positions in organizations, such as board presidents, require them to facilitate meetings; thus, board presidents must be trained in how to do this.

Because other meetings don't require that particular people act as facilitators, you can draw upon members with the requisite skills. Facilitating a meeting requires someone to:

- Understand the goals of the meeting and the organization.
- Keep the group on the agenda and moving forward;
- Involve everyone in the meeting, both controlling the domineering people and drawing out the shy ones.
- Make sure that decisions are made democratically.

The facilitator must assure that decisions are made, plans are developed, and commitments are made, but in a manner that is enjoyable for all concerned. A good facilitator is concerned about a meeting's contents and style. By having the other roles suggested, such as notetakers and timekeepers, the facilitator has some assistance in moving the agenda along. Here are some guidelines in meeting facilitation.

- Start the meeting promptly.
- Welcome everyone.
- Introduce people.
- Review the agenda
- Set or explain the meeting ground rules, then elicit the commitment of everyone to these ground rules.
- Encourage participation
- Stick to the agenda
- Avoid detailed decision-making
- Move to action
- Seek commitments
- Bring closure to discussions. Reach decisions either by consensus or majority vote, depending on the rules of the organization in making decisions.
- Respect everyone's rights. Encourage quiet and shy people to speak, and don't allow domineering people to ridicule other's ideas or to embarrass them in any fashion.
- Be flexible. Occasionally, issues and concerns that are so important arise. You must alter the agenda to discuss them before returning to the prepared agenda.
- Summarize the meeting results and follow-up. Before closing a meeting, summarize what happened and what follow-up will occur. Review the commitments people made to reinforce them, as well as to remind them how effective the meeting was.
- Thank the people. Take a moment to thank people who prepared things for the meeting, set up the room, brought refreshments, or typed up the agenda. Also thank everyone for making the meeting a success.
- Close the meeting on or before the ending time.

3. Follow-up

There are two main principles for meeting follow-ups: Do it and do it promptly. If meetings are not followed up promptly, much of the work accomplished will be lost. Don't waste people's time by not following up the meeting. There's nothing worse than holding a good planning

meeting, but then allowing decisions and plans to fall through the cracks because follow-up was neglected.

- Make sure that your notetaker prepares the meeting notes after the meeting. Otherwise, s/he will forget what the comments mean, and they will be useless later. Organizers should work with the notetakers to assure that these notes are clear and produced in a timely fashion.
- Call active members who missed the meeting. Tell them you missed them and update them on the meeting's outcome. If you are actively seeking new people, call everyone who indicated that s/he would come, and not just active members.
- Thank people who helped make the meeting successful, including people who brought refreshments, set up chairs, gave presentations, and played particularly positive roles in the meeting. Don't forget to thank the people "backstage," such as the clean-up crew, child care workers, or parking lot security guards.
- Call up the chairperson. Thank him or her for chairing and review the outcome of the meeting with him/her. If appropriate, discuss ways to improve the meeting next time.
- Call new people who came to the meeting. Thank them for coming and see about setting-up one-on-one meetings with people who look like potential leaders. Be sure to follow up people while their interest is still fresh.
- Once the minutes are prepared, write relevant reminder notes in your calendar. For example, if someone agreed to research something by March 15, jot down to call the person on March 7 and inquire about how the research is progressing.
- Before the next meeting, the officers and staff should assure that tasks were agreed to at the last meeting are accomplished. Reports should be prepared for the beginning part of the next meeting.
- Place a copy of the meeting notes in an organizational notebook or file so that everyone knows where the "institutional memory" is kept.

II. Participating in Meetings

Everyone who participates in meetings has a responsibility to help make them a success. We can't always control others, but we can control ourselves. Below are some do's and don'ts for participating in meetings:

Do:

- Personally welcome new people.
- Actively listen to others
- Support the facilitator in moving the agenda ahead.
- Recommend the ways to resolve differences.
- Participate in discussions.
- Encourage new people to speak and volunteer
- Help set up and clean up the room
- Be positive and upbeat throughout the meeting
- Tell a joke or add a light comment to ease the tension in a difficult situation.

Don’t:

- Dominate the discussion
- Dwell on past problems
- Insist that people support your ideas
- Go in and out of meeting room, and do other things that may distract the meeting.

Every meeting is important and must be planned with great attention. With solid planning, good facilitation, and strong follow-up, an organization can move forward in ways that win real victories, give people a sense of their own power and change the relations of power. Meetings play a significant role in achieving your goals and deserve our most attention.

UNIT 4
Problem Solving and Decision Making

THE MAIN MESSAGE

Cooperative leaders are often confronted with problems, which need to be solved either individually or in a team. In order to solve problems systematically, a sequential process of decision making has to be adopted. While decision making does not have to always be related to a problem, problem solving has to be dependently integrated with a systematic decision making process for an effective solution to be developed.

This session deals with techniques and processes which a leader or a team of leaders such as the Board of Directors of cooperatives can use in handling and making decisions on problems. Specifically, this session focuses on the following:

- Definition of problem solving and decision making
- Systematic process of problem solving and decision making
- Application of this problem solving technique in cooperatives.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to help the participants:

1. Understand the importance of problem solving and decision making for effective leadership in cooperatives;
2. Develop knowledge on the systematic process of decision making and problem solving;
3. Effectively integrate the positive feminine and masculine traits in the problem solving process.

Time: two hours

Materials Required :

1. Lead trainer and an assistant trainer
2. White board
3. Marker pens
4. Flip chart board
5. Flip charts
6. Visual aids
7. Overhead projector and screen

8. Pointer
9. Bell
10. Handout

Steps :

1. Ask the participants for examples of problems which their cooperatives have experienced. Tell them to exclude problems which involve interpersonal conflicts between or among the leaders, and/or the members. This type of problems shall be taken up in the next session. Tell them to focus on other operational problems. Examples of problems which are expected to be raised here are:
   - Increasing delinquency rates
   - Declining sales
   - Low attendance in meetings
   - Suspected fraud and misdealing
   - Low representation of women in the leadership structures of the cooperative
   - Unclear delineation of roles and functions between the Board and the management.
   - Inadequate capacity of the Board and management to run the business of the cooperative.
2. Request the participants to state why they think it is important to solve these problems and to know about the systematic ways of problem solving and decision making.

   Allot thirty minutes for steps #1 and #2.
3. Then deliver a lecturette on problem solving and decision making techniques for thirty minutes. Focus your lecture on the following:
   - Definition of problem solving and decision making
   - Systematic process of problem solving and decision making
   - Masculine and feminine traits needed in effective problem solving and decision making.

   Reading materials are provided in this manual to help you with this lecturette.
4. After the lecture, introduce the workshop activity through which the participants will apply the discussed problem solving techniques in common problems of cooperatives.
5. Divide the participants into five groups. Ask each group to choose a common problem of cooperatives in which they will apply the problem solving technique. No two groups should choose the same problem.
6. Remind the participants to use the inputs gained during the lecturette in coming up with proposals on how to solve the problem assigned to their group. Give each group 30 minutes to do their task, and to write their outputs in a manila paper.
7. Then ask each group to present their outputs in creative visual aids and/or other creative techniques, such as drama, pantomime, song, poem or others. Each group will be given twenty minutes to present their piece.
8. Processing could follow now. Please see questions in the Quick Check.
9. Wrap up the session by summing up the learning points, raised during the processing.

Caution/Hints:

Some confusion could arise during the workshop activity. Some participants might complain that there is not enough information. But it should be emphasized that assumptions could be made wherever necessary.

Variation:

Instead of using a deductive learning process, where the session starts with the concept and the participants are to think and go through an exercise on the application of this concept in the actual situation, you may use an inductive learning process. After asking the participants for examples of problems which their cooperatives have experienced, you may immediately divide them into small groups. Ask each small group to choose one common problem of the cooperative, and to discuss in their small groups their own methods, including the sequential steps, in solving these problems.

In this process, the lecturette will, hence, serve to validate or enhance the concepts and methods of the participants in problem solving and decision making.

Quick Check:

1. Do you think you have gained adequate knowledge on problem solving and decision making?
2. Ask this question from each of the five groups.
   - Was a group leader appointed? If not, how did you go through the process of finding a solution?
   - Did you all agree with the final solution to the issue?
   - Could you think of any other alternatives?
3. Is this process applicable in cooperatives? Why?

Trainers' Reference Material

Problem Solving and Decision Making

I. Introduction

1. What is a problem and what is problem solving?

A problem denotes a gap between a desired state and the actual state. If the gap is very broad, it is considered to be a major or a serious problem. If the gap is narrower, then the problem is of minor nature and may not be that serious.

How do we assess the gaps? There is no universal yardstick to measure a gap. The measurement differs from person to person, or from an organization to another organization. In fact what is viewed as a problem by one, could be viewed as no problem by another. In identifying problems in an organization, however, leaders should not confuse the symptoms of a problem with the problem itself. This shall be further discussed in the problem solving process part which is in the succeeding pages of this paper.

A problem has to be recognized at an early stage so that finding solutions could be much easier. If a problem is not handled well it could lead to a web of problems, which become quite complicated later on. Any problem requires a solution. **The process of finding a solution to a problem is called problem solving.**

In today's context the promoters of positive thinking consider the use of the word problem very negative. It is suggested that a problem be viewed as a challenge or opportunity rather than in negative sense, such as a hindrance to the achievement of a goal.

2. What is a decision and what is decision making?

A decision is a choice made from a list of alternative courses of action on how to solve a problem. The process of choosing from among the alternative courses of action on how to resolve a problem is called decision making. This implies thus that problem solving involves the process of decision making.

Decision making is an important and very critical responsibility of a leader or team of leaders, especially in the face of problems or challenges. It is also essentially done during the planning activities of the organization. Though the leadership can share its decision making power with the membership, ultimately, however, it is the leadership who must take on the cudgels of the implications and consequences of organizational decision making process — both its process and output.

So much of a leader's time is spent in making decisions that some researchers view leaders primarily as decision-makers. As a result, one key criteria used to evaluate the effectiveness of leaders is on the basis of the number, importance and quality of their decisions.

II. The Decision Making Process

Leaders make decisions in a variety of ways. In other words, there is no universal formula on how to make a decision. Nonetheless, for the purpose of systematizing the process of problem solving and decision, management experts developed general sequential steps to the process.

Experts view decision making process with six steps: 1) identifying the problem; 2) generating possible courses of action; 3) evaluating the identified courses of action; 4) selecting the best

action; 5) implementing the decision; and 6) evaluating the decision. Each step is explained below:

Stage I – Problem Identification and Analysis

Identifying, defining and analyzing a problem is not easy. But the more information one has concerning both the external realities and the internal forces at work in a situation the easier it will be to define and analyze a problem.

As earlier mentioned, it is important to distinguish symptoms from problems, for too often symptoms are treated while problems remain unsolved. Symptoms merely signal that a problem exists. For instance, a low attendance in general assemblies is a symptom of a problem — not the problem itself. The symptom, however, is significant because it lets the leader know that a problem exists. Then, through investigation and analysis of information, the leaders can identify the problem. In the case of low attendance in general assemblies, the problem might be that the needs and concerns of the members are not adequately responded to by the cooperative, the flow of information to and from the membership is not effective, the interpersonal skills of the Board members are poor, and others

Stage II – Search for Information and Generate Alternatives or Possible Courses of Action

Once the problem has been defined, leaders as decision-makers must decide what they are going to do about it. In other words, they have to brainstorm on the possible means or alternatives to solve it? In order to identify possible solutions it is necessary to search for as much information as possible, that is relevant and within time limits.

The importance of generating alternative courses of action is often overlooked because of the time and effort involved. In the pursuit of a “quick fix,” leaders too often shortchange this step by failing to consider more than one or two alternatives, which reduces the opportunity to identify effective solutions. Leaders need to resist the urge to begin evaluating the proposed alternative solutions (Step 3) before completing the second stage. By holding off on alternative evaluation, the leader helps ensure the generation of as many alternatives as possible, increasing the likelihood that the “best” alternative will be among those considered as possible solutions.

Remember that at this stage the leaders only look at probable solutions as alternatives and no final decision must be taken as yet.

To the problem of low attendance in meetings, alternative solutions that might be included are the following: 1) rendering of sanctions to non-attending members; 2) termination of membership for non-attendance; 3) dissolution of cooperative for failing to conduct the general assembly; 4) identification of needs and concerns of members which the cooperative has not addressed; 5) training of leaders in interpersonal skills; 6) systematization of flow of information to and from the membership. It is important to realize that if decision makers do not give sufficient time to this alternative-generation phase, it could result in the dissolution of the cooperative, or sanctioning or termination of non-attending members, when, in fact, the best alternative is a combination of identifying and satisfying the needs and concerns of members, and interpersonal skills training of the Board.

Stage III – Evaluate Alternatives

After generating a list of alternatives, the task of evaluating each alternative begins. Numerous

methods exist for evaluating the alternatives, including determining the "pros and cons" of each, performing a cost-benefit analysis, and weighting factors important in the decision, and ranking each alternative relative to its ability to meet each factor. Regardless of the method used, it is during this third step of the decision-making process that the decision maker evaluates each alternative in terms of its feasibility (can it be done?), its effectiveness (how well does it resolve the problem situation?), and its consequences (what will it be its costs — financial and non-financial — to the organization?).

On the problem of low attendance of general assemblies, the decision makers evaluate the feasibility, effectiveness, and projected outcomes/consequences of each of the generated alternatives: sanctioning of non-attending members, terminating non-attendees, dissolution of the cooperative; identification and satisfaction of key needs and concerns of the members which the cooperative has failed to address; training of leaders, systematization of the flow of information to and from the members.

Stage IV – Choose the Best Alternative

After the decision makers have evaluated all the alternatives, the next step is the choosing of the best alternative. Obviously, the selection of the best alternative will depend on the evaluation method used. The best alternative could be the one with the most "pros" and the fewest "cons"; the one with the greatest benefits and the lowest costs; or the one with highest rank if evaluated based on a list of factors.

However, even with a thorough evaluation process, the best alternative may not be obvious. It is at this point that managers must decide which alternative has the highest combined level of feasibility and effectiveness, coupled with the lowest cost to the organisation. The decision makers can analyze each alternative in terms of its probability of success; then, they select the alternative with the highest probability of being successful.

With the problem of low attendance in general assemblies, an evaluation of the alternatives could reveal that the combination of identifying and satisfying the needs and concerns of members, training in interpersonal skills, and systematization of flow of information have the highest probability of success in resolving the problem.

Stage V – Implement the Decision

Many good decisions fail because little has been done to "prepare" people for the implementation. The decision must be communicated properly, support for it must be organized, and the necessary resources must be allotted to implement it. Leaders should not unrealistically assume that once they have made a decision, their role is over, or action on it will automatically follow.

Proper implementation of a decision involves much the same steps as implementation of plans. Individuals or groups whose support will be needed to implement the decision effectively should be considered from the very beginning of the decision making process. Often their support can be obtained by allowing them to contribute in some way to the decision. Finally, feedback systems that serve as "early warning" signals or controls by providing progress information should be installed. If implementation is not proceeding according to plan, then a new decision or redirection may be warranted.

Implementing the best courses of action for the resolution of the problem of low attendance in general assemblies may involve visiting the members in their houses and interviewing them on their views on the cooperative including the performance of its leaders, their needs and concerns which they think the cooperative must also address, and others. If the number of members is

big, then these tasks of visiting and interviewing the members must be shared by an adequate number of people.

Step VI - Evaluate the Decision

In evaluating the decision, the leaders gather information on the effectiveness of their decision. Has the problem been resolved? If not totally resolved, are there improvements?

If an implemented decision has not resolved the problem, the leader must determine why the decision making process failed. The following questions may be asked in this situation.

- Was the wrong alternative selected? If so, one of the other alternatives generated in the decision making process might be a wiser choice.
- Was the correct alternative selected, but implemented improperly? If so, attention should be focused on Step 5 to ensure that the chosen alternative is implemented successfully.

III. Key feminine and masculine traits needed in problem solving and decision making

Understanding and acknowledging the importance of the integrated use of key feminine and masculine traits in decision making, and that its balanced use can be enhanced in all leaders, both women and men, can help improve the process of problem solving and decision making. Some of these traits are the following:

Feminine Traits	Masculine Traits
1. Use of intuition in decision making. Since the collection and analysis of data and alternative solution can be laborious, time consuming, expensive process which leaders may not have the luxury to undertake, intuitive decision making, which is a function of right brain, at times is a necessity for organizational survival.	1. Use of logic and analysis in understanding a problem.
2. Sensitivity to own feelings and to the feelings of people involved in the problem.	2. Ability to block emotions from interfering with logic, and hence, avoiding the non-productive and counterproductive responses of leaders to problems.
3. Concern for the sustenance and enhancement of relationships	3 Concern for the resolution of the substantive aspect of the problem
4. Concern for the responsibility of each person to another.	4. Concern for the rights of individuals in organizations
5. Concern for process (including the participation of people)	5. Concern for outputs.
6. Urging people to look inward.	6. Urging people to be objective, and search for external data and evidences.

The above feminine and masculine traits can be integrated for a more effective problem solving and decision making process, such as the following:

1. Leaders and managers need to acknowledge the importance of the use of their intuition in decision making, but they must moderate its use with logic and analysis.
2. Leaders and managers must realize when and how their feelings are affecting their decision making, and when and how the feelings of other people serve to indicate the level of seriousness of a problem.
3. Substantive aspect of the problem must be addressed and resolved without negatively affecting but rather enhancing the relationships of people involved.
4. Both individual rights and responsibility of each one to other people must be taken into consideration in the resolution of problems.
5. Importance must be given both to the quality of process and outputs of the decision making.
6. In the decision making process, leaders must be encouraged to both look inward (own participation in conflict, and the changes needed in the self) and outward (external factors causing the problem, and changes in the environment that must be done).

Reference

Gatewood, R., Taylor, R & Ferrell, O.C. (1995). Management: Comprehension, analysis and application. pp. 305-308. USA: Austen Press.

UNIT 5
Conflict Management/Resolution

THE MAIN MESSAGE

This session deals with tools and concepts that will help women leaders of cooperatives effectively make use of conflicts to better their cooperatives' operations. Specifically, the following will be discussed in this session:

- Conflict analysis
- Different responses to conflict
- Principles and techniques of negotiation

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

This session aims to help the participants to:

1. Diagnose conflicts;
2. Choose the appropriate response to a conflict; and
3. Effectively negotiate for conflict resolution or management

Time Requirements: 4 1/2 hours

Identification and Analysis of Conflict: 30 minutes

Workshop on how to handle conflicts: 90 minutes (including plenary reporting)

Lecture: 90 minutes

Workshop: 30 minutes

Processing: 30 minutes

Materials Required

1. Paper and pens
2. Flip chart and board
3. Marker pens
4. Visual aids
5. Overhead projector and screen

Steps:

1. In plenary, ask the participants for their definition of conflict. Write their answers on the flip chart. Then synthesize their answers. If there is a need to enhance the definition, then do so. The reading materials of this session can guide you in helping them come up with a good definition of conflict.

2. When an evoked and enhanced definition of conflict is already written on the board, then ask them for concrete examples of conflicts. On one side of the board, write conflicts experienced outside of the cooperative; then on the other side of the board, write conflicts experienced in the cooperative. Some of the possible answers on conflicts experienced within the cooperative are the following:
   - Men smoke during meetings.
   - Women-members feel that men dominate the discussions.
   - Chairperson makes decisions without consulting the Board.
   - Knowledge of key activities and decision-making process are centered only on the Chairperson and the manager. Other Board members and staff are left in the process.
   - One member of the Board by-passes the role of the manager.
3. Divide the participants into five small groups. Allow each small group to choose any conflict of cooperatives that are written on the board. Two or more groups can be allowed to choose the same conflict. Ask each small group to discuss the process and techniques which they will use in handling the conflict. Give them thirty minutes for this workshop.
4. Ask each small group to share their thoughts on how to handle their chosen conflict. Give each small group ten minutes to explain their process and techniques in handling the conflict.
5. Summarize the process and techniques shared by all the small groups on how to handle the conflicts by identifying and highlighting the commonalities and particularities.
6. Give a lecture on conflict management/resolution. The following must be discussed in this lecture:
   - Conflict analysis
   - Responses to conflict
   - Principles and techniques of the mutual gains approach to negotiation
7. Ask the small groups to go back to their chosen conflicts. Using the concepts and techniques discussed in the lecture, ask them to discuss the possible improvements to their handling of the conflict. Give them thirty minutes to do this.
8. Ask each small group to share their discussion outputs. Give each small group five minutes to share their improvements of their handling of the conflict based on the lecture.
9. Process the session by asking the participants to answer questions in the quick check form.

Caution/Hints

Because of the complexity of some conflicts, and of the possibility for some participants to experience cognitive dissonance with the conflict management/resolution concepts and techniques presented in the lecture (especially if the participants are used to an adversarial way of handling conflicts and if they do not believe in the achievement of mutually gainful solutions to conflicts), the participants may need more time for small group and plenary discussion. They may also need more exercises to understand the concepts. If this is so, be flexible with the time, and be prepared for more exercises.

Variation:

To prepare for the possibility that the participants would need more exercises and discussions to understand the concepts and techniques of the mutual gains approach to negotiation and mediation, you may develop and write cases of conflicts in cooperatives. After the lecture, you may use the case method to deepen the participants' knowledge and skills in handling conflicts. Simulated negotiation on conflicts within the cooperative can also be done.

Quick Check

1. What new things did you learn from this session? What among your knowledge has been affirmed? What concepts and techniques remain vague to you?

Please write your answers to the above questions in the following format.

New Learning	Affirmed knowledge and views about conflict handling	Vague concepts and techniques

2. Is the mutual gains approach to negotiation and mediation applicable to conflicts in your cooperatives ? (Please check one answer.)

   ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Yes in some areas, but not in other areas

If yes or no, why do you think so? _____

_____

_____

If yes and no, in what areas is it applicable and not applicable? Answer this question in the following format:

Areas where applicable	Areas where not applicable

3. What are your suggestions to improve this session? _____

_____

_____

Trainers' Reference Material

The Mutual Gains Approach to Negotiation

I. Introduction

Conflicts are situations of disagreements and clashes. This conflict can be within a person, called inner conflict, where the values and principles, and knowledge, for example, of a person are in conflict with her/his action at a particular situation. The inner conflict becomes serious when the pattern of behavior of a person no longer agrees with her/his cognitive state, or her/his knowledge, beliefs and principles. Inevitably, because of the internal dissonance, the person will feel a certain level of internal dis-ease. This dis-ease will cause him/her to find ways to reach inner harmony again. Either s/he changes his/her actions or pattern of behavior, or s/he transforms his/her beliefs, values and principles. To stress, a person can choose his/her responses to inner conflicts, and all other types of conflicts for that matter.

A conflict can also be between and among individuals, groups and structures. If between or among individuals, then it is an interpersonal conflict; if between or among groups, then it is a social conflict; if it is between or among structures, then it is a structural conflict. These different types of conflicts abound in this world, and cooperatives are not exempted. Inevitably, since cooperatives are comprised and run by human beings, who are naturally inclined to experience conflicts, then conflicts, definitely, are also present within them. Or cooperatives may experience conflict with people, groups and other structures in its external environment.

Since the existence of conflicts is natural, then it can be assumed that it has its purpose. Reflecting on experiences of conflict, we can surmise that conflicts help a person, group, organizations, societies to better itself, if conflicts are effectively responded upon. With this view of conflicts, then it is important for the leaders of cooperatives to have the basic knowledge and skills on how to effectively respond to conflicts. This quality of a leader can even be considered as a requirement for all leaders of any organizations.

To focus the discussion of conflicts, this paper/session will only deal with organizational and interpersonal conflicts. Handling of personal or inner conflicts has somehow been touched in the module on personal development of this manual.

II. Conflict Analysis

Varied ways of analyzing the types and causes of conflict, and of coming up with a conflict map have already been proposed. One way is the *Sphere of Conflict* (Moore, 1986). As shown in Figure 1, the *Sphere of Conflict* identifies five possible types of conflicts, namely: conflicts in data, relationships, values, structures, and interests.

The following is a definition of each type of conflict (CDR Associates, 1994; CO Multiversity, 1996):

> ***Data conflicts*** occur when people lack information necessary to make wise decisions; are misinformed; disagree over what data is relevant; interpret information differently; or try to manipulate the data to support their favored outcome.
>
> ***Value conflicts*** are caused by parties trying to impose their differing values on each other.

Values are beliefs that people use to define for themselves what is right or wrong, good or bad, worthy or unworthy, just or unjust. Differing values do not themselves cause conflict. People can live together in harmony with other people who hold quite different value systems. Values dispute arise when people attempt to force their own set of values on others, lay claims exclusive value systems which do not allow for divergent beliefs or judge others harshly because of differing values.

Relationship problems occur because of the presence of strong negative emotions, which cloud rational thinking, misperceptions or stereotypes resulting in misunderstanding; prior negative history with the person or similar situation producing antagonistic attitudes, lack of communication or destructive communication in tone, word or form, or negative repetitive behaviors.

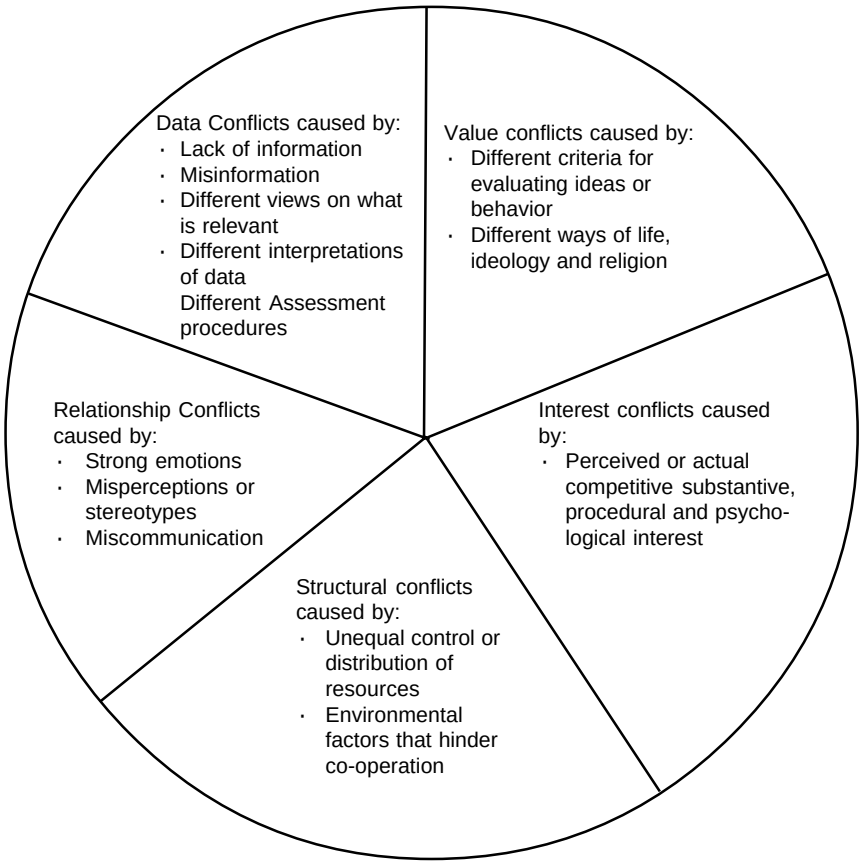
Structural conflicts relate to limiting factors, external to the parties, which create difficulties that are un-resolvable by the parties involved. This type of conflict may include lack of resources, such as money, personnel and other physical goods, lack of time, lack of decision making authority, geographical distance between the conflicting parties, and constraining rules or laws. These structural limits present obstacles and limit options available to the parties in resolving their issues, and hence, often creates considerable frustration.

Interest conflicts occur when one or more parties believe that in order to satisfy their own interests or needs, those of an opponent must be sacrificed. Interest-based conflicts occur in three kinds of interests: 1) substantive interests which are tangible and measurable needs, such as resources, money, land, and others; 2) procedural interest which refers tp the way a dispute is resolved including the need for participation, a clear and orderly process of decision-making, and sufficient information and time to understand and apply the information; and 3) psychological interests, which include the need to be trusted, respected, and recognized, and the need for self-esteem.

1. Cultural Perspective to Conflict

In analyzing the common features of these five conflict types, one will be able to identify cultural causes for each type. By culture, we refer to shared values and beliefs that legitimate social practices. And when we say that the causes of conflicts are cultural, we mean that they can be essentially described as problems arising from competing or discordant values, beliefs and social practices of the people in conflict.

Figure 1: Spheres of Conflict



In reviewing the list of causes of each type of conflict, the following can be categorized as cultural:

- Data conflict — different views on what is relevant, different interpretations of data, and different assessment procedures.
- Value conflict — different ways of life, ideology and religion.
- Relationship conflicts — misperceptions or stereotypes and miscommunication;
- Structural conflicts — different views of power leading to unequal control and distribution of resources;
- Interest conflicts — difference views on whose interests are of greater importance.

Hence, the Sphere of Conflict, as a type of conflict diagnostic tool, shows many conflict types to be essentially cultural. Christopher Moore in his later work with Peter Woddrow (1999) also acknowledged this cultural underpinnings of conflicts, and thereby offered a framework for understanding cultural differences and for negotiating accordingly. They said that people "…fail to negotiate the most favourable agreements possible or to resolve serious conflicts due to cultural misunderstanding. " For this reason, they advised intercultural negotiators to develop a "culture map" that will help them:

- Identify the general 'topography' of cultures — the beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, procedures and social structures that shape human interactions;
- Identify potential hazards, obstacles, and pleasant surprises that they might miss if they did not have a trusty guide; and
- Select responses that will promote successful interactions and outcomes.

Conflicts, however, do not happen only between and among individuals and groups or communities with different cultures. Conflicts also can arise within a specific socio-cultural environment. To explain this phenomenon, Charon (1998) said:

> … Societies deal with an ever-changing environment. Culture is communicated, tried out, applied and altered by cooperative individuals in real situations. Like anything else, if it works there is reason to continuously use it; if it does not work exactly right, then it is altered. Culture represents the stability of the group, yet stability cannot be complete, because situations always involve some adjustments on the part of the cooperative group. Society is a complex interplay of consensus and change, carried on through ongoing interaction and action.

As an interpretation of Charon's statement, we can say that conflict arises within a culture when a sector in this cultural environment no longer finds their social practices and shared values and beliefs to be favorable to their side or in accordance to their transformed ideas and reading of the environment. Given this situation, this sector begins to seek for changes in their social practices. Negotiation on how to change social practices, therefore, occurs. If the negotiation fails, then the more powerful group takes control of the direction of cultural change. If that happens, another form of social interaction among these individuals and sectors develops; and this change in the social interaction leads to another type of culture. The resulting shared values, ideas and beliefs legitimizes the effecting social interaction and social practices. And these social practices that have been legitimized by shared values and beliefs influence human psyche and behavior.

In analyzing conflicts as mainly cultural, we are not, however, saying that conflicts are realities that cannot be resolved, and hence, should merely be accepted as given situations. Culture can be negotiated because together we can define our social practices and our ways of interacting with each other. This last point, however, is easier said than done. This is because people have different ways of responding to conflicts.

2. The non-cultural aspects of conflicts

This session/paper highlights the cultural perspective to conflict mainly because the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives, as well as in the whole society, is a response to a cultural conflict — a conflict in how to view the worth, roles, capacities and human rights of women and men. Another reason of course is the acknowledgement that many conflicts, indeed, are cultural. In many conflict situations, parties hang on to their views and positions on a problem not to save face and to escape guilt and sanctions or other forms of punishment, but that they really believe that their views and positions are rational and legitimate.

Nonetheless, there are other conflicts which can be said to be non-cultural — not caused by difference in values, in understanding and beliefs on certain things — but rather caused by material situations. These non-cultural conflicts can be said to be caused by the similarities of individuals and groups. Two or more individuals or groups may have similar needs and wants, but the source of satisfaction of these needs and wants are limited. They have the same

cultural views of the importance of such needs and wants. Thus, these similarities, because of the objective condition of limitedness of resources, also lead to conflicts. For instance, they may clamor for the same land, for the same position in the leadership structure, for same full access to the same limited sources of funds, etc. This can be said to be material rather than cultural because of the objectivity of the causes of the conflict. Nonetheless, this type of conflict can also eventually boil down as cultural because the probable question to ask at the stage of conflict confrontation is on who has prior right to the limited source of needs and wants satisfaction. Again, the answer to this question is based on one's own views and beliefs.

III. Responses to Conflicts

Nine types of responses to conflicts can be identified in diverse kinds of conflicts. A person or group can choose any of these types. But the most appropriate response to the conflict usually depends on the nature of the conflict, and the disposition of the disputants. These responses are the following:

1. Ignoring the conflict

This is a response where a person physically and psychologically move away from the source of the conflict and from thinking about the conflict. This response may be appropriate when a conflict is trivial or when it does not at all shake the fundamental principles, and dignity of the person. This can be appropriate also in situation when the passing of time is deemed to be the right healer of the conflict.

2. Finding someone to blurt it out or to seek counseling

This is an appropriate response to a conflict when after an emotional out-pouring — of frustrations, bad feelings, and others — a person is helped to become more objective or to see that the conflict is not that serious, or to reframe the situation such that s/he is able to understand and see the other party in a better or positive light.

3. Negotiation

This is when two or more individuals or groups voluntarily discuss their differences and attempt to reach a joint decision on their common concerns.

4. Mediation

This is negotiation facilitated or assisted by an acceptable, impartial and neutral third party.

5. Arbitration

This is a decision making process where a third party hears a dispute, then renders decision which can be binding or non-binding.

6. Seeking administrative decision

This is a response to conflicts involving interpretations or implementation of policies and regulations of an organization. In such conflict, the Board and assigned decision making body may simply make administrative decisions to resolve the problem.

7. Litigation

This is when a conflict is subjected to court proceedings.

8. Metalegal tactics

This is the use of pressure by a big group of people to force an authority to consider and make decisions favorable to their needs and interests. Examples of metalegal tactics are: rallies, civil disobedience, pickets, hunger strike and others.

Though the appropriate response to a conflict will depend, as earlier mentioned, on the nature of the conflict and on the disposition (e.g. level of emotion, willingness to subject conflict to a negotiation or mediation, and others), still, if possible and appropriate, this session promotes the use of dialogue, in the form of negotiation and mediation, in resolving the conflict. But a dialogue can only resolve or manage conflicts only if the functional ingredients for conflict resolution or management are present, namely: (Walton, 1987)

- Mutual positive motivation to resolve or manage the conflict — both have the drive to resolve or manage the conflict;
- Balance in situational power — power imbalances tend to inhibit the disputant from advancing their respective views in a clear and forceful manner;
- An optimum level of tension — the tension is moderate in such a way that the disputants are still open to consider alternatives; and
- Synchronization of confrontation efforts — both parties must be ready to confront the conflict.

IV. Principles and Techniques of Negotiation

If the above ingredients are present, or are made present with the assistance of a third party, then at all cost, it is worthwhile to try negotiation or mediation. For negotiation and mediation to achieve its objective of helping conflicting parties to reach a mutually acceptable and gainful solution to their problem, the following principles are proposed to be considered: (Fisher & Ury, 1991; CO Multiversity, 1996)

1. Make a sound diagnosis of the conflict. Identify and aim to address people problems and substantive problems.

   Negotiators are human beings with emotions, with differing and maybe incompatible personalities, and even conflicting perspectives, perceptions and values. These inherent characteristics of people may be brought to the negotiation table. Hence, aside from the substantive problems, there are other problems that may obstruct the reaching of agreement during negotiation. There maybe emotional outbursts, miscommunication, different perceptions on the situation, and others.

   What is important is the careful identification of the types and sources of conflicts. Is it a data conflict? a values conflict? relationship conflict? structural conflict? Conflict in interests? Or a combination of two or more these types of conflicts. With this painstaking analysis of the problem, the responses to the people problem do not get intertwined with the responses to the substantive problems. Appropriate responses to each type of conflict are, thus, very well though of. For instance, examples of responses to each type of conflict in the Sphere of Conflict are the following: (CDR Associates, 1994; CO Multiversity, 1996).

Type of Conflict	Possible Responses
Data Conflict	• Help each other decide on: 1) the information needed; 2) the credible way of gathering the information; and 3) how the information should be interpreted.
Values Differences	• Help educate each other about your differing values and values; • Agree to disagree • Find common values, and focus on them (e.g. harmony in the organization, smooth interpersonal relations, etc.)
Relationship Problems	• First recognize and understand emotions and personality compulsions, theirs and yours. • Make emotions explicit and acknowledge them as legitimate. • Allow the other side to cool down; • Manage your own emotions. Don't react to emotional outbursts; • Actively listen.
Structural Problems	• Identify structural problems, which are problems beyond the capacity of both parties, and the negotiation or mediation process, to resolve. • If both parties still agree to talk about their problems, the structural problems must be considered as a given situation or as a parameter of their decisions. Otherwise, they may agree to confront the source of their conflict, which can be unclear or unfair policies, poor communication system and others.
Differing or conflicting Interests	Negotiate effectively!

Data conflicts, values differences and problems in relationship can be considered as people problems; the structural conflict is a substantive problem; and interest conflict is both a substantive and people problem. By clearly identifying the different types of conflict, and separating the people problem from the substantive, with due recognition of the need to address people problems as well, then the negotiation is on its good start.

2. Focus on interests, not on positions

   Interest refers to the reasons behind the positions. These are the needs, aspirations, misgivings, frustrations and fears of a person or a group. Position, on the other hand, are actions that aim to satisfy the interests. If you ask a person why his/her position is such, the reason is because this position will satisfy his/her interests.

   Focusing on interests rather than on position is important because there are situations where positions are conflicting, but the underlying reasons — the interests — are not! For example, a couple argues about there to spend their afternoon. The woman wants to go the shopping mall; while the man wants to see a movie. If both are adamant, they may argue endless until they decide to spend their afternoon separately. But if for instance, the women wants to go to the mall to escape the heat of the afternoon (malls are usually well air-conditioned), while the man wants to go to a movie to rest, then the interests — or the needs — behind the positions are not conflicting. They can find a common place,

maybe not in the mall nor in a movie house, which is cool and where they can both rest together. Focusing on interests may lead to a happy ending, because though the positions are not fulfilled, the underlying reasons, however, are satisfied. Of course, the crucial point is that interests must be common, compatible and not conflicting. Otherwise, they have to accept the reality the a mutually acceptable solution is not possible.

For a negotiation to reach a mutually acceptable and gainful solution to a problem, all efforts must then be exerted in exploring, understanding and analyzing the interests of all parties until common or compatible interests are identified.

3. Inventing Options for Mutual Gains

   After identifying the common and compatible interests, the search for appropriate actions that would satisfy the interests follows. The process starts with the invention of as many options as possible through brainstorming. This step must be clearly separated from the process of making the final decision on which of the options best satisfies the interests of all parties. In the brainstorming stage, all options raised are accepted and noted. There is, hence, no outright rejection of suggestions. Even the original positions of all parties can be included in the list of options. To make the process effective, the participation of all parties in the creation of option must be ensured.

4. Insist on the use of objective criteria in the selection of the final solution

   There may be situations where the options are not conflicting. Hence, they can all be combined into one agreement. If this is the situation, there is no problem. The succeeding steps that must undertaken are: for parties to agree on the final formulation of the agreement, to plan on the implementation of the agreement, and to ensure that everyone commits to the implementation of the plan.

   If the situation is otherwise, for instance the options cannot be combined and the parties are obliged to choose from among the listed options, then objective criteria of a fair and just solution to the problem must be developed. An objective criteria is a scientifically proven and widely accepted and documented basis of fairness. This could be a result of a scientific survey, or an organizational policy, or a memorandum of agreement, and others.

   The negotiator must, however, be careful in his/her process of insisting for objective criteria as s/he may revert back to hard negotiation style. If negotiators cannot agree on the objective criteria, then the intervention of a mutually acceptable, impartial third party may be needed.

5. Developing one's Best Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement or BATNA

   One may be confused with the need for negotiations when better alternative solutions are available and can be undertaken. The answer is: Although a negotiator has a BATNA, still a resolution reached through negotiation is less costly, and relationships enhancing. Nevertheless, the role of BATNA is to help a negotiator keep calm and be reasonable during the negotiation process. With a developed BATNA, a negotiator cannot be intimidated by the other party because s/he can always remind him/herself that s/he does not have to give in nor bully the other party to give in because s/he has an alternative course of action if the negotiation fails.

Three types of BATNA have been identified: (Ury, 1991)

a) The "walk-away" alternative. In this BATNA, the negotiator decided to satisfy his/her interests even without the other party. One example is when an employee negotiates for a higher salary and the manager refuses to listen to his/her case, then the employee can decide to find another job which offers the salary s/he asks for. For this BATNA to serve as a power in negotiation, this alternative job must already be known and available to the employee before s/he negotiates with the manager.

b) The "inter-active" alternative. In this BATNA, the negotiator proves to the other party that they (the other party) will find it difficult to resolve the problem without considering their (negotiator) needs and concerns. Through the use of this type of BATNA, the other party will realize that resolving the problem through negotiation is better than having no negotiation at all. Examples of this type of BATNA are pressure tactics, such as rallies, boycott, picket, etc.

c) The "third party" alternative. When the negotiation seems to lead to failure, one alternative to consider is to seek the mediation of third party, or the assistance of a "go-between," or to bring the case to the court.

With the above principles and techniques, the mutual gains approach to negotiation can be said to be a dispute resolution/management method whereby:

- Power is shared (a feminine trait);
- The concerns of the others side are acknowledged without neglecting one's own concerns and interests (integration of feminine and masculine traits);
- A process whereby the negotiators act in a logical, analytical, systematic and trustworthy manner (integration of feminine and masculine traits); and
- Substantive issues are resolved while relationships are sustained and even further enhanced (integration of masculine and feminine traits).

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* The term "mutual gains approach to negotiation" was coined by the Consensus Building Institute of Cambridge, MA, USA.

Leadership Training Manual for Women Leaders of Cooperatives

MODULE

5

Coping with Challenges

MODULE 5
Coping with Challenges

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MODULE 5
Coping With Challenges

Overview

I. OBJECTIVES

This module is an 18-hours- training activity which aims to:

1. Provide the women-trainees with basic knowledge and skills on how to cope up with the challenges of becoming leaders of their cooperatives, as well as of the advocacy for gender equality and equity in cooperatives. These knowledge and skills include:
   - How to manage personal and organizational changes;
   - The relevance and techniques of networking, lobbying and campaigning;
   - Personal sustainability measures, such as stress management; and
   - How to make a difference in cooperatives.
2. Enlighten the minds and hearts of women trainees that they, if imbued with self-confidence, equipped with critical knowledge and skills, and endowed with compassionate and humble hearts, can become phenomenal women in their cooperatives.
3. Deepen the commitment of the women trainees to the achievement of gender equity and equality in their cooperatives.

II. OVERVIEW OF MODULE UNITS

Units	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 1: Managing Personal Change	This session aims to help the women trainees be able to face and manage personal changes resulting from their advocacy for gender equity and equality in the cooperatives by: 1. Equipping them with knowledge and skills on how to analyze and effectively respond to change. 2. Helping them develop their confidence in anticipating and in leading change in their personal lives.	• Types of Change • Causes and Sources of Change • Sources of Resistance to Change • Motivators to face or initiate change • Perspectives to the Change Process • Change Management Process: – Analyzing the demand for change – Creating a positive thirst for change – Choosing a strategy and making an action plan – Implementing and evaluating change • Ways of Managing Personal Change	3 1/2 hours

Units	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 2: Managing Organizational Change	To provide the trainees with framework and tools on how to respond to the challenges of the changing situations of their cooperatives.	Same as "Managing Personal Change," in the context of the cooperative	3 hours
Unit 3: Networking	This session aims to: 1. Enhance the understanding of the women-trainees on the importance of linking with the right people, at the right time and at the right place and with the right intention, for the achievement of gender equality and equity in cooperatives, as well as for their pursuance of leadership positions in their cooperatives. 2. Provide the trainees with concepts and tools in networking.	• Definition and types of networking • Requirements and tips in personal networking – Purpose of personal networking – Identification of people to network with – Tips in building and nurturing networks – Qualities of an effective network builder • Requirements and tips in organizational networking – Core patterns of networking – Network management style – Challenges of network management	3 ½ hours
Unit 4: Lobbying and Campaigning	This session aims to: 1. Orient the trainees on the nature and purpose of lobbying and campaigning as approaches to win the support of the government and of the general public, respectively; 2. Provide the trainees with tips on how to effectively undertake lobbying and campaigning.	• Definitions of lobbying and campaigning • Tips in effective lobbying and campaigning	4 hours

Units	Objectives	Contents	Number of Hours
Unit 5: Stress Management	This session aims to help women gain personal sustainability in the face of difficult challenges of leadership in cooperatives by: 1. Providing them with concepts for a deeper understanding of stress, stressors and stress symptoms; 2. Equipping them with tools to help them manage their own personal stresses, and lead their cooperatives in coming up with necessary organizational interventions to help leaders and members who are in stress.	• Definition of stress • Sources of stress • Stress symptoms • Stress management interventions	2 hours

UNIT 1
Managing Personal Change

THE MAIN MESSAGE

All individuals, groups, organizations, societies and nations experience change. Some changes are planned, while others are emergent; some come gradually, and inconspicuously, others radically and dramatically. Some of these changes are within control, and others are beyond control. Nonetheless, all of these changes, whatever they are and however they come, affect all aspects of life. For this reason, the only best way to take charge of life is to take a proactive approach to change.

Because of the importance of taking a proactive stance to change, the acquisition of skills to effectively manage change is necessary for women to cope up with the challenges of assuming and seeking for leadership positions in cooperatives. With this view, this session tackles topics that will provide the women trainees with knowledge and skills in managing changes that occur and will occur in their personal lives a result of their pursuit for gender equity and equality. The challenge to manage changes in the organizational level will be tackled in another session of this module.

Specifically, this session will discuss the following points on change management at a personal level:

- Types of Change
- Causes and Sources of Personal Change
- Sources of Resistance to Personal Change
- Motivators to face or initiate change
- Perspectives to the Change Process
- Ways of managing personal change

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

This session aims to help the women trainees be able to cope up with the challenges of the need to face and manage personal changes resulting from their advocacy for gender equity and equality in the cooperatives by:

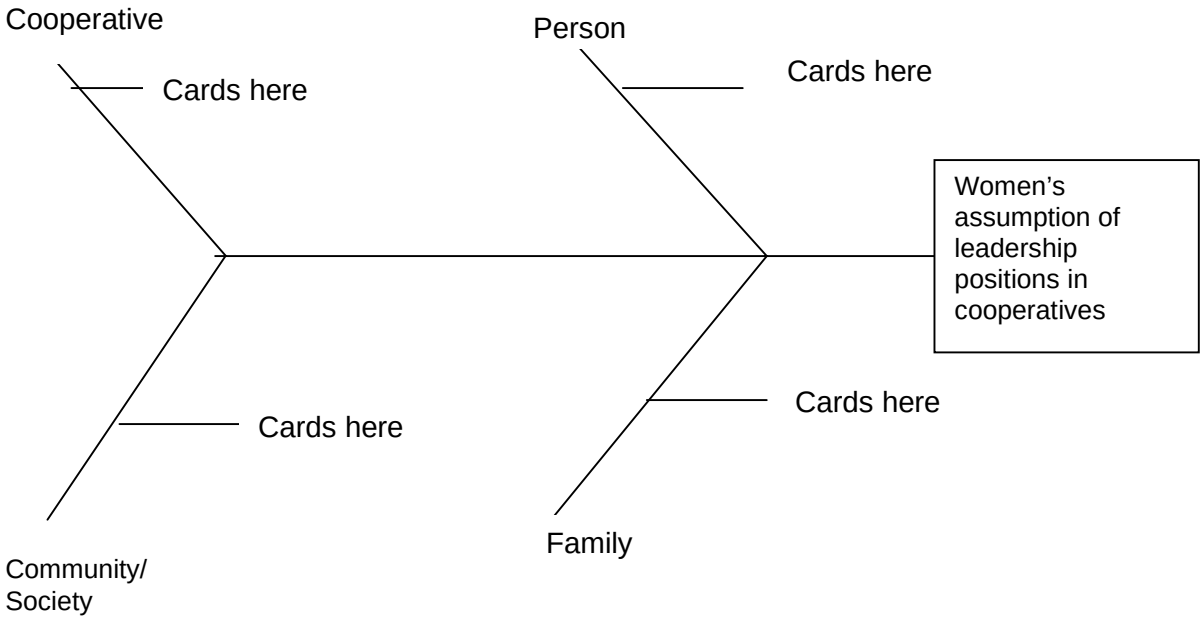
1. Equipping them with knowledge and skills on how to analyze and effectively respond to change.
2. Helping them develop their confidence in managing changes in their personal lives.

Time Requirement: three and a half hours

Reflection, Triad sharing and Discussion: 90 minutes
Lecture: 60 minutes
Fishbone Diagram Exercise: 30 minutes
Quick Check: 30 minutes

Steps:

1. Present the objectives of this session.
2. Then start the session by asking the participants to reflect on the changes that have happened in their lives since they assumed leadership positions in their cooperatives (for present leaders) or on the possible changes that may happen if they assume leadership positions in their cooperatives (for the non-leaders). Tell them to silently list down these changes.
3. When everyone has come up with a list of changes, ask them the following questions:
   - What feeling does each change spark in you? Positive feeling? Negative feeling?
   - How do you generally view these changes? Where do you think these changes will lead you?
   - What motivates you to face and cope up with these changes?
   - What do you do to cope up with the challenges of these changes? What support from the social environment do you need to effectively face these challenges?
4. Group the participants into triads and give each triad thirty minutes for a sharing of their answers to the above questions.
5. When all the members of the triads have shared, invite each triad to present to the big groups the common points shared. These points will, hence, include the following
   - Common changes experienced or are expected to be experienced as a result of assuming leadership positions in cooperatives
   - Common feelings
   - General views on the meaning of these changes
   - Common motivating factors
   - Common coping mechanisms
   - Support needed from the environment
6. Then give a lecture on Change Management. Highlight the following points in your lecture:
   - Types of Change
   - Causes and Sources of Personal Change
   - Sources of Resistance to Personal Change
   - Motivators to face or initiate change
   - Perspectives to the Change Process
   - Ways of managing personal change
7. At the end of your lecture, draw a big fishbone diagram, like the one below, on the board, and distribute to the participants idea cards in four colors. On, say, green cards, ask the participants to write changes that must happen in each woman for her to effectively assume a leadership position in her cooperative. Tell them to paste these cards on the bone classified as person. Then them tell to write on other cards with other colors changes that must happen in the family, in the cooperative and in their communities/society in support of women's assumption of leadership positions in cooperatives. Then let them paste these cards on their respective parts in the fishbone diagram.



8. End the session by reading the ideas on the cards posted in the fishbone diagram as challenges that every woman and man seeking for gender equality and equity in the cooperatives must face.
9. Then distribute the quick check forms to the participants, and give them around 15 to 30 minutes to answer them.
8. End the session by reading the ideas on the cards posted in the fishbone diagram as challenges that every woman and man seeking for gender equity and equality in the cooperatives must face.
9. Then distribute the quick check forms to the participants, and give them around 15 to 30 minutes to answer them.

Caution/Hints:

It is very important to remember that the objective of this session is to help the woman to be confident in her capacity to manage change. Be sure, hence, that she is not overwhelmed with the list of big changes that must happen to her and to her social environment to effectively assume leadership position in her cooperative. Rather, emphasis must be given to the value of this change to her personal development as well as to the achievement of the goals and objectives of her cooperative.

Variation

If video films on women who have successfully faced odd challenges are available in your area, then it is highly suggested to show this to the participants during this session. The best

time to do this is after step #5 of this session. Before proceeding to the lecture, however, the trainers are suggested to facilitate a reflection session on the film. The following questions may guide the shared reflection session:

- What were the challenges faced by the woman or women in the film?
- How did she/they face these challenges?
- What lessons can you cull from this movie/film?

Processing:

1. What new things did you learn from this session? _____

   _____

   _____

2. How will the knowledge and skills you learned from this session help? Is change management as discussed in this session relevant to your personal life? Why?

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. What are your suggestions to make this session more relevant and more applicable to your self and to the advocacy for gender equity and equality in your cooperative?

   _____

   _____

   _____

Trainers' Reference Material

Managing Personal and Organizational Changes Resulting from the Advocacy for Gender Equity and Equality in Cooperatives

I. Introduction

The advocacy for gender equity and equality is essentially a call for cultural change. Its fulfillment involves a change of perspectives and mindsets on women and men, a change of values and norms on how to treat women and men, and, hence, a change of ways of behaving and relating. And since gender inequitable relation problems have been in existence for centuries, the process of cultural change will definitely be difficult and long. Certainly, the resistance of many will be experienced.

Aside from the resistance of people who oppose gender equity and equality, another challenge that advocates must face comes from their own families, and even from their own selves. This is because of a requirement of this advocacy for the development of models or of people willing and capable of witnessing or demonstrating how gender equity and equality works at the personal level, and also, at least, at home. Understandably, the advocates are expected to fulfill this need. To be models of gender equity and equality in a society that is predominantly patriarchal, the advocates have to be firm with their beliefs, have to be sensitive to their personal strengths and weaknesses as also products of the traditional society, and have to be skilled in convincing their families to support their convictions and to cooperate in witnessing and actualizing the gender relations transformation. But experiences show that this cooperation of the whole family and the consistency of the advocates are easier said than done. Somehow, problems arise. Radical transformation of persons and of families also has to happen in order for these persons and families to play the role of effective models of this advocacy.

If this advocacy is brought into a specific context, such as the cooperatives, where one expression of the advocacy is the seeking of the significant representation of women in the decision making bodies, then the specific challenges that will be faced are:
1) resistance of leaders and members who oppose the idea of gender equality or who deny that such problem exists in the organization; 2) the possible uncooperative responses of families to the requirements and implications of the involvement of one or more of their members in this type of advocacy; 3) the constant need of the advocates to check themselves for inconsistencies, aside from the efforts and the time needed to push for this change.

Indeed, one's participation in the advocacy for gender equity and equality in the whole society, in general, and in cooperatives, in part, involves lots of challenges.

This paper aims to help the advocates effectively and proactively push for changes in the gender relations within the cooperative as well as respond to planned and emergent personal and organizational changes resulting from their participation in the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives, including their seeking of leadership positions in the organization. To do this, this paper compiles different concepts and techniques in change management. The premise is: In order to effectively manage change, whether personal or organizational, a leader has to be equipped with tested concepts and tools on how to achieve planned changes or maximize emergent changes.

Since this paper will tackle the process of managing changes both in the personal and organizational levels, then it shall serve as a trainers' reference material for two sessions of this module, entitled "Coping with Challenges." The first session is "Managing Change" which is more focused on the individual woman's management of changes in her personal life as a result of her involvement in the advocacy for woman's significant representation in the leadership positions of cooperatives. The other session is "Making a Difference" which, on the other hand, discusses how a woman can effectively introduce and lead positive changes in her cooperative. Both rest on the same change management principles. Nonetheless, a separate discussion is seen to be more effective in training the women-leaders in undertaking both of them.

II. Types of Changes

Changes, whether personal or organizational, come in different forms and in different ways. To effectively respond to these changes, the first step will necessarily involve identifying the nature of these changes. Many literatures offer different ways of understanding the nature of change, namely: 1) to look at how the change occurred — whether planned or emergent; 2) to analyze the magnitude of the effects of the change — whether transformational or partial/simple; and 3) to assess the length of time with which the change process is completed — whether gradual or sudden/radical. Each of these types of changes necessitates different responses.

1. Based on How the Change Occurred

Planned change refers to changes deliberately and systematically initiated by the seekers of change based on their well-thought of analysis of the situation. Essentially, therefore, the change comes from within the person or the organization.

Emergent change refers to changes resulting from situations, such as the interplay of history, economics, politics and others. The source of change thus includes the external environment of the person or the organization.

2. Based on the Magnitude of the Effects of Change

Simple or partial change is confined largely to changing specific sub-units or subcultures, and when an organization only needs fine tuning. In a person, simple change means changing some behaviors, information, knowledge, skills, and views but not his/her beliefs, philosophy and assumptions in life.

Transformational change implies comprehensive and revolutionary efforts to change the whole organization. It involves challenging all the assumptions underlying existing organization arrangements and it results in changes so profound that after the event the organization is scarcely recognizable compared with its previous condition.

3. Based on the Duration with which the Change Happened

A ***gradual or incremental change*** occurs slowly over a prolonged period, at a steady rate or with minor fluctuations in intensity.

A ***radical change*** is a sudden, dramatic change with marked effects. It is often, but not always, large-scale.

Using the above descriptions of changes, one can identify the following types of changes:

- Planned, simple and gradual
- Planned, transformational and gradual
- Planned, transformational and radical
- Emergent, simple and gradual
- Emergent, transformational and gradual
- Emergent, transformational and radical

One may notice that simple changes are seen to be not always radical. A simple change can, however, be done in a collaborative way or in a coercive way depending on the position, whether in favor or in opposition, of key interest groups to the proposed change. Moreover, the above classification of changes does not propose for a view of all changes to be falling in any of the above types. Because of the complexity of changes, the above classification only serves as a useful guide in analyzing the nature of changes.

III. Causes of Change

A. Personal Change

Changes in a person may be caused by different factors, such as the following:

- Exposure to different people, social environment or experience which may give a person new knowledge, values and beliefs that are not consistent with her present knowledge, values and beliefs, or that challenge her to alter or improve her ways of behaving.
- Changes in roles or assumption of new roles that conflict with her other roles.
- Changes in other people who are significant to her.
- Changes in her physical and social environment.
- Changes in the personal needs and aspirations of the woman.

These changes can also be any of the types discussed above. A personal change can be planned or emergent, simple or transformational, and gradual or radical.

Before a change happens, a person goes through a process of accepting or rejecting change. For instance, if a person learns new knowledge or values or beliefs, through exposure with other people or new experience, that are inconsistent with her present knowledge or values or beliefs, this person experiences, as social psychologist Leon Festinger said, cognitive dissonance. Festinger said that a human person has an innate need for internal consistency. Hence, she or he will move towards reducing the dissonance. To reduce dissonance, a person may either accept the new knowledge, or value or belief and, therefore, discard the old; or the other way around. That is, to reject the new knowledge, value or belief and hold on to her former knowledge, value or belief. In the latter, the person obviously rejects change. Her or his reasons for doing so may be rational or irrational. To understand this, the sources of resistance to change will be discussed in the next section.

Assumption of new roles also leads to personal change. For instance, if a woman becomes a wife, her way of performing her role as a daughter to her parents will change. She will not be able to give as much time to this role as before. Not only that, but her ways of behaving as a daughter must not conflict with her being a wife. Hence, aside from time, the relationship in

itself changes as there are more things to consider than before. In the same way, if a woman becomes a leader of a cooperative, changes will also happen in her being a wife, a mother, and a daughter not only in terms of time but as well as in ways of behaving. Consistency in the performance of roles is an innate need of a person. Though consistency or internal harmony is an inherent need of a person, there are situations, however, where a person can also decide to rather live in inconsistency. For instance, a woman who is a staff of a feminist organization can hide the fact that she is a psychologically battered wife. In a sense, positive change in the household is rejected despite the understanding of the principles of gender equity and equality, and the assumption of a role in this kind of organization. One reason, which will be further explained in the next session, is that this woman cannot see any other better alternative to her present situation. So, she would rather stay on, live with and rationalize or deny the inconsistency.

Changes in another significant person can also lead a person to change. For instance, when her husband begins to understand the value of gender equity and equality, or when her son or daughter begins to become more independent, or when a friend or her organization provides the needed support for her assumption of leadership, many new things can happen to a woman. In the same manner, a woman can choose to maximize or ignore these opportunities.

Changes in the physical and social environment can also lead a person to change. One very important example is economic change. For instance, because of the worsening economic situation, the woman is now pushed to generate income for the family as well. The growing openness of the society to the principles of gender equity and equality is also bringing more changes to the lives of the woman.

Lastly, changes in the woman's needs and aspirations also leads to personal change. When a woman begins to see her interests beyond the home, then she will become more motivated to seek changes in her traditional role as a woman.

As earlier mentioned, whatever triggers a woman or even a man to change, still and all, she or he has to make a decision which direction of change to take: Either to accept and/or manage change, or to uncritically resist change and let other forces take control. Since the advocacy is to manage change effectively, then the sources of the resistance to change or manage change effectively must be understood.

B. Organizational Change

Three types of factors are said to trigger changes in organizations, namely, with examples:

1. Economic factors
   - Competition is intensifying, and becoming more global.
   - Customers are more demanding.
2. Social factors
   - Demographic profiles of countries are changing.
   - Social structures are changing.
   - Literacy level among women is increasing; their needs are changing.
   - Experiences of failures or discontentment leading to the search for new practices and knowledge.
   - Exposure to other cultures.
3. Technological factors

- At accelerating speed, the revolution in information technology (IT) is having a profound impact on methods of management, manufacture, service, purchasing and selling.

IV. Sources of Resistance to Change

Resistance to change can occur at the individual level and at the organization or group level. Common sources of resistance to change at each level are as follows:

A. Reasons for Resisting Personal Change
   - When a person is content with the present situation.
   - When too much personal resources (emotional, mental, material, physical) have been invested on the present situation, and that changing it will negate or devalue all of these spent personal resources.
   - When the present situation is, from the perspective of a person, better than any alternative situation.
   - When habits are found to be difficult to change
   - When the survival or credibility or level of influence of a person is attached to the status quo.
   - When the amount of emotional, mental and physical energy needed in undertaking the change process is beyond what a person is willing to exert.
   - When a person believes that the present situation is in accordance with the teachings of her/his religion and culture.
   - For fear of the unknown – when change direction is a new field of involvement and aftermath is still uncertain.

B. Reasons for Resisting Organizational Change
   - Threats to power and influence of the dominant force in the organization.
   - Lack of trust in the change agent.
   - Different perceptions and goals of the organization and the change agent.
   - Social disruption is expected to happen with the change process
   - Resource limitations
   - Fixed investments
   - Agreements not to change present courses of action or form of operation.

Resistance to change is not always overtly expressed. Due to this, the different forms of resistance must be recognized so that they can be properly addressed. Resistance to change can take the following forms:

- Confusion: when people still ask the basic questions after the new program has been explained many times. Resistance creates an aural fog that makes it difficult to hear what is being said. A change agent must realize that people will begin to hear at different times in different ways.
- Immediate criticism: when people express immediate disapproval before even hearing all of the details. When individuals or groups criticize too quickly, it is likely that they ha been burned before, and have developed a shell of resistance. They express criticism to

protect themselves from being hurt again.

- Denial: when people refuse to see that things are different. Usually, the more one tries to justify the change, the deeper they embed themselves.
- Malicious compliance: when people only appear to go along with the decision to change while holding up the change effort by only doing the necessary minimum to keep the change alive.
- Sabotage: when people take strong actions that are specifically intended to stop you from proceeding. If there is a positive side to sabotage, it is that there is very little doubt that a group is strongly opposed to your plan.
- "Agreeing without much thinking". When people readily agree with you without much criticism. People who agree hastily truly believe that the idea has merit, and only later realize the implications of the change.
- Deflection: When people keep changing the subject so that the change is never really talked about. Deflection is usually unconscious and not a strategic choice.
- Silence: when people do not give any feedback as to what they think.
- In-Your-Face-Criticism: when people tell you exactly what they think with no holds barred. Do not be tempted to lash out at these people because you send others the impression that it is unsafe to speak.

V. Motivators to face or initiate change

One or more of the following factors may motivate a person or persons to push for planned changes or to seek the maximization of emergent changes, personal or/and organizational:

1. Human Needs

Any of the following needs, defined by Abraham Maslow in his "Hierarchy of Human Needs", may serve as the motivating factor for individuals in the organization to push or support change: physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. According to Maslow, an individual is first motivated by physiological needs, such as food, water, air, and others. But once this first level of needs has been satisfied in a significant degree, then it stops to serve as the motivating factor. Rather, the next level of need, the safety needs, sets in and becomes the factor that motivates a person to do certain things, including actively seeking or supporting change. Again, once this second level of need has been substantially satisfied, then the third level of need, the love needs or the need to belong to a group or community, becomes dominant in a person; and so on until the self-actualization needs become the key motivating factor in a person. Not all persons, however, follow such hierarchy of needs. There are exceptional persons who are deprived of their physiological needs yet are able to transcend the situation and able to act primarily because of their love needs, self-esteem needs and self-actualization needs. This is true to many poor women who are advocating for gender equity and equality at home, in the workplace and in the society.

2. Cognitive Dissonance or Disequilibrium

Persons in the organization may be confronted with internal psychological problems, where, for example, their actions conflict with their beliefs, values and knowledge, or a new knowledge or information or new behavior conflicts with their present knowledge and ways of behaving. If the discomfort that this cognitive dissonance brings is great, then the individual will be forced

to make a choice in order to restore internal consonance or a state of internal equilibrium. Either they change their actions, or change their beliefs, values and knowledge, or reject new knowledge or new ways of behaving.

In another perspective, but still on the area of enhanced cognition as the motivating factor, a person or an organization may see a gap between their present state and their desired state, and this assessed gap may urge them to pursue steps that will facilitate change. Based on their understanding of the possible consequences of a proposed or emerging change on their present personal problem or present state of the organization, a person or an organization may support or reject such changes.

3. Meaning

As Viktor Frankl said in his book, Man's Search for Meaning:

> "it is one of the basic tenets of logotherapy that a person's main concern is not to gain pleasure or to avoid pain but rather to see meaning in her or his life. That is why a person is even ready to suffer, on the condition, to be sure, that her or his suffering has a meaning."

VI. Perspectives to the Process of Change (Source: Marshak, 1993)

Before moving into the discussion of strategies on how to manage change, it will help at this point to highlight two different perspectives to how changes occur, namely: 1) the Lewinian or the Organizational Development (OD) Model of Change; and 2) the Confucian Model of Change.

1. Lewinian or the Organization Development (OD) Model of Change

The basic image representing the theory of change underlying OD is shown in Figure 1. There is a current state (A) and a desired future state (B). through planned change interventions, one moves from State A to the more desirable State B. How to do this is informed by Lewin's three-stage change process, based on his field theory (Lewin, 1951).

Stage 1: Current State A is maintained by field of forces of equilibrium. This means that the forces for change and against change are of equal strengths. There is equilibrium. Hence, no movement happens.

Stage 2: By altering the forces through a planned or managed intervention where the driving force is further strengthened or the restraining force weakened, State A will unfreeze and there will be movements.

Stage 3: When the desired State B is reached, equilibrium of the field of forces is reestablished so as to refreeze the situation and main the desired State B.

Thus, according to Lewin, bringing about lasting change means initially unlocking or unfreezing the present social system. Next, behavioral movement must occur in the direction of desired change. Finally deliberate steps must be taken to ensure that the new state of behavior remains relatively permanent.

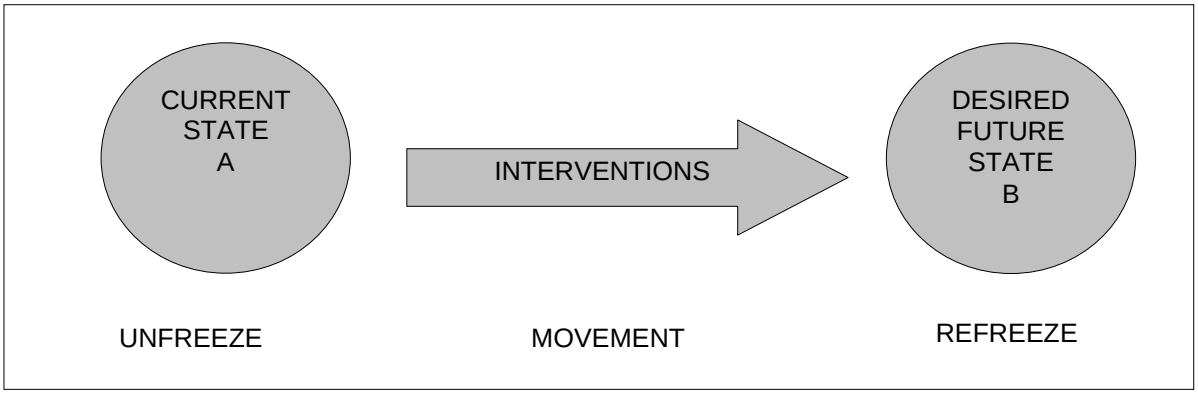


Figure 1: Lewinian or OD Model of Change

The Lewinian-based model underlying OD included beliefs and assumptions that change is:

- *Linear:* One moves from one state to another state in a forward direction through time (past-present-future)
- *Progressive*: One moves forward from a current, lesser state to a future, better state.
- *Destination or goal-oriented*: One moves toward a specific end state or goal that one sets our to achieve.
- *Based on creating disequilibrium*: To get movement from the current state, one intentionally creates disequilibrium to alter the fields of forces. Then one moves to the desired state where equilibrium is reestablished.
- *Planned or managed by people who exist separate from and act on things to achieve their goals*: People learn and apply the principles about how to mster and manipulate the forces in the world so as to achieve their intended ends.
- *Unusual because everything is normally in a quasi-stationary or static state*: Unless something is done proactively, things tend to stay in the same place or condition because a body at rest stays at rest until force is applied.

2. The Confucian Model of Change

In the image shown in Figure 2, there is inherent and continual alteration between the cosmic forces of yin yang and they are understood to be the polar aspects of one unity, the T'ai Chi, the Great Ultimate. The concept of polarity is critical to an understanding of yin yang. It denotes an existential interdependence wherein each defines the other, unlike the concepts of dualism and dialectic wherein each exists independent of the other. Furthermore, yin and yang are constantly in the process of becoming the other in an endless cycle. The polarities represented by yin and yang are inherent in everything and reflect a cosmology that view everything in the universe to be in constant flux as the balance between them continually changes. Movement from one to another is a natural process and occurs in a specific sequence where there is harmony and equilibrium in the universe. Thus the Five Agents image reflects cyclical change that is harmonious and in balance when it occurs in its natural, correct order. When it is out balance or out or order, unfortunate consequences result, hence the emphasis in traditional Chinese medicine and Feng Shui, which are based on this model, on maintaining and restoring natural harmony, balance and equilibrium.

Thus in the Confucian model, everything and everyone in the universe is interconnected and part of continuous cycles of change. When these cycles follow the natural order of the universe, there is harmony and equilibrium, and when there is harmony and equilibrium the natural order of the universe will manifest. In both the Confucian and Taoist traditions, the natural order cycles of the universe are called the Tao, or Way. If one follows the Way, all will be right. But if one loses the Way, misfortune will result.

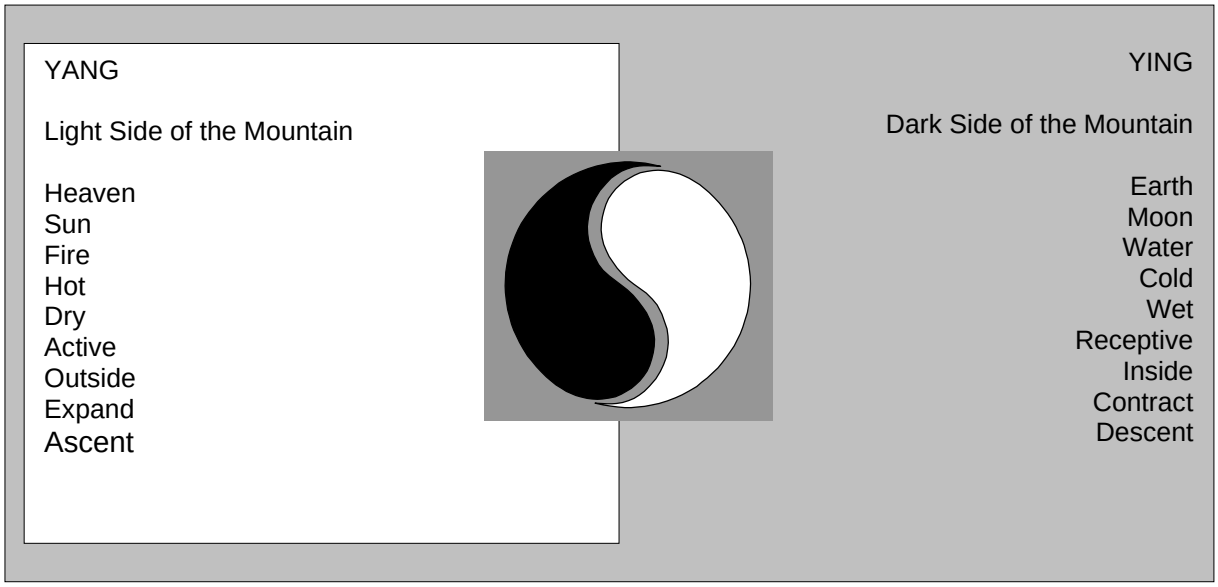
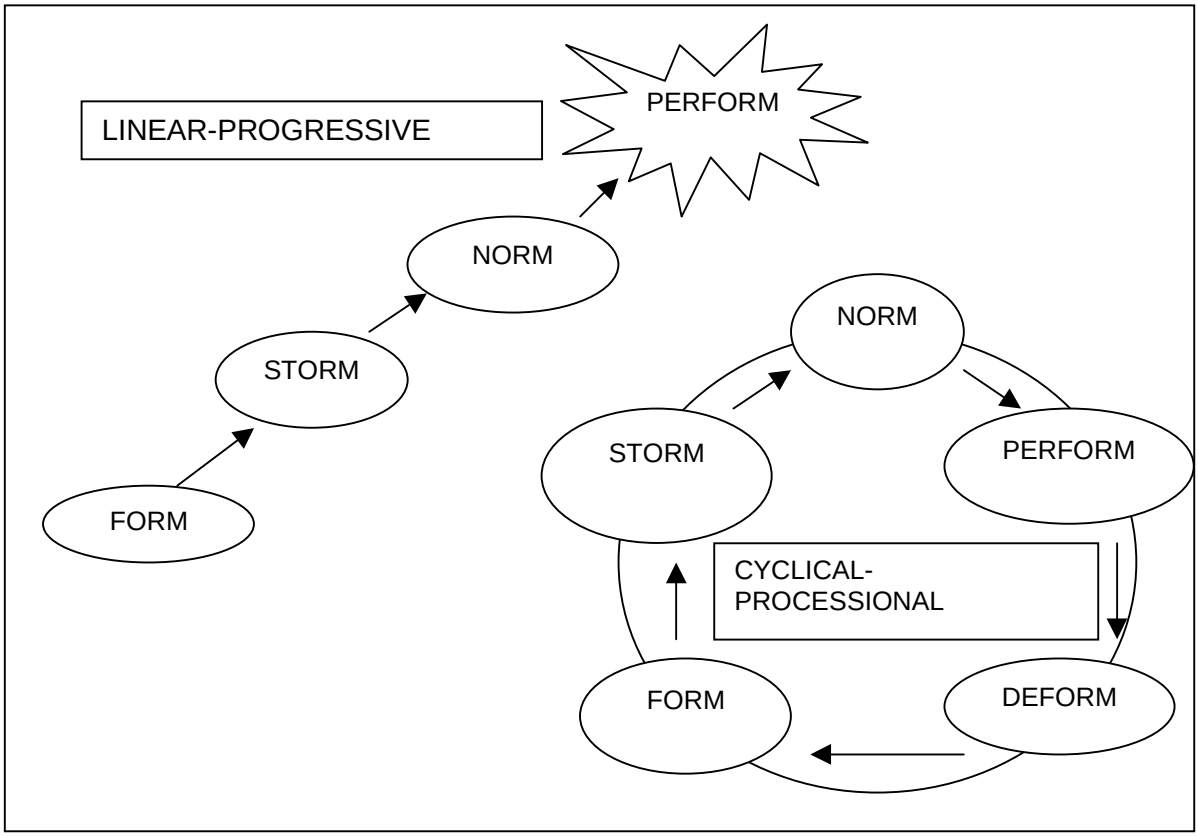


Figure 2

The Confucian model includes beliefs/assumptions that change is:

- *Cyclical*: There is constant ebb and flow to the universe and everything in it is cyclical.
- *Processional*: One moves from one condition/form/state to the next condition/form/state in orderly sequence.
- *Journey oriented*: Because there is continual cyclical change it makes no sense to aspire to reach an "end state." What matters is how well one follows the Way along the great wheel of life.
- *Based on maintaining equilibrium*: The universe and everything in it is naturally harmonious, perfect and in flux. Therefore, one intervenes or acts only as it is necessary to maintain or restore balance, harmony and equilibrium.
- *Observed and followed by people who are one with everything and must act correctly to maintain harmony in the universe*: One constantly strives to be in harmony with the Way, the natural order of the universe.
- *Usual because everything is normally in a continually changing dynamic state*: The continual process of everything in the universe is change. The Yin-Yang Law of opposites says everything contains its own negation, so nothing remains the same forever.



3. Implications for Actions

It is important to realize that the differences in underlying assumptions between the two models are likely to lead quite different actions and orientations towards change and change methods. To illustrate this point more clearly, consider the following comparisons.

Linear-Progressive versus Cyclical-Processional

When change is viewed as linear and progressive, it is logically inappropriate and/or impossible to go back to something that came before. The focus of attention and action is on striving toward the better future. As a result, redoing something in the linear-progressive model is likely to be viewed as "going backward," "not making progress," or "going around in circles." Returning at that point to an earlier stage would be viewed negatively because the (implicit) objective is to achieve and maintain the high performing stage. This contrasts with the Confucian model where cyclical and processional change is the natural Way and returning to some stage/phase/ state is normal and needed to maintain continuing harmony and equilibrium. In a cyclical model, after all, "going around in circles" is both normal and necessary. Returning to something is not only expected but, in fact, needs to "keep things moving."

As a result, each might respond differently to the situation of a mature team beginning to experience increased conflict, loss of purpose, challenges to established norms and/or leadership, and the like. The OD change agent might view this as a form of "backsliding" and pursue interventions to reestablish the team's purpose, norms, collaboration and leadership. The Confucian change agent might see, instead a team entering the deforming stage and

pursue interventions to help the team first deform so as to begin new purposes, new norms, new ways of resolving conflict and new leadership patterns.

Destination versus Journey-Oriented

When change is viewed as goal or destination oriented, the primary emphasis is on setting the objectives, targets and end states. Indeed, many could scarcely conceive of starting a change effort without the clear goal or an end that is better than the present situation. In a cyclical model, however, where there is no end state per se, one strives continuously to enhance in the present moment how well one conducts the journey, that is follows the Way. The journey-oriented change agent therefore would be prepared to help a client system learn how to improve itself continuously, regardless of its current condition. An OD-oriented change agent, on the other hand, might seek first to set specific goals and/or objectives. The Confucian-oriented change agent might instead pursue activities and interventions that emphasize the "proper" orientation, way of being, and/or behavioral values that would need to be continuously exhibited.

Create Disequilibrium versus Maintain Equilibrium

The OD model instructs change agents to focus on developing the means and methods for creating disruptions to the status quo to overcome resistance and get movement toward the change goals. In short, change must be consciously induced by a change agent acting on an otherwise fixed situation. On the other hand, when change is seen to be initiated by the natural ebbs and flows of the universe, then unnatural disruptions would be avoided because they would interrupt and/or distort the natural change process. This, in turn, would threaten the inherent harmony and equilibrium of the universe.

In the OD model, the way to move to the desired future state is to focus on the breaking away from the present state. In a Confucian model, where each state succeeds the completion of the prior state, the way to more from one state to the next is to focus on fully realizing the present.

Separate From versus One with the Client System

The fundamental relationship of change agent and system differs in the two models. In the OD model, it is assumed that the change agent stands apart, as a neutral catalyst, from the change itself. In the Confucian model, the change agent is one with the system, and both are inexorably linked as interdependent aspects of the same Way. As a result, the OD change agent may be more preoccupied with planning what to do and how to dot it in a client system, whereas the Confucian change agent might focus more on serving as a role model of how to be so as to bring the client system into harmony with the Way. Although each might be concerned to some degree about what to do and how to be, the primary emphasis will be different.

Static versus Dynamic Universe

The OD change model instructs change agents that their final task is to refreeze a situation. The Confucian agent would seek to discover and remove blockages so as to restore the natural ebb and flow of everything. In sum, the OD change agent plans how to start and stop movement to achieve a desired steady state, whereas the Confucian change agent seeks to release or remove blockages created by static, stagnant, and/or stuck conditions to restore the natural flow, harmony and balance of the Way.

VII. Change Management Process:

The above discussion on the nature of change purports to provide some concepts that will help the women-leaders of cooperatives:

- Define the changes that happen in their personal lives and in their cooperatives;
- Assess how and why these changes occur;
- Clarify and enhance the factors that motivate them to initiate and maximize changes.
- Choose which way to understand how change moves — whether from Lewinian or Confucian model.

Having learned these, the next very important part of this discussion is on the appropriate responses to change. The following is a sequential process of responding to changes.

1. Analyzing the demand for change

Whether a change is planned or emergent, before any response is to be done, a careful analysis of the demand to initiate or support or resist change must be undertaken. Two methods are suggested here: a) benchmarking; and b) survey.

Benchmarking is a process where a person or an organization makes objective comparisons between own performance and the best practice existing elsewhere. The need for change is acknowledged when the gaps between such best practice and one's own personal or the organization's own standards are shown to be alarmingly wide.

A survey can also encourage the acceptance of the need for change when its results reveal the extent of a person's or members' or customers' dissatisfaction.

Personal reflections, consultations with trusted persons, training and exposures can help a person determine if personal changes are necessary. If these personal reflections, consultations, training and exposures result into a realization of the gap between one's present state and desired state, then personal change is deemed to be important.

2. Creating a Positive Thirst for Change

This step involves identifying and highlighting the motivators for change. To do this, the following three methods can be done: a) creation of a shared vision and of a sense of mission; b) introduction of new knowledge and skills through training; and c) provision of rewards to those who support change, and punishment for those who resist change.

To create a positive thirst for change among as many people in the organization as possible, it is necessary to at this point involve as many people as possible in the creation of a shared vision and a sense of mission, in the learning of new knowledge and skills that are relevant to the change being introduced, and in the awarding of rewards.

3. Choose the Best Strategy and Make a Plan of Action

The change strategy will greatly depend on the nature of change — whether planned or emergent, simple or transformational — and on the degree of support or resistance of key interest groups or individuals. The strategy can be collaborative where the participation of key people and groups is sought from the designing and implementation of change, as well as in the evaluation of the change effects. The strategy can also be coercive where the people are forced to accept change. The following is an example of a framework of change strategies: (Wilson, 1992)

	Simple/Incremental Change	Transformational/Radical Change
Collaborate	Participative Evolution Use when: • The organization is in fit but needs fine tuning • Time is available • Key interest groups favor the proposed change	Charismatic Transformation Use when: • The organization is out of fit • There is little time • Key interest groups support radical change
Coerce	Forced Evolution Use when: • The organization is in fit but needs fine tuning • Time is available • Key interest groups oppose the proposed change.	Dictatorial Transformation Use when: • The organization is out of fit • There is little time • Key interest groups oppose change, but this change is central to the survival of the organization.

In communicating the need for change, four methods can be used: media, presentations, training, team meetings and troubleshooting. (Heller, 1998)

Methods	When to Use
Media: Pieces in magazines and newspapers, on your Website, and on video that signal change.	To create awareness and provide information so that people can keep up to date and think about the change program.
Presentations: Presentations to large and small groups, supplemented by media as described above.	To sell a large-scale change program and stimulate understanding, support and involvement from all affected.
Training: Training sessions, workshops, and exposures.	To prepare those affected and back up forthcoming change program while simultaneously building committed support.
Team meetings: Full meetings at which people discuss issues, air problems, and suggest solutions.	To advance the change program by involving everyone, allowing them to voice opinions and discuss progress.
Troubleshooting: Regular feedback, team problem-solving and progress-briefing sessions.	To maintain commitment, solve problems, advance and monitor the success and failure of the change program.

On how to deal with negative reactions to change, the following list of actions is suggested: (Heller, 1998)

Types of Negativity	What to do about them
Rational: Misunderstanding of details of plan, belief that change is unnecessary, disbelief in planned change's effectiveness, expectation of negative consequences.	• Explain plan with greater clarity and detail. • Project what would happen if the change program was not introduced. • Involve everybody in quality-improvement teams to demonstrate effectiveness of managed change. • Institute a bottom-up program for reorganizing systems and processes.
Personal: Fear of job loss, anxiety about the future, resentment at implied criticism of performance, fear of interference from above.	• Stress much-improved job prospects for the future of everyone. • Present plans for improvements which people are likely to find positive and exciting. • Accept management responsibility for past failures. • Present a scenario showing the anticipated benefits of the main changes.
Emotional: Active and/or passive resistance to change in general, lack of involvement, apathy towards initiatives, shock, mistrust of motives behind change.	• Show, with examples, why the old ways no longer work. • Stage a series of meetings to communicate details of the change agenda. • Demonstrate that the new policy is not merely a "flavor of the month." • Explain the reasons for change, and promise involvement. • Be completely honest, and answer all questions.

4. Evaluate the Effects of Change

Finally, the change process must include periodic reflection and evaluation activities. Periodic evaluation is done while the change program is being undertaken. It can be weekly, monthly, yearly depending on the need of people involved in the situation. For organizations, terminal evaluation is done at the end of the change program.

The objective of the evaluation is to determine if the desired effect of the change process has been achieved and if other changes still have to be pursued.

VIII. Change management as a Coping Mechanism

This topic is included in this training of women leaders/managers in cooperatives as a mechanism that will help them cope up with the challenges of the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives. To help in applying the discussed change management concepts in this endeavor, the women-leaders/managers are invited to reflect on the following points:

- How did the advocacy for the significant representation of women in the leadership structures of cooperatives start? Was the idea introduced to the cooperative? Was it an idea learned by some leaders or members from people outside of the cooperative? Or was it a realization of people within the cooperative based on their reflection of the situation and needs of people? In change management parlance, is the advocacy a planned or emergent change? Are you an initiator of the change process? Or are you

called to take a supportive position on a change that is evolving or emerging in your cooperative?

- Does this advocacy imply a simple or transformational change in your cooperative? Aside from increasing the number of women in the leadership structures, what other changes in your cooperative does this advocacy seek (e.g. in policies, systems, structures, etc.) What gains will you, your family, the cooperative and the whole society get from this advocacy?
- What motivate you to participate in this advocacy? How can you motivate other people to participate also in this advocacy? Will you highlight how human needs will be satisfied by the advocacy? Will you introduce steps that will create disequilibrium in a person or that will lead a person to question his/her present beliefs and assumptions and move towards transformation? Will you stress the meaning of this advocacy to everyone?
- Who are the persons that must be involved in this advocacy? How will you involve your family in this endeavor?
- What strategy do you think is appropriate? How are you going to communicate the change? How are you going to handle people resisting this advocacy?
- How are you going to monitor and assess the effects of this advocacy?
- How do you generally view the process of change that is happening and will happen as you advocate for gender equity and equality in your cooperative and in your family? Is it a linear-progressive process or a cyclical-processional process? How do you think your choice of change perspective helps you cope up with the challenges?

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UNIT 2
Managing Organizational Change

MAIN MESSAGE

In the process of advocating gender equity and equality in organizations, such as cooperatives, managing change in the personal level is in itself a big challenge apart from managing organizational change. For this reason, the two forms of challenges, though anchored on the same principles of change management, are tackled separately in this module.

The same structure of discussion as used in the previous session will be followed in this session. Specifically, the following is the outline of topics:

- Types of Change
- Causes and Sources of Organizational Change
- Sources of Resistance to Organizational Change
- Motivators to face or initiate change
- Perspectives to the Change Process
- Change management process
  - Analyzing the demand for change
  - Creating a positive thirst for change
  - Choosing a strategy and making an action plan
  - Implementing and evaluating change

SESSION GUIDE

Objective

This session focuses on organizational change management process to provide the trainees with framework and tools on how to handle the challenges of the changing situations of their cooperatives.

Time Requirement: three hours

Review of concepts and lecture: 45 minutes

Small group discussion: 45 minutes

Plenary reporting, discussion and synthesis: 60 minutes

Quick check: 30 minutes

Materials Required:

1. Manila paper
2. Markers
3. Masking tapes
4. Visual aids

Steps:

1. Review the different change management concepts discussed in the previous session, such as the following:
   - Types of change (you may ask for or give examples of each type of change in the cooperative level)
   - Motivators to face or initiate organizational change
   - Perspective to the change process (linear versus cyclical)
2. Give a lecture on concepts of organizational change management. You may highlight the following:
   - Causes and Sources of Organizational Change
   - Sources of Resistance to Organizational Change
   - Change management process
   – Analyzing the demand for change
   – Creating a positive thirst for change
   – Choosing a strategy and making an action plan
   – Implementing and evaluating change
3. After the lecture, divide the participants into five small groups. Ask each group to imagine themselves as leaders of a cooperative that is facing two types of change. One change came from the outside, while the other change is a decision of the cooperative, and hence, can be said to be coming from within.
   - The first demand for change is a result of an amendment of a national cooperative law. This law mandates all cooperatives (from primary to tertiary levels) to provide a minimum of 40% seat of their Boards of Directors to women. This law reform is an offshoot of long and organized efforts of different women's groups and cooperatives in your country, but in which your cooperative was not able to fully participate. Assuming that: 1) at present, there are only around 5% of women in the Board of your cooperative; and 2) only you (5 to 6 leaders) in the whole leadership and membership of the cooperative understand the principles behind this law; and 3) cooperatives found violating this new provision of the law at a one year timeframe will be sanctioned, how are you going to help your cooperative respond to this new mandate of the national law on cooperatives?
   - The second change is a decision reached in consensus by the Board, and affirmed by a majority vote of the members. This is on the expansion of the business of the cooperative. From merely lending credit to the members, the cooperative decided to venture into a cable television business. With the economic crisis, the leaders and members think that their business should further expand for more income. In your General Assembly, held last week, a one-year-transition-period was set. Assuming that: 1) the leaders and members of your cooperative have no experience in this kind of business; 2) because of the number of your members, of the number of people who support your cooperative and your business contacts, your cooperative is assured of a good market, how are you going to help your cooperative cope up with this challenge?

Tell the small groups that they can use the following matrix as their guide in discussing and documenting their shared thoughts on the two above challenges for change. The may also use the same format in presenting their discussion outputs to the big group. Give them 60 minutes to finish their tasks, including writing their outputs in a manila paper.

	Change 1: **At least 40% of seats of Board go to women**	**Change 2:** **Business expansion**
Type of change		
Change Management Plan		
How to evaluate the impact of change		

4. When all small groups have completed their tasks, reconvene them for the plenary discussion of their outputs. Give each small group fifteen minutes to share their outputs. If there are five small groups, then a total of 75 minutes will be used for the plenary reporting.
5. Highlight the common and particular points of all the groups to both changes. Do this in fifteen minutes.
6. Finally distribute the quick check forms.

Caution/Hints

The challenge to immediately apply the concepts and techniques of change management may overwhelm the participants. If after the lecture, you sense that the trainees need more time to digest the concepts and to apply these concepts in some samples of actual situation, then you may use the alternative processes proposed in this guide.

Variation

If the participants are ready for a discussion of how to apply these change management concepts in sample situations, but that the examples provided in this session guide do not reflect their common experiences, then you may change and use other sample situations.
If, on the other hand, you think that the trainees are still stunned by the discussion of change management concepts, for a lighter discussion of their application, you, the trainers, can develop a simple case where all change interventions have been laid down. The trainees therefore do not have to make an action plan, but will only identify key change management concepts in the case. The participants must be able to identify the following in the case:

- Types of change;
- Hindering factors or problems;
- How the leaders managed change;
- How the leaders evaluated the effects of the change.

Quick Check:

1. What new things did you learn from this session? _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. At this present stage of development of your cooperative, how will the knowledge and skills you learned from this session help? Is change management relevant to your organization? _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. What are your suggestions to make this session more relevant and more applicable to the your cooperative? _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

UNIT 3
Networking

THE MAIN MESSAGE

As in the session on change management, networking is discussed in this session at both the personal and organizational levels. Inter-personal networking refers to the process whereby a person links with other people in the spirit of giving and sharing of resources towards the attainment of common goals. Organizational networking, on the other hand, refers to the process whereby an organization links with other organizations, groups or people outside of the organization to achieve common goals. Networking is discussed in this session as a way of coping up with challenges because the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives as well as in the whole society entails the participation, cooperation and support of as many people — both women and men, groups and organizations, as possible.

To understand the rudiments of networking, both in the personal and organizational levels, this session discusses the following:

- Definition and types of networking
- Requirements and tips in personal networking
  - Purpose of personal networking
  - Identification of people to network with
  - Tips in building and nurturing networks
  - Qualities of an effective network builder
- Requirements and tips in organizational networking
  - Core patterns of networking
  - Network management cycle
  - Challenges for network management

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to:

1. Enhance the understanding of the women-trainees on the importance of linking with the right people, at the right time, at the right place and with the right intention, to the achievement of gender equity and equality in cooperatives as well as to their pursuance of leadership positions in their cooperatives.
2. Provide the trainees with concepts and tools in networking.

Time Requirement: three and a half hours

Structured Learning Exercise:	90 minutes
Lecture:	90 minutes
Reflection on Networking Experiences in own Cooperative:	30 minutes

Steps

1. Start the session with an exercise on cooperation, entitled, "Cooperative Squares Exercise."[1]
   This exercise helps a group to analyze some of the basic elements of networking by looking at their own behavior when working in a group. The following is the procedure of this exercise:
   - The trainer begins by explaining the objective of this exercise: that the essential elements to successful networking and group co-operation shall be discussed here.
   - Ask the participants to form groups of five and to sit around a table. Each group should have one observer — a trainer or a participant. Each group will then have 6 members including the observer.
   - Give the following instruction to each group:
     Each of you (referring to each member of a group) will have an envelope which has pieces of cardboard for forming squares. When the trainer gives the signal to begin, the task of your group is to form five squares of equal size. The task will not be completed until each individual has before her a perfect square of the same size as those in front of the other group members.
     Rules:
     a) No member may speak. The task must be done in silence.
     b) You **may not take or ask a piece** from any other person but you **can give pieces** to others.
   - Give each group a set of squares in the five envelopes. (Please see attached directions for making a set of broken squares.)
   - Ask the groups to begin work. The trainer watches the tables during the exercise to enforce the rules.
2. When the task is completed, ask each group to discuss the following questions.
   - In what way do you think each of you helped or hindered the group in completing its task?
   - How did the members feel when someone completed a square incorrectly and then sat back without helping the group further? (In real life these are the people who do not network with other people.)
   - How are some of the things you learnt from this game related to your real life experiences in networking and cooperation?
   - What have you learned about networking and cooperation?
3. Reconvene all of the groups, then ask each small group to share to the big group their answers to the above questions.
4. Summarize the sharing points of the small groups. Some points that may arise from the groups can be summarized by the trainer in the following points:
   - Alone, each person will not reach her/his goals. To achieve one's goals, networking and cooperating with others are very necessary.
   - In networking, one must not only be concerned with one's own needs and goals, but must look at the total situation — referring to the needs and goals of the whole group and of each individual member of the group.

[1] Taken almost in verbatim from: Hope, A. & Timmel, S. (1984). Training for Transformation: Handbook for Community Workers, Book 2. Zimbabwe: Mambo Press.

- Each person also needs to be aware of the potential contributions of other members in a group.
- To network, self-initiative is a key step. To encourage other people to be concerned with your needs, you must first learn how to be concerned their needs. In giving, the other people are inspired to reciprocate. (Though this game allows only the giving of pieces of cards to people who need them, and not the asking from other people of pieces of cards you need, in real life, aside from giving, you may also seek the assistance of other people for your own needs. The game is designed to be in such way to emphasize self-initiative in giving.
- When working cooperatively in groups, we need to recognize the problems of other people in order to help them make their maximum contribution.
- Groups that pay attention to helping each other work well are likely to be more effective than groups which ignore each other.

If the above points did not come out from the small group reports, then present them as the key points which the exercise would like to convey to the participants.

5. Give a lecture on networking, and its relation to lobbying and campaigning. You may highlight the following in your lecture:
   - Definition and types of networking
   - Requirements and tips in personal networking
     - Purpose of personal networking
     - Identification of people to network with
     - Tips in building and nurturing networks
     - Qualities of an effective network builder
   - Requirements and tips in organizational networking
     - Core patterns of networking
     - Network management cycle
     - Challenges for network management
6. After the lecture, ask each participant to reflect on the following questions, and to write their answers in a sheet of paper.
   - Who are the people in your cooperative, who can help push for women's significant representation in the cooperative's leadership structure? You may draw a network map to answer this question.
   - How can these people help?
   - How can your and their needs/interests be satisfied in this process of networking?
   - How can you link up with them?
   - What unites the people in your cooperative? What are your shared needs, interests and aspirations?
   - What does each one do to make him/herself an effective part of the cooperative?
   - What are the success factors of your cooperative as a network of people trying to achieve common goals and to satisfy common needs?

Caution/Hints:

Guide each group in their execution of the cooperative square exercise. If a participant is having difficulty, the observer can be instructed to ask this participant if she needs help. If she says yes, then give her the assistance she needs. This participant can refuse the offered assistance if she does not want help.

Variation:

Another way of starting the session is with a metaphor on unity, or with a fictional/non-fictional story or a folklore about how working together can help in the achievement of one's goal.

> One example of a metaphor is a broom made of stems of coconut leaves, called "*walis ting-ting"* in the Philippines. The "*walis ting-ting*" is a popular symbol of unity in the Philippines, and songs and poems have even been composed to depict this. The usual way of explaining how "*walis ting-ting"* symbolizes unity and the importance of working together to achieve a common goal goes like this:
>
> When these stems are separate, they can easily break and have no use. But when these thin stems are bundled together, they can be used for a lot of things, such as for sweeping of floors. And not even a very strong person can break the bundled stems.
>
> A process has to be followed, however, in the making of a "walis ting-ting." First, each stem of a coconut leaf must be polished to remove its rough edges. Then these polished stems will be bundled together by a strong yet flexible thing, such as a rope or a bamboo bark. In order to be bundled together, the stems must be arranged with their thick parts on one side and the thin parts at the other end. Before using, the very thin ends of the stems which will not help in the purpose of the "walis tingting" will be chopped off.

After the same explanation of your chosen metaphor, then lead the discussion to how and why such metaphor symbolizes unity and networking. The *"walis ting-ting*," for example, shows that:

- When people (the stems in the *walis ting-ting*) are united, then they gain strength or power which other people, groups and institutions will find difficult to break. With this strength and power, the people can work for the fulfillment of their shared interests and aspirations.
- To be bundled together, there must be a basis of unity or a factor which will unite the people. The rope symbolizes this. And this factor or basis of unity must be firm, but flexible enough to accommodate the people's common interests and needs.
- For an effective bundling and use of the stems, each stem must be polished. This means that each person or group that will form a network must be prepared to be part of such network. Then the strengths and limitations of each participating individual and group must be clear to everyone, and the weaknesses which will not help in the purpose of the network must be avoided, or eliminated or effectively managed.

Use the same way of describing your metaphor and of explaining how this metaphor symbolizes unity and networking. You may even make the interpretation of the symbols of the metaphor participatory. In this process, the participants are asked about their own understanding of how the metaphor reflects the essence of unity and networking.

Quick Check:

The reflection of the participants on the networking experiences of their cooperative (step #6) shall be used to check the level of appreciation of the participants on the session.

Networking

The decades of social development work have brought forth a key realization that only in unity of people — in the midst of diversity of their beliefs, values, practices — can true development and peace be achieved. Participation, cooperation and support of as many people and groups as possible make an endeavor empowering, meaningful and successful. With this realization, the importance of networking among people has come about. Indeed, networking is also considered in this manual as a key towards coping up with the challenges of the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives.

As a general definition, networking can be considered as the linking together of many people or groups/organizations who share common interests or causes, to exchange ideas and information, and to work together towards achieving common goals and satisfying common needs. With this definition, networking can hence be at different levels — from interpersonal networking to formal networking of different organizations. Since both levels – personal and organizational — are necessary for the achievement of gender equity and equality, and are important concepts and tools which can help women-trainees become effective leaders of their cooperatives, both are extensively discussed in this paper.

I. Inter-personal Networking

Inter-personal networking refers to the process whereby a person links with other people in the spirit of giving and sharing of resources towards the attainment of common goals. Networking in this level can be formal or informal. Formal networks are characterized by the presence of definite goals, by-laws and structures; whereas, informal networks are without structures and clear-cut set of expectations and obligations among the members.

a) Purpose of Networking

Generally, networking must be founded on the spirit of both giving and sharing, and not on a one-way- type of transaction. Hence, in networking one should think of not only what she or he can get from other people, but also of what she or he can contribute. Without one or the other, networking is doomed to fail.

A general rule, hence, is to find people who share common goals, needs and interests as yours, or with whom you can set common goals. Successful networking is therefore about:

- Giving and receiving
- Contributing and accepting support
- Offering and requesting
- Promoting others' needs and promoting your own needs
- Trust and persistence.

b) Tips in Networking

b.1 The first step in networking is to define specific networking goals. The identification and selection of people will of course depend on one's specific networking goals. For instance, your goal may be to seek support for women's significant

representation in the leadership structures of your cooperative. Then, the next step, which is the development of network mapping, is dependent on this goal.

b.2 In mapping your network, the second step, you identify people in your environment, within and outside of your cooperative, who are potential or actual supporters or partners of your cause. In this step, you do not only identify people to network with, but you also classify them according to your level of knowledge about their position vis-à-vis your objective. People can be classified according to the following categories.

Suspects: People who appear to be open to support your cause.

Prospects: Individuals who, research confirms, are supportive of your cause.

Contacts: Prospects with whom you have initially discussed your cause and to whom you have expressed your willingness to offer support to their cause as well.

Advocates: Contacts who are openly promoting the value of networking with you for their and your causes.

Partners: People who you regularly coordinate with for the achievement of common goals.

b.3 Once you have identified the right people to network with vis-à-vis your networking objectives, the next step is to start meeting and talking to these people towards making them partners in your cause. To effectively do this, the following tips can be help:

- Begin with a positive and trusting attitude.
- Establish the right image. Learn how to be assertive, and not aggressive nor passive.
- Make sure you have something to exchange. This is a two-way social process, even if it is merely: “Thank you, I appreciate your ……. time / information / advice / business….”
- Be clear and confident with your skills.
- Develop your communication skills – active listening, probing, effective feedback giving. Encourage your contacts to talk as well.
- Become a “known and credible” entity to those who can make change happen.
- Learn to use courtesy, tact and diplomacy.
- Match your words with your actions
- Never reveal a confidence. Honour privacy and trust.
- Make effort to attend and to take an active part in gatherings
- Keep in touch, even by telephone.
- Use both formal and informal opportunities.
- Respect your network. Never expect free professional services nor provide free counsel yourself.

- Admit mistakes and lesson learnt. Genuine humility and swallowed pride is a valued mature behaviour.
- Patience and persistence will bring the rewards you want.
- Develop systems to follow up your contacts.

c) Seven networking competencies

The following are seven competencies needed for effective networking.

c.1 Temperament/disposition

How confident are you in yourself? How open are you to socialize with other people and build networks?

c.2 Strategizing ability

How knowledgeable are you of the people around you? Are you able to make use of all opportunities for networking?

c.3 Organizational skills

How effectively do you organize yourself and the information you gather about people you meet, so that you follow them up efficiently?

c.4 Nurturing ability

How well do you create a spirit of mutual giving and sharing of information?

c.5 Communication skills

How good are you in active listening, in asking good questions, in expressing your own thoughts and feelings, and giving feedback to what other people say?

c.6 Social involvement

How much do you involve yourself in social gatherings of all types to keep your network active and expanding?

c.7 Persistence

How persistent are you in developing your personal network and working towards the achievement of your goals?

d) Networking Do's

- Ask others for help
- Be friendly, warm and sincere
- Be persistent in following up and following through
- Focus carefully on learning people's names
- Be helpful to others even if there is no immediate or direct benefit to you
- Stay in touch regularly and systematically.
- If available, always carry calling cards
- Get known as being well-connected (and a valuable resource for others)
- Sit next to strangers at events (not alone or with people you know)
- Keep networking even when you think you can stop.

e) Networking Don'ts

- Don't be impatient. Results and benefits can come when you least expext them and often take time.
- Don't lost sight of your ultimate goal or objective.
- Don't expect too much of others
- Don't have hidden agendas (not being up-front and straightforward with other people)
- Don't be insensitive to value, belief and cultural differences.
- Don't fail to follow through when you need something
- Don't go for quantity over quality in your relationships
- Don't try to do too much and spread yourself too thinly
- Don't try to network in a way that doesn't fit your style.

II. Organizational Networking

Organizational networking refers to the process whereby an organization links with other organizations, groups or people outside of the organization to achieve common goals.

1. Types of Networks

As in interpersonal networks, there are two types of organizational networks: formal and informal.

a) Formal networks

There are four different types of formal network: the regulative network, the innovative network, the informative-instructive network and the integrative network.

- The r*egulative network* is predominantly found in formal communication system and consists of the channels used to disseminate regulations, cooperative policies, practices and procedures. It is the network, for example through which the non-members of a cooperative get to know the procedure for joining the cooperatives, and the current members get to know how the board is elected etc.
- The *innovative network* has the sole purpose of making the cooperative flexible and adaptive to the changing demands and environment, which all cooperatives today have to confront. For example, the business orientation of the cooperatives today in comparison to the sole welfare orientation in the past and may be even the efforts to have more women in decision making positions is also part of this network.
- The *informative-instructive network* provides the training function deemed necessary by the cooperatives for efficient functioning. As with the other three networks, the informative-instructive network furthers the cooperative needs of adaptiveness, morale, conformity and institutionalization. All of these, in turn, contribute to improve productivity.
- The *integrative network* focuses on member/ worker morale. The benefits derived by being employed or being in the cooperative movement can be considered as useful examples. The grapevine also works here. This network is the one that is closest to the informal communications network.

b) Informal networks

Informal networks link people, groups, organizations and institutions to one another without the formal organizational structure which formal networks have. Meetings, discussions, sharing and collective actions are, hence, done irregularly or only when those who compose the network see it as necessary. Since there is no clear and formal leadership and membership, anyone can join the informal network at any time. An informal network can exist within a formal network.

An interesting aspect of network analysis is to see how the informal networks compare and contrast with the formalized cooperative set up. The formal and informal systems always overlap to some degree. At times more than the formal networks, informal networks are much stronger in getting things moving. Currently men make use of their informal network much more beneficially than the women. Many formal issues are discussed extensively through the informal networks.

It is evident that gender issues are often prevalent in networking. The networks that matter most are heavily male-dominated and it may prove hard for women to get into them. Women may face restriction in their informal socializing after working hours, even with other women co-operators, because of social prejudices and domestic responsibilities. Consequently, women experience more difficulties than men in gaining visibility, credibility and access to information. Hence it is felt that women are often excluded from network structures and thus this acts detrimentally for them to advance in the cooperatives and reach decision-making positions.

2. Benefits of Networking

Networking fosters cooperation. It is a process of information exchange that involves knowing where to go when you need help and how to ask for it, and when others need your help and how to give it.

Networking also implies knowing the right persons who can help to obtain the information needed. Information is power and empowering. To be the right person in the right place at the right time requires some work and a little information or help from the right sources.

A sense of solidarity amongst the partners in the network and a sense of belonging to a common group is a typical feature of networking.

Networking could also bring about frank feedback or referral needed. It could also bring some fresh advice, a new option or opportunity one never saw before.

3. Core patterns in formal and informal network formation

Experiences in network formation in the Philippines have shown the following common factors or patterns. (PhilDHRRA, 1999)

a) Core group building

At the heart of the beginning stage of formation of the network is an initiator with a vision and a willingness to be the prime mover of the group. The initiator could be a person or an organization. Aside from embodying the core group vision, the initiator must be credible among the core group members. This person is steadfast and present

in every meeting, encouraging the core group members to transcend their personal or institutional biases and to "think network." Once the shift from being disparate individuals or organizations to a network is achieved, the core group becomes stable. The network can then begin to pursue the key issue that it wishes to address as a distinct group.

b) Need for a shared vision/issue

Once a core group has been constituted, the other members within the group must be able to share in the vision or issue. Identifying the issue and articulating this within the core group are time-consuming tasks. Since the members have their own interests and reasons for joining the network, there is a need for a "give-and-take" process among the core group members. This process will enable them to arrive at a consensus on the common issues to collectively address.

c) Presence of resources

Resources, such as time, people, finances and other materials, goods, are necessary inputs to support the coming together of different persons or groups. These resources include the contributions of members for snacks during meetings, office supplies for communications, funds coming from donors, and the efforts provided by the members of the core group as well as those from outside of the core group, such as the staff who help in the network formation.

d) Time and space for commitment building

Commitment building provides the members the chance to transcend their personal or institutional biases and affirm the relevance of the network. This process, thus, keeps the vision of the network alive in all the members. And this constant affirmation of the vision and mission of the network is a key to the sustainability of its operations.

e) Seizing the "Aha! Moment"

A level of sensitivity to key events and turning points of the network is important to making these critical moments play crucial roles in its development. To attain this, capability building is very necessary.

f) Sustaining Activities

Activities that will keep the network active and confident on its course of movement and development towards its goals are very important sustaining factors.

g) Building network credibility

To be recognized, the network has to be credible. With this credibility, the network will be able to succeed in its lobbying efforts and in its campaign for public support.

4. Formal network management cycle

In the Philippines, the phases of network management cycle have been identified based on reflections on the experiences of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and people's organizations (POs). These are the following: (Liporada)

Phase 1: Organizational Stage

Step 1: Strategic Planning

NGOs and POs come together based on a common need to discuss and agree on their points of unity and come out with their common vision, mission, goals and strategies for developing

the network after an analysis of existing conditions and trends. The goals incorporate the development agenda and the focus on institution building both for the members and the network itself.

Step 2: Operations Planning

The network members or partners translate the strategic statements into operational plans consisting of one to three year objectives and proposed programs and projects. They also agree on an operational structure; define and choose their committees; select the board members; recruit the staff positions necessary; develop key result areas and indicators and come out with operational and program based policies and procedures, i.e. policies on membership administration, finance, communications and research, monitoring and evaluation.

Phase 2: Operating Management

Step 3: Coordination and control

Operation management relates to seeing to it that what was planned are implemented efficiently and effectively. Critical concerns at this stage are the role delineation and tasking among the officers and members; the conduct of regular meetings and feedback sessions among the committee, management (secretariat) and the board members; and regular socialization and informal sessions to strengthen the formal relationships.

Step 4: Research and communications

The management function of research and communications related to accessing, processing and dissemination of information to the members for guidance, learning and decision making. Giving feedback regarding the latest trends relevant to the development in the province should be shared by all.

Step 5: Monitoring and evaluation

Using the key result areas and indicators developed during the operations planning stage (Step 2), monitoring involves the comparison between the targets versus the actual performance (blueprint approach) while following through the activities and processes in community organizing at the field level (learning process approach). Evaluation is a judgement of the program or operations on the basis of a comparison with a number of pre-established criteria (the KRAs and indicators). Evaluation results serve as inputs for long-ranged policy formulation and strategic planning. The development of the network's monitoring and evaluation system will enable it to assess both outputs and outcomes of their program implementation.

Phase 3: Resource Development and Mobilization

Step 6: Resource Generation

Resources vital to the network's sustainability and institutionalization refer to either financial, human power (including technology) or gifts in kind. Accessing such resources require creativity, commitment and teamwork. It implies defining where and how the resources may be obtained, which is either through internal fund generation, external funding or income generating ventures. In cooperatives, seeking of funds from outside sources is a last resort. As much as possible, funds must be generated from within the cooperative.

Phase 4: Program Implementation

Step 7: Network and Member Strengthening

The strength of the network is the combined strength of its members. The network should therefore have a program for mutual sharing of resources and technology (partly responded to under Step 4) through an Institution Building (e.g. Organizational Development) and Human Resource Development Program for the members, with the members as either recipient or bearer of the services. In the same way, strengthening the network per se is the responsibility of all the members through board, secretariat or committee on Institution Building (if organized).

Step 9: Advocacy

The development agenda prepared in Step 1 is translated into an advocacy plan focused on ensuring that the issues, policies or idea being espoused are accepted and translated in concrete form by the government. Lobbying, negotiating and other advocacy forms are considered depending on the target group.

Step 10: Community Empowerment

Direct community organizing is a function of the NGO or PO member of the network. However, a common strategy for supporting a particular community is necessary for a more focused and effective program implementation either by the individual NGO or by the cluster of NGOs/POs involved in the area. Among the activities that may be considered in this stage are community profiling (including mapping of NGOs/POs) and joint undertakings with the government.

5. Challenges for network management

Among the challenges for network management drawn from the experiences of NGOs and POs in the Philippines are the following:

a) Varying levels of appreciation and commitment from the membership

Members participate in network activities to the degree that the network is meeting their respective personal and organizational needs and objectives. Where the support is found lacking, then they may become inactive. Moreover, their own organizational imperatives, which are considered more important than network matters, should be reckoned with. A member who is saddled with organizational issues such as lack of funds and people will opt to skip attending network functions.

b) Different views regarding network issues

It takes a lot of effort to reconcile opposing viewpoints of various members involved in an issue. It needs a lot of maturity among the members to go beyond the issue concerns to move towards the broader perspective of social transformation.

c) Lack of continuity of initiatives or sustenance of efforts

Unlike within an organization where one deals with either the supervisor or the assistant of a unit, the network secretariat or the chair of a particular committee may encounter a situation where the participants to succeeding meetings are representatives of the program officer who attended the initial meetings. This results in a non-sustenance of the level of involvement and depth of the cooperative undertaking.

d) Lack of resources

Advocacy work or the coordination of joint programs may be hampered if the necessary logistics to support the initiatives are inadequate. While volunteerism is expected at the initial stages of the endeavor, the degree of commitment will certainly wane and lead to frustration when the backstop supporter are not provided.

e) Conflict between the Network (as represented by the Board or Secretariat) and the membership

When the board becomes exclusive body focused only in ensuring the sustenance of their respective organizations, then the network is not serving their common interest. In the same way, when the secretariat accessed funds (in the guise of sustainability) to undertake programs and projects that are on the ground and requiring hiring additional staff, then the network is directly competing with the members.

To respond to the aforementioned challenges, the process of consultation among the network board, secretariat functional committees and the members should be able to draw out the best schemes among the network membership towards effective and efficient management.

Reference

1. Liporada, C. (undated). Sourcebook on provincial ngo/po network management. Quezon City, Philippines: PhilDHRRA.
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3. Networking (Second tier) Cooperatives, paper presented at Cooperatives Key Issues Conference on " Cooperatives Managing Change into the 21st Century", 19 & 20 October 1995, Sydney Hilton, Australia

UNIT 4
Lobbying and Campaigning

MAIN MESSAGE

At this point of the training, the women-trainees are expected to have been equipped with the knowledge and skills necessary to become effective leaders of their cooperatives, and strong advocates of gender equity and equality. The positive changes which they can introduce to their cooperatives are, however, not sustainable without the corresponding support from and changes in the external environment. Specifically, to survive and achieve its goals, the cooperative needs the full support of the government in the form of favorable legislations, as well as the support of the general public, which is the source of its actual and potential membership and market. Two key approaches to achieve this critical support from the government and the general public are the foci of this session. And this session aims to provide the women-trainees with a general orientation of these approaches in case their situation calls for their use.

In this session, lobbying is generally defined as the process of seeking changes in government policies and legislations. It refers to the usage of a political network to elicit favorable government support for an agenda, such as the development of gender-responsive and accountable cooperatives. Campaigning, on the other hand, is the process of seeking support from a big number of people – from the general membership, if the needed support is from within the cooperative, or from the general public, if the needed support is from outside of the cooperative. To discuss both, this session provides the definitions of both approaches, and some tips in undertaking them.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

This session aims to:

1. orient the trainees on the nature of lobbying and campaigning, as approaches to winning the support of the government and the general public, respectively.
2. provide the trainees with tips on how to effectively undertake lobbying and campaigning.

Time Requirement: four hours

Sharing of definitions of the terms lobbying and campaigning:	10 minutes
Presentation of lobbying case:	10 minutes
Processing of lobbying case:	20 minutes
Presentation of campaign case:	10 minutes
Processing of campaign case:	20 minutes
Individual development of lobby and campaign plans:	30 minutes
Sharing in small groups of lobby and campaign plans:	45 minutes
Plenary reporting: and synthesis:	60 minutes
Lecture:	30 minutes

Steps:

1. Ask the participants for their own understanding of the terms, lobbying and campaigning. Write their answers on the board. At the end of the participants' sharing of definitions, explain to them how the two terms are used in this session. That is:
   - lobbying as the process of seeking changes in government policies and legislations.
   - Campaigning as the process of seeking support from a big number of people – from the general membership, if the needed support is from within the cooperative, or from the general public, if the needed support is from outside of the cooperative.

   It the definitions of the participants are consistent with this usage of the two terms, validate their answers. If not, then clarify the differences and request them to view the two words based on the definitions as provided by this session.
2. Share to them a concrete case of lobbying, and another concrete example of lobbying in the country. These cases must be developed even before this session.

   Start with the case on lobbying. After sharing the case, ask the participants to identify the following in the case:
   - What are the goal (s) of the lobbying effort?
   - How was it done? (concrete steps and activities undertaken)
   - Who did the lobbying? (number of people, from what sector and their qualities)
   - What key lessons on lobbying can be derived from this experience?

   Write the sharing of the participants on manila papers – one manila paper per question.

   Then share another case, this time, on a concrete experience in campaigning. After sharing the case, ask similar questions to the participants, such as the following:
   - What are the goal(s) of the campaign effort?
   - How was it done? (concrete steps and activities undertaken)
   - Who did the campaigning? (number of people, from what sector and their qualities)
   - What key lessons on campaigning can be derived from this experience?

   As you did in lobbying, write the answers of the participants to each question on a manila paper.
3. After the presentation and analysis of the cases, instruct each trainee to develop their own lobby and campaign plans. Each plan (both lobby and campaign plan) should contain the following:
   - Objectives
   - Concrete steps and activities to undertake
   - Qualities of an effective lobbyist
4. When all trainees have developed their lobby and campaign plans, form them into small groups for sharing of plans. After the sharing, ask each small group to identify the common and particular characteristics of their lobby and campaign plans. Each group will hence have two outputs. The common and particular characteristics of their lobby plans, and the common and particular characteristics of their campaign plans. These two outputs must contain the following:
   - Common and particular objectives

- Common and particular steps and activities
- Common and particular qualities of effective lobbyist/campaigner

5. To deepen the discussion, after synthesizing the outputs of all the groups which you will give when all groups have presented their outputs to the plenary, give a lecture on lobbying and campaigning.
6. Then end the session with the quick check forms.

Caution/Hints

It is important to check before conducting this session the level of experience and knowledge of participants in lobbying and campaigning. If all the participants do not have experience at all in both, then you may use the guide provided above. Otherwise, the trainers are recommended to use the suggested process explained in the variation.

Variation

If the participants are already experienced in lobbying and campaigning, instead of presenting cases on these approaches, you may simply request them to share their own experiences in lobbying and campaigning. You may ask for two volunteers to share experiences on lobbying and another two volunteers to share experiences on campaigning. In processing all these experiences, you may use the guide questions given in the session guide.

Quick Check:

1. Is there a need for lobbying and campaigning in your area? Why?
2. What key learning did you get from this session?
3. How can you use this learning?

Trainers' Reference Material

Lobbying and Campaigning

The acknowledgement of the inescapable influence of the external environment on the success and failure of an organization has led many leaders and managers to be open to understanding and even getting involved in external affairs for the sake of the survival and full development of the organization. The critical elements in the external environment that have been proven to have undeniable effect on any organization, cooperatives included, are the government and the general public. With this realization, leaders and managers have come to realize that lobbying for favorable legislations and campaigning for public support are essential components of their work. Since this is very true even to the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives, both lobbying and campaigning are included in this manual as essential skills that must be learned by women trainees to cope up with the challenges of the advocacy.

I. Lobbying

1. Definition

Lobbying is generally defined as the process of seeking or pushing for favorable government policies and legislations. It refers to the usage of a political network to seek favorable legislations in support of a cause, an interest or an agenda, such as the development of gender responsive and accountable cooperatives. The term "lobby" originated from a practice where people stood in the United States House of Senate chamber's lobby (anteroom, entrance hall, corridor) to talk to legislators as they went in to vote. Lobbying has often been associated with professional lobbyists working for certain companies or groups or organizations. In social development work, however, lobbying has emerged to be a collective involvement of the members and leaders of organizations seeking support for their causes. To differentiate this from the traditional form, this collective form of lobbying for social causes has been termed as people's lobby.

2. Ingredients of a Successful Lobbying

There are five ingredients of a successful people's lobby:

The first is, to feed the government with valuable information, both facts and opinion, which can help them formulate policies and test policy proposals that are in accordance with the condition and general sentiments of the different sectors, including the cooperatives.

Secondly, the values, goals and tactics of a lobbyist must be compatible with the country's political culture and be perceived as legitimate. Without public support a lobbyist stands little chance of public recognition. An interest group, such as the cooperative movement, needs to educate, hence, the public and increase their awareness of how a particular measure, such as legislations supportive of the development of gender responsive and accountable cooperatives, will benefit them. Then the lobbyists need to convince the lawmakers that they have the public support.

Thirdly, good leadership is important. Strong, vocal, credible and influential leaders bring the cooperatives valuable publicity and direction. With them, law makers will attend to the cause of the cooperatives.

Fourth, flexibility is important in achieving success. It is often necessary to compromise one part of a demand to achieve another.

Fifthly, lobbyists must use all opportunities available to them. They must have a good knowledge of where to "plug into" the policy-making system. An important condition of success consists of knowing where and at what stage access to policy-makers can be achieved.

And lastly, a good budget naturally assists in achieving and maintaining access to policy-makers. Prosperity does not guarantee success but it certainly increases its possibility.

3. Basic Tasks

The following are some of the basic tasks involved in legislative advocacy for people's concerns:

a) Formulate a clear position or policy on an issue

- Through consultations and consensus, decide on the policies and positions that you want to lobby for. The broader the base of consultations, the better.
- It will be helpful to identify the basic principles that guide your position. Be clear on the essentials, the items that you cannot compromise, and those provisions that you can give up.
- If there are already one ore more proposed bills regarding the issue, study these thoroughly and make your comments and alternative formulations.
- It is best to draft your own bill incorporating your proposals, especially if no similar bill has yet been filed. You can work with a sympathetic legislator on this bill and ask him or her to sponsor it. A simple bill with the essential provisions is better than one with too many details that may be controversial and could be part of the implementing guidelines. Again, subject this draft bill to consultations with various groups.
- Make a study of the resources needed to implement your proposal, and try to identify the possible sources. The question of where the appropriation will come from, will always be asked.
- Back-up your positions with well-researched information: statistical data, examples, surveys, etc. These can be compiled into an information kit for ready reference.

b) Develop a network of advocates for the issue

- Gather as many allies on the issue as possible, especially among organizations from the sector concerned. It may be feasible to set up a task force or coalition on the issue, whether on a temporary or long-term basis. If your coalition can be projected and recognized as a credible and authentic force of the sectors on the issue, it will more easily gain the attention of legislators.
- Try also to create a network of support groups from other sectors. The Church, professional groups, and respected personalities seem to carry much weight with legislators.
- It is also wise to know who the opponents to your position are, and to be familiar with the various alternatives being presented on the issue.

c) Follow a lobby plan or strategy

- Be familiar with the legislative process, or how a bill becomes a law. Timing is crucial to lobby work. So, you should know the status of the bill you are concerned with, and where it is in the legislative process.

- Get to know or be known by the key legislative players on the issue.
- Try to convince the key legislative players about your position and get a commitment of support.

d) Raise public awareness on the issue

- Do not limit your campaign to legislators, or keep the issue just to the sector of sectors concerned. Initiate various for a like symposia, debates, and also mass actions, where the issues can be discussed in detail before a broad audience.
- Learn to use mass media. Develop contacts among print and broadcast media, and know who are assigned to cover certain beats or issues. Learn the art of calling and conducting a press conference effectively. Be able to present the issue in a simple and popularized way. Remember that if media pay attention to you and give you space and time, the legislators will also probably take notice of you and what you have to say.

4. Tools for Lobbying

a) Visits

Visits or personal contact lobbying are the most effective and have the most impact of the legislators. Many busy representatives hardly find the time to read through documents or position papers. But they will often accommodate a brief visit by their constituents and more like to remember this than a letter or statement. Four to six persons is a good number for visiting; don't overwhelm with number.

b) Letters

A personal well-written letter is an effective way to influence a legislator. Even when one or two letters can have an effect if the issue is urgent or important, or is receiving no publicity. More letters are required if the issue is "hot" in the press. But in every issue, a letter from a constituent which is clearly the person's own thinking and feeling can make an impact. "Packaging " your letter is important.

c) Information materials

A compilation of important information on your issue of concern will be very useful in trying to convince a legislator. Often, the legislative staff are concerned with various issues at one time, and lack the research material and data that you may be able to provide. This effort also shows that you may have seriously studied the issue and know what you are talking about. This information kit can be adopted to become a press kit and education kit.

II. Effective Campaigning

1. Definition

If lobbying is the process of advocating changes in government policies and legislations by seeking the support and active involvement of legislators, campaigning, on the other hand, is the process of advocating changes by seeking the support of the general membership (if within an organization) or of the public (if beyond the boundaries of the cooperatives). The change can be the adoption of a new value, belief or the passing of new policies and laws, or

the embrace of new social practices, such as the active participation of women in governance. This therefore includes women's vying for elective posts in organizations, such as cooperatives and in government.

2. Tips in Effective Campaigning

To effectively seek for the support of the public to an advocacy, the following questions must be pondered upon during the designing of the campaign plan: (Kotler & Roberto, 1989)

a) Does the advocacy address the needs, or solve the problems, or satisfy the interests and concerns of the target people?

The relevance of the advocacy to the target people must be set. This means that it should be shown to address the needs, to solve the problems and to satisfy the interests and concerns of the target people. If not, then the advocacy will surely be not supported by the general membership or public.

The campaign plan should hence be anchored on a good research of the needs, problems and interests of the target people.

b) How should the advocacy be named or how should it sound to effectively catch the attention of the target people?

The advocacy must be packaged interestingly and creatively to catch the attention of the target people. Words and statements that will be used to symbolize the advocacy must be those that the target people can easily understand.

c) How should the advocacy be presented to the target people?

The medium of presentation which can make the advocacy easily reach the target people and which can best elicit their recognition and support must be identified and utilized (i.e. television, radio, print media, personal communication, etc.). The presentation and presenters must have characteristics that are appealing to the target people.

The presence of people who are credible and well-recognized by the target people will best boost the success of the campaign.

d) How should the interest and support of the target people to the advocacy be sustained and further strengthened?

The final task is to sustain the interest and support of the target people to the advocacy. This stage of the campaign has three steps:

- First, the target people's condition must be researched and monitored.
- The second step is the utilization of the research by coming out with a list of possible action on how to sustain the interests and support of the target people for the advocacy.
- In the third step, the advocates or the implementers of the campaign plan make the needed adjustments and changes in the campaign plan.

References:

1. Hans, D. (1998). Imternational Lobbying: ICMIF – UN/UNCTAD examples, paper presented at the Seminar on Lobbying, 3 September 1998, Montevideo (Uruguay)
2. ILO Women in management in Africa, Module 3; Career development – Unit 2; International Labour Office * International Training Centre of the ILO * University of Alberta
3. Kotler, P. and Roberto, E. (1989). Social marketing: Strategies for changing behavior. USA: The Free Press.
4. Lobbying Know how: Influencing Decisions of the Decision-makers, paper presented at the Seminar on Lobbying, 29 August 1999, Quebec City (Canada)

UNIT 5
Stress Management

MAIN MESSAGE

Aside from being skilled in managing change, networking, campaigning and lobbying, another skill which will help women take on the challenges of leadership in cooperatives and of seeking for equitable relations with men is stress management. With the ability in stress management, personal sustainability in the midst of the critical challenges will be ensured.

Because of the importance of this skill in enabling women to cope up with leadership and advocacy challenges, this session provides the women participants with concepts and tools on how to effectively manage their stresses. Specifically, this session delves into the following:

- Definition of stress
- Sources of stress
- Stress symptoms
- Stress management interventions

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

This session aims to help women gain personal sustainability in the face of difficult challenges of leadership in cooperatives by:

1. Enhancing their knowledge of stress, stressors and stress symptoms;
2. Equipping them with tools in managing stress.
3. Developing their capacity in leading their cooperatives in coming up with necessary organizational interventions to help leaders and members who are in stress.

Time Requirement: two hours

Body Scanning Exercise:	20 minutes
Body Relaxation Exercise:	20 minutes
Sharing:	15 minutes
Lecture:	45 minutes
Effective and Ineffective Coping Behavior:	15 minutes
Small group sharing:	30 minutes
Plenary reporting and synthesis:	
Quick Check:	30 minutes

Materials Required :

1. Illustrations of front and back parts of the body

2. Handouts on Stress Management (simplified version of the attached Trainers' Reference Material, can be developed)
3. Visual aids
4. Overhead projector

Steps:

1. Invite the participants to close their eyes, have a moment of silence, and be sensitive to their bodies. Tell them to be aware of the different parts of their bodies, from head to toe. In this exercise, they will scan their bodies and identify stress points. Start with the front part of their bodies, from head to toe; tell them to identify areas where tightness or pain is felt. When finished, tell them to get their illustration of the front part of the body and draw a point in each area where tightness and/or pain is felt. Then, ask them to close their eyes again and to concentrate now on the back part of their bodies. By feeling the different parts of the back of their bodies, tell them again to identify stress points. Again when finished, tell them to get their illustration of the back part of their bodies and draw a point in each area where tightness and/or pain is felt.

   After the body scanning exercise, do the body relaxation exercise. To do this, invite the participants to close their eyes again and concentrate on their stress points. They will concentrate on each stress point — one by one — feel its tightness then mentally release the tightness and relax. Remind them to be conscious of their breathing — inhale and exhale — as they relax their stress points.

   After a 20-minute silent body relaxation exercise, tell the participants to slowly open their eyes. Then invite 3 to 5 of them to share their experiences. Ask them to share their stress points and their feelings during and after the body relaxation exercise. Allot around 15 minutes for this sharing. If, however, more participants are very eager to share their experiences, then you may extend the sharing time.
2. To help the trainees understand stress and determine their appropriate responses to their stresses, give a lecture on stress management. In this lecture, you can highlight the following points:
   - Definition of stress
   - Types of stress: eustress and distress
   - Sources of stress
   - Stress symptoms
   - Possible stress management interventions
3. After the lecture, form the participants into small groups. Then, ask the participants of the small groups to share on the following:
   - The stresses that they experience as a result of the advocacy for women's significant representation in the leadership of cooperatives.
   - How do they presently cope up with these stresses
   - Necessary courses of action – of individual women, families, friends, the cooperative, etc. – to help women cope up with the stress.

   Instruct each small group to be ready to share their discussion points with the big group.

4. When all groups are ready, invite to them to share their discussion outputs with the big group. After the sharing, synthesize their points.
5. Distribute Quick Check forms and tell them to answer them individually.

Caution/Hints:

Emphasize to the participants that experiencing stress(es) is normal. In fact, all people have their own share of stress. And if vying for, or assuming leadership position creates stress, then that should also be taken as normal. Emphasize further that this session seeks to provide them with coping mechanisms that will help them sustain themselves, and be happy and peaceful while taking on leadership positions in their cooperatives.

Variation:

Instead of the body scanning and body relaxation exercises with which some of the participants may not be comfortable, simply hold a brainstorming on the types or examples of stresses which women experience in different scenarios. After the brainstorming, you may immediately proceed with the lecture.

Quick Check

1. What are your key learning from the session? _____

   _____

   _____

2. How will this learning help you with your bid for or your assumption of leadership positions in your cooperative? _____

   _____

   _____

3. Do you think you cooperative needs this type of discussion? Why? _____

   _____

   _____

Trainers' Reference Material

Stress Management

1. The Meaning of Stress

Stress is usually thought of in negative terms. It is felt to be caused by something bad. For example, a loved one is seriously ill; there are financial problems; or the loss of a job. This is a form of ***distress***. But there is also a positive, pleasant side of stress caused by good things. For example, a healthy baby is born; victory in the election of a cooperative; or successful completion of a training program. This is a form of ***eustress***. This latter term was coined by the pioneers of stress research from the Greek *eu*, which means "good". In other words, stress can be viewed in a number of different ways and has been described as the most imprecise word in the scientific dictionary. The word "stress" has also been compared with the word "sin": "both are short, emotionally charged words used to refer to something that otherwise would take many words to say".

Although there are numerous definitions and much debate about the meaning of job stress, Ivanceivich and Matteson (1990) define ***stress*** simply as "the interaction of the individual with the environment," but then they go on to give a more detailed working definition, as follows: "an adaptive response, mediated by individual differences and/or psychological processes, that is a consequence of any external (environmental) action, situation, or event that places excessive psychological and/or physical demands upon a person". Beehr and Newman define ***job stress*** as "a condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs and characterized by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning". Taking these two definitions and simplifying them for the purposes of this chapter, "**stress**" is defined as an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological, and/or behavioural deviations.

It is also important to point out what stress is *not:*

a) Stress is not simply anxiety. Anxiety operates solely in the emotional and psychological sphere, whereas stress operates there and also in the physiological sphere. Thus, stress may be accompanied by anxiety, but the two should not be equated.

b) Stress is not simply nervous tension. Like anxiety, nervous tension may result from stress, but the two are not the same. Unconscious people have exhibited stress, and some people may keep it "bottled up" and not reveal it through nervous tension.

c) Stress is not necessarily something damaging, bad, or to be avoided. Eustress is not damaging or bad and is something people should seek out rather than avoid. The key, of course, is how the person handles the stress. Stress is inevitable; distress may be prevented or can be effectively controlled.

2. The Background of Stress

Concern about the impact of stress on people has its roots in medicine and specifically in the pioneering work of Hans Selye, the recognised father of stress. He found a phenomenon called the *general adaptation syndrome* (GAS) about a decade after he introduced the term "stress" in his writings.

The GAS has three stages: alarm, resistance, and exhaustion. In the alarm stage an outside stressor mobilizes the internal stress system of the body. There are a number of physiological and chemical reactions such as increased pituitary and adrenaline secretions; noticeable increases in respiration, heart rate, and blood pressure; and a heightening of the senses. If the stressor continues, then the GAS moves into the resistance stage, during which the body calls upon the needed organ or system to deal with the stressor. However, while there may be a great deal of resistance to one stressor during this second stage, there may be little, if any, resistance to other, unrelated stressors. This helps to explain why a person going through an emotional strain may be particularly vulnerable to other illness or disease. Finally, if the stressor persists over a long period of time, the reserves of the adaptive mechanisms during the second stage may become drained, and exhaustion sets in. When this happens, there may be a return to the alarm stage, and the cycle starts again with another organ or system, or the "automatic shutoff valve" of death occurs. This GAS process, of course, can be very hard on the person and takes its toll on the human body.

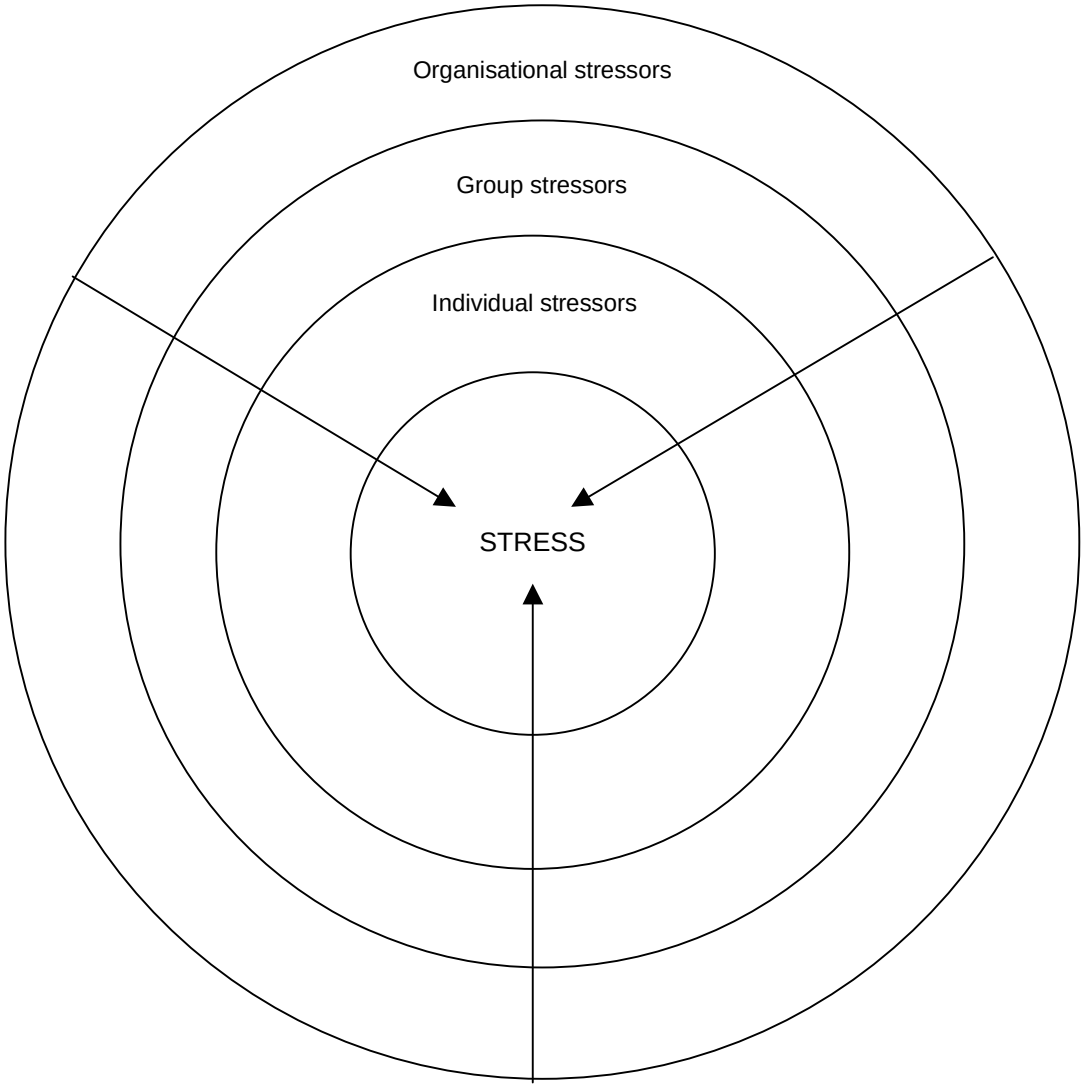
Besides the physiologically oriented approach to stress represented by the classic GAS model, which remains a vital dimension of modern stress research and stress management, attention is also being given to the psychological (for example, mood changes, negative emotions, and feelings of helplessness) and the behavioural (for example directly confronting the stressors or attempting to obtain information about the stressors) dimensions of stress. All three dimensions (physiological, psychological, and behavioural) are important to the understanding of job stress and coping strategies in organized activities / modern organisations.

3. The Causes of Stress

The antecedents of stress, or the so-called "stressors," affecting people are summarized in Figure 1.3.I. As shown, these causes come from both outside and inside the person. Stressors are, hence, those events in the environment or in the body that make emotional or task demands on the individual.

Figure 1.3.I

Categories of Stressors Affecting Stress



4. The Effects of Stress

As was pointed out in the introductory comments, stress is not automatically bad for a person and organizations. In fact, it is generally recognised that at least low levels of stress can even enhance performance. For example, one recent study found that mild stress, such as getting a new supervisor or being involuntarily transferred, may result in an increased search for information in the job. This may lead employees to new and better

ways of doing their jobs. Also, mild stress may get employees' "juice" flowing and lead to increased activity, change, and overall better performance. People in certain jobs, who work under time pressures, would seem to benefit from a mild level of stress. People in other jobs, may not benefit from constant mild stress. Based on research findings, one may say, hence, that:

- The performance of many tasks is in fact strongly affected by stress.
- Performance usually drops off sharply when stress rises to high levels.

It is the dysfunctional effects of high levels of stress that should be and are a major concern for contemporary society in general and for effective human resources management in particular. The individual can exhibit the problems due to high level of stress physically, psychologically, or behaviourally.

Aside from looking into the dysfunctional effects of stress, it is also important to take note of other key reasons why people have difficulty coping with stress. For instance, community psychologists say that other things equal, an individual, whose financial and other material resources are strained by the demands of a stressful life event, is likely to have a worse outcome than a person with adequate material resources. The psychosocial stress perspective, according to community psychologists, holds that the outcome of a stressful like event also depends on situational mediators. That is, when an individual's resources are insufficient for coping with a problem, the outcome may be poorer than if adequate resources are available. (Levine, 1987). Since many women are economically dependent on men and hence have poorer material resources, women are more vulnerable to the ill-effects of stress.

Hence, the concept of psycho-social stress requires attention to life circumstances and to the individual resources – psychological, material and social – available to meet the demands posed by life circumstances. In theory, psychological mediators, such as values formation or building up of coping skills play an important role in determining the outcome of a stress reaction. Strengthening a person's psychological mediators may help her/him to develop a high level of ability to face and solve complex social and economic problems. (Levine, 1987)

Generally, transient stress reactions, and situation and psychological mediators interact in some complex fashion to produce one of following three (3) classes of outcomes: (Levine, 1987) The person may:

a) grow and change positively as a result of mastering the experience.

b) Essentially return to some state which is normal for that person.

c) Develop psychopathology.

Since our aim is to eliminate at least the development of psychopathology, then this training has to provide the trainees with adequate knowledge on how to develop psychological and situational mediators, as defined above.

5. Individual Coping Strategies

Some specific techniques that individuals can use to eliminate or more effectively manage inevitable, prolonged stress include the following:

a) Exercise. Today, it is not whether you win or lose, but whether you get some good exercise that counts. People of all ages are walking, jogging, swimming, riding bicycles,

or playing tennis, in order to get some exercise to combat stress. Although this seems to make a great deal of sense and many physicians swear by it, there still is no conclusive evidence that exercise will directly reduce the chances of heart disease or stroke. But there seems little doubt that it can help people better cope with stress, even if only as a result of the side effects, such as relaxation, enhanced self-esteem, and simply getting one's mind off work for a while.

b) Relaxation. Whether a person simply takes it easy once in a while or uses specific relaxation techniques such as meditation, the intent is to eliminate the immediately stressful situation or manage a prolonged stressful situation more effectively. Taking it easy may mean listening to light music, watching the birds sing, or watching something "light" on television. Meditation involves muscle and mental relaxation; the person slowly repeats a peaceful phrase or word or concentrates on a mental picture in a quiet location. There is some research evidence that such meditation can have a desirable physical and mental impact on people. Whether it can have a practical impact on job stress is yet to be determined.

c) Behavioural self-control. By deliberately managing the antecedents and consequences of their own behaviour, people can achieve self-control.

d) Networking. One clear finding that has come out of social psychology research over the years is that people need and will benefit from social support. Applied as a strategy to reduce job stress, this would entail forming close associations with trusted, empathetic co-workers and colleagues who are good listeners and confidence builders.

e) Time management. It is always important to find the time to cope with stress. Very often people complain that they are pressed for time and they are under heavy stress. If such complaint is occasional, then it is understandable. However, if it is the usual complaint of a person she should review her activities and analyze herself in terms of her priorities. The next session on time management, which introduces some tips for effective time management, will be useful to cope with stress.

f) Acquisition or development of needed material resources. Since people with adequate economic and material resources are able to respond to life problems more effectively and appropriately, then this kind of situational mediator must also be considered. Women, for instance, must take steps to break away from their economic dependence on men.

6. Organizational Coping Strategies

To minimize and manage stresses in the organization, the leadership and/or management may consider assessing and transforming the following components of the organization which may have caused the stress and fit them with the circumstances of their members and workers:

- Organizational structure
- Job design
- Selection and placement
- Working conditions
- Training and development

1.8 Individual-Organizational Interface

The organization may also consider enhancing the following to minimize and manage work-related stresses:

- Job Demands and Person Style/Capacity Fit
- Decision making practices
- Relationships

References:

1. Ivancevich, J. et al. (1990) Worksite Stress Management Interventions. In American Psychologists, February 1990.
2. Levine, M. & Perkins, D.V. (1987). Principles of community psychology: Perspectives and applications. New York: Oxford University Press.
3. Luthans, F. (1989). Organizational Behaviour, Fifth Edition. New York: Mc Graw Hill .

Leadership Training Manual for Women Leaders of Cooperatives

MODULE

6

Cooperative Enterprise Management

MODULE 6
Cooperative Enterprise Management

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MODULE 6
Cooperative Enterprise Management

Overview

I. OBJECTIVES

Even if the day-to-day management of the operations of a cooperative is in the hands of the general manager and of the staff, the Board of Directors, being the policy making body, still has to know the basics of cooperative enterprise management. This basic knowledge of management will enable them to effectively analyze the affairs of the cooperative and, thereby, make appropriate decisions.

This session is a three-day general orientation on key technical aspects of cooperative management. It aims to:

1. Provide the trainees with basic knowledge and skills in cooperative enterprise management. Specifically, the knowledge and skills discussed in this module are the following:
   - Planning, budgeting and designing of evaluation tools;
   - Financial Management Performance Standards; and
   - Enterprise Building and Management.
2. Build up the capacity of the participants to participate in decision making processes involving the business enterprise of their cooperatives.
3. Equip the participants with fundamental concepts and skills on how to become entrepreneurs, and thereby make them capable of engaging in more opportunities to increase their income.

   Because this module provides only a general orientation on the above topics, the women-trainees are, hence, encouraged to undertake more intensive courses on these skills after going through this module.

II. OVERVIEW OF MODULE UNITS

Units	Objectives of Hours	Contents	Number
Unit 1: Planning, Budgeting and Designing of Evaluation Tools	This session aims to help the trainees: 1. Raise their knowledge of the importance of planning to the operations of a cooperative and to the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives;	First Part: • Definition of Planning • Importance of Planning • Types of Planning • Elements of a Good Plan • Planning Steps • Gender Planning Framework	3 1/2 hours

Units	Objectives of Hours	Contents	Number
	2. Enhance their knowledge and skills in planning, budgeting, and designing of evaluation tools. 3. Integrate gender perspective to planning, budgeting and evaluation. • Evaluation tools	Second Part: • Definition of budget and budgeting • Types of budget • Budgeting Methods • Zero-based budgeting Third Part:	
Unit 2: Financial Management and Performance Standards	1. Raise the awareness and understanding of the participants on the different financial terms, including financial statements. 2. Equip the participants with tools and techniques in analyzing how their cooperatives or businesses are performing financially by analyzing the financial statements of their cooperatives. 3. Equip the participants with tools or techniques in managing the financial operations of cooperatives	• Definition of financial terms • Description of general accounts classification or of the financial terms used. • Samples or illustration of how these account classifications appear on the financial statements of a cooperative. • Tips and techniques in understanding the different financial reports and ratios	4 hours
Unit 3: Cooperative Enterprise Building and Management	1. To help the women-leaders gain a basic knowledge of the basic processes of business or enterprise building and management. 2. To facilitate a process whereby the women-leaders can confront their fears and feeling of self-inadequacy vis-à-vis business or enterprise building and management.	• Women's fears and concerns about enterprise building and management • Stages of enterprise building • Key entrepreneurial competencies	7 1/2 hours

UNIT 1
Planning, Budgeting and Designing Evaluation Tools

MAIN MESSAGE

Planning as a key management function is an essential skill which every leader and manager has to develop. This is because the resulting written plan serves as the guiding framework of all the activities of the organization. Included in the planning process are: 1) budgeting which specifies how much resources (financial, human and material) are needed to undertake the plan; 2) the designing of evaluation tools which will help the leaders or directors know if the activities and goals that are stated in the plans have been effectively done and achieved.

This session focuses on planning, including budgeting and the designing of evaluation tools, as the first function of management. To provide the women-trainees with adequate knowledge and skills in this function, this session discusses the following:

First Part: Planning

- Definition of Planning,
- Importance of Planning,
- Types of Planning
- Elements of a Good Plan
- Planning Steps
- Gender Planning Framework

Second Part: Budgeting

- Definition of budget and budgeting
- Types of Budget
- Budgeting Methods
- Zero-based Budgeting

Third Part

- Evaluation Tools

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to help the trainees:

1. Raise their knowledge on the importance of participatory planning to the operations of a cooperative and to the advocacy for gender equity and equality in cooperatives.
2. Enhance their skills in planning, budgeting and designing of evaluation tools; and
3. Integrate gender perspective to planning and evaluation.

Time Requirement: Three-and-a-half hours

1. Lecture: 45 minutes
2. Individual Exercise on Planning: 60 minutes
3. Small group sharing: 60 minutes
4. Plenary Reporting: 60 minutes
5. Processing: 30 minutes

Materials Required:

1. Handouts on planning, budgeting and evaluation tools
2. Example of a family monthly budget
3. Planning and evaluation matrix
4. Manila paper, markers and masking tape

Steps:

Explain to the participants the objectives and the three parts of the session which are:

- Planning
- Budgeting
- Evaluation Tools

First Part: Planning

1. Give a lecture on planning. In this lecture, you may highlight the following points:
   - Definition of Planning
   - Importance of Planning
   - Types of Planning
   - Elements of a Good Plan
   - Planning Steps
   - Gender Planning Framework
2. After the lecture, ask the participants to individually apply the concepts and techniques of planning by making a strategic and an annual plan on any of the following:
   - Increasing women's representation in the BOD of a cooperative
   - Establishing a child care service program of a cooperative
   - Putting up of a store or any business;
   - Development of a education and training program of the cooperative.
   - Organizing of a cooperative in own community;
   - Others, based on the interest of the participants.

   Remind the participants to use the "Planning Steps" as well as the "Elements of a Good Plan" in their development of a strategic and annual plan. Encourage them to use the planning matrix provided in this session.

Give them 30 to 60 minutes for this exercise.

3. When all the participants have done their strategic and annual plans, divide them into small groups. Each participant will share her strategic and annual plans to her group members. The other group members led by a trainer will comment on the plans by pinpointing areas of strength and areas that can still be improved. A trainer must, hence, be assigned to each small group.

   When all have shared, tell the participants to consolidate their common areas of strength and areas that can still be improved, and to write them in a manila paper for presentation to the plenary.

   Give each small group 60 minutes to finish their task.

4. Call on each group to present to the plenary their small group discussion outputs. Then summarize the common areas of strengths and areas to be improved, of all the small groups.

Second Part: Budgeting

1. Begin by asking the participants to help you create a budget plan for your family's one month needs. Tell them that your family's monthly income is $ 1,000.00. If the term, budget plan, is not yet familiar to them, then you can ask, "How am I going to allocate this $1000 to the different needs of my family for one month?" Ask for volunteers to share and write their budget proposals on the board. From these proposals, start your lecture on budgeting.
2. Based on the shared proposals, ask the participants about their own understanding of the words, budget and budgeting. Synthesize their answers, then affirm or enhance their answers by explaining the terms, budget and budgeting.
3. Then ask them about their notions on the purposes of budgeting. What is a budget for? Why do we have to budget? Refer back to the proposals, ask them about the importance of a budget plan to a family. Again synthesize their answers, then affirm or enhance these answers by explaining the importance of budgeting.
4. Analyze their proposed budgets by asking the question: What factors did you consider in the formulation of your budget plan?

   Expected answers are: 1) The needs of the family 2) their available resources — i.e. Are they renting their house?; 3) the costs of the identified needs, and 4) priorities.
5. To enhance the discussion of the key factors to consider in budgeting, show them an example of a family monthly budget plan . Then discuss the elements of a budget.
6. Elevate the discussion to the level of the cooperative by explaining the following:
   - The importance of budgeting to the cooperative, as a method of financial control;
   - Forms of budgeting;
   - Three ways of budgeting;
   - Disadvantages of traditional budgeting.
   - Zero-based budgeting.
7. After the lecture, ask the small groups of the planning session to meet again and choose one of the plans shared, and complete the planning matrix by putting the necessary budget for the implementation of the plan.

8. In the plenary, after every presentation of each small group's budget plan, facilitate a discussion on the following factors:
    - Factors considered in the formulation of the budget plan as reflected in the amount allocated for each item/activity.
    - Planned expenses should be balanced with income or resources.
    - Importance of allotting some funds for capital build up and savings.

Third Part: Evaluation Tools

Use this last part of the session as your closing statements on the topics, planning and budgeting. You may say that the success of plans and budgets can be fully measured through the use of evaluation tools. Then you may present the different evaluation tools in the attached reference material.

Caution/Hints:

Some participants may still be in the process of digesting the concepts of planning, and may be finding the development of strategic and annual plans difficult. To check on this, the trainers must move around during the individual planning exercise, and assist those who need help.

Variation:

Instead of an individual planning exercise, small group application of the concepts can be done. In this approach, the participants will be divided into small groups. Each group will be instructed to develop a strategic and an annual plan on any topic of their own choice based on their common concern or interest.

Quick Check

Process the whole session by asking them the following questions:

- What new things did you learn from this session? What did you find easy to do? Difficult to do?
- What are the parts which you have been doing in your own cooperatives?
- What parts of the planning process do you not not intend to apply in your cooperatives? Why?

Reference:

Gatewood, Robert D., Taylor, Robert R., Ferrel, O.C. (1995). Management: Comprehension, Analysis and Application. USA: Robert D. Irwin, Inc.

Trainers' Reference Material

Planning, Budgeting and Designing of Evaluation Tools

I. PLANNING

A. Introduction

Planning is the process of determining goals, and setting of activities to accomplish such goals in a given time. The resulting written plan serves as the guiding framework and blueprint of all of the activities of an individual(s) or group(s). The plan specifies the direction and goals, the specific activities and the sequencing of these activities to achieve the stated goals, and the other key details, such as the people responsible for each activity, the timeframe of all of the activities, and the resources needed to implement the plan.

Because of the criticality of the process, those who participate in organizational planning are the ones with recognized decision-making authority and power. In many organizations, these people are those who have an in-depth grasp of the vision and principles of the organization; those who fully understand the mission and distinctive competence of their own organization; those with the capacity to critically analyze the conditions of their environment; and those who are capable of determining the proper goals and path (and alternative paths) of their organization at a given condition. In this sense, the planner, in order to accurately and adequately reflect the vision, mission and demands of the objective reality in the plan, and effectively take part in the deliberation on the appropriate goals and paths to undertake, must have the sincere concern for their organization and the necessary leadership skills, including planning.

To cooperatives, this means that the planner should have a substantial grasp of the Cooperative Identity Statement, which essentially is a declaration of the universal values and principles of cooperatives, should have a deep understanding of the needs and culture of the people who compose the organization, and of the environment within which the cooperative operates, and should have adequate planning skills. From this perspective, the participation of women, as a key shareholder and stakeholder, is an imperative for no other can have as deep understanding of their needs and perspectives, and no other can have as strong interest to ensure that these needs are properly addressed and their perspective respectfully acknowledged than they alone.

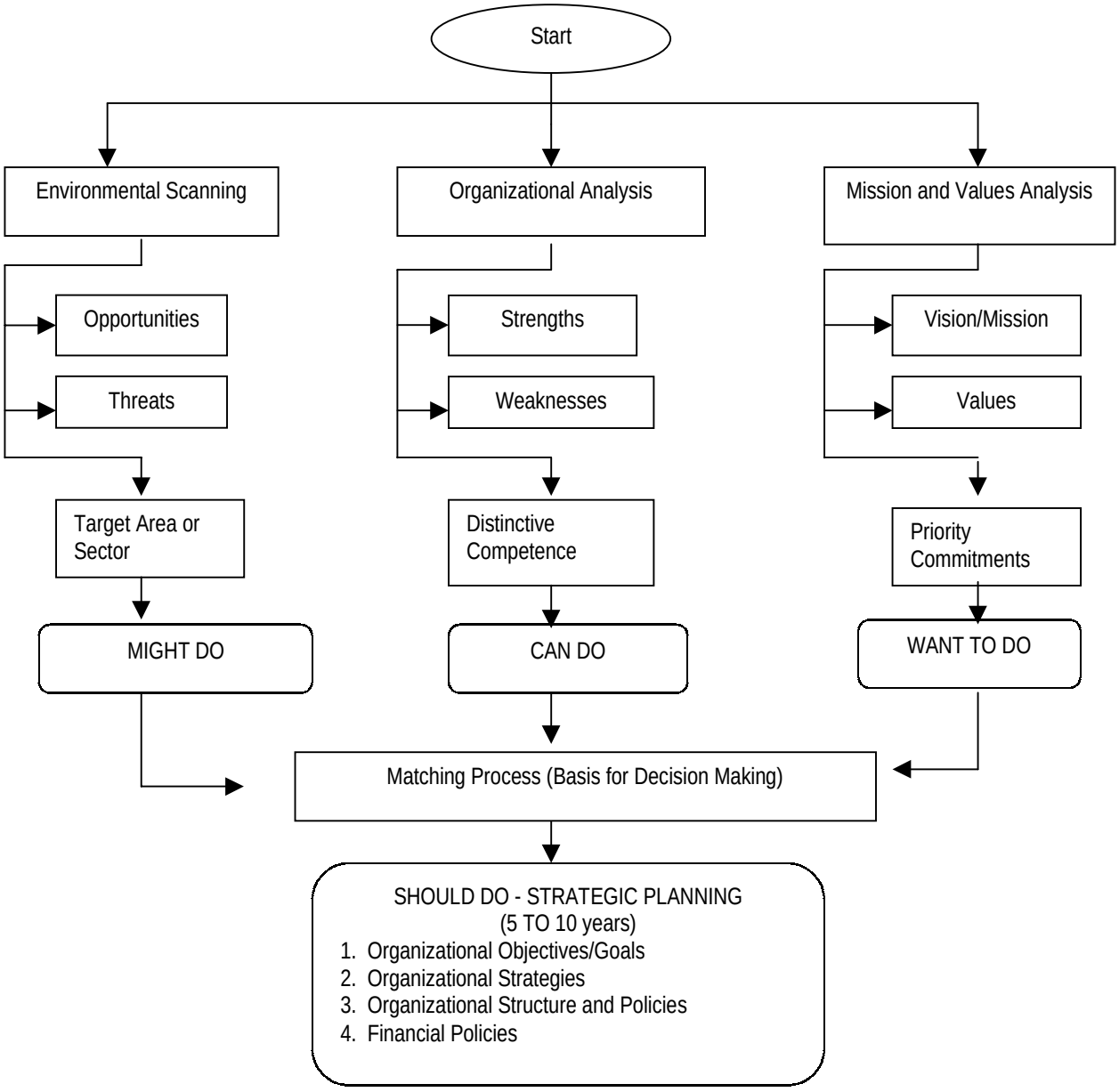
B. Types of Plans

Two types of planning are usually performed in cooperatives, namely strategic planning and operational planning. The operational planning can be done annually. If so, then Its result is hence called annual plan.

- Strategic planning aims at achieving the organizational strategic goals. Strategic goals are long-term goals that are usually attainable in five or more years. They, therefore, establish what the organization wants to achieve in the long-term future. They are the general goals of the organization. Logically, all the other plans and activities of the organization should contribute to the achievement of the strategic goals.
- Annual planning aims at achieving intermediate goals in one year. These intermediate goals are designed to stimulate actions necessary for achieving the strategic goals. Usually, annual plans specify the general goals and activities of the organization for one

year as well as the goals and operations of the sub-units (training, marketing, etc.) of the organization for the same year.

C. Organizational Strategic Planning Framework



* Strategic Planning is long-range planning where environmental opportunities and threats (economic, political, and socio-cultural conditions) are matched with the strengths and weaknesses, and priority commitments of the organization. The result of this type of planning is the statement of goals and objectives over the next five to ten years, plus a definition of strategies and policies on how to attain these goals. This is not a very detailed type of planning. Rather, it is a general plan which serves as basis of a more detailed plan called operational or annual plan.

– Patterned from the book, *Management in the Philippine Setting* by Ernesto A. Franco(1988)

Strategic planning can start at any of the three areas for analysis: environmental scanning, or organizational analysis, or vision/mission analysis, wherever the organization is most comfortable at. These three analyses shall be matched and shall be used as the basis of the strategic plan. the following are some guidelines on how to do each analysis.

1. Environmental Scanning

This is a process of identifying and defining the condition of the society or locality (e.g. one province) on which the organization intends to focus or is focussing its operation. A very important component of the process is the identification of opportunities and threats that the condition of the external environment is providing. For a thorough and effective scanning of the external environment, the following process is suggested:

a) Major issues and problems

This includes the listing of major problems and issues affecting the locality or society. Of the problems in the list, those which seriously affect the majority of people and the organization are classified as major problems. In order to have a more thorough understanding of these problems and of how they affect the people and the organization, the organization should have substantial information of their state and trend.

b) Stakeholders' Analysis

A stakeholder is a person, group, institution, community or sector which can affect or is affected by the organization's goals and technology. There are two types of stakeholders: primary stakeholders and secondary stakeholders. The primary stakeholders are those who have formal connection with the organization (e.g. members, partners, clients, funders, etc.) The secondary stakeholders, on the other hand, are those who do not have a formal connection with the organization but are somehow affected and have effect or influence on the organization (e.g. media, church, families, environmentalists, etc.) To do a stakeholders' analysis is to make a stakeholders' map. This includes the following:

- Identification of primary and secondary stakeholders;
- Definition of their stake in the organization and the major issues addressed by the organization: nature of their claims, and their interests
- Manner by which stakeholders express their claims and interests on the organization or on the major issues addressed by the organization
- Sources of power of each stakeholder, and their level of access to and control over the resources and benefits provided for by the organization or by the society/ locality in general.

c) Identification of Opportunities and Threats

Based on the information highlighted by the preceding processes, identify the opportunities and threats which the external environment is exerting on the organization. This step has to be carefully undertaken because the results shall serve as basis for the assessment of the organization of its target area or scope of operation.

2. Organizational Analysis

Any organization has four key components: 1) its goals or objectives (its reason for being); 2) the technology or methods they employ to achieve their goals; 3) organizational structure

and policies, which define the processes of communication, decision-making, division of tasks and patterns of relationship within the organization; and 4) Resources, human and material, which the organization utilizes to achieve its goals and objectives.

In the organizational analysis, the state of the said four components shall be reviewed and assessed. To do this, the strengths and weaknesses of each of the four components shall be identified and defined. In essence, the analysis will ultimately answer the question: Has the organization effectively and efficiently achieved its goals and objectives? What are the driving and restraining factors? From this analysis, the organization will be able to define its present strengths and weaknesses, and hence, its distinctive competence. A distinctive competence is what the organization does well relative to other organizations. This usually serves as basis for the strategies and for the special contribution of the organization on the resolution of major problems of society/locality.

3. Vision and Mission Analysis

A vision is a mental picture of the future or of a society/locality that an organization seeks to create. It also refers to what the organization should look like as it seeks to accomplish it mission. Mission, on the other hand, is the purpose of the organization. It answers the question, "why do we exist?" An organization attempts to achieve its mission by accomplishing various goals, which in turn are achieved by performing various tasks.

a) Vision Formulation

To formulate a vision, the following exercise can be undertaken:

- Ask the leaders/ members of the organization to create a mural or a collective illustration of their vision of a society. This shall be done by asking each leader/ member to think of any symbol that represents their vision. Then each will be asked to draw on a manila paper, which is posted on the board, their symbols. The drawing is a mural because the participants can simply add on or enhance the drawing of others. If that will be difficult, it is also alright for some to have their own separate symbols but on the same manila paper. The drawing can be very simple, whatever the participants are capable of doing.
- After each one has drawn their symbols, then ask them one-by-one to explain their symbols. The facilitator should take note of the vision represented by the symbols, then summarize the shared vision of every one at the end of the exercise.
- The same process shall be undertaken on the vision of the organization of itself. This shall be done, however, on a separate manila paper.

b) Mission Formulation

To identify its mission, the leaders/members of the organization shall identify the special contributions that the organization wants to provide to the society/locality. The participants can start with brainstorming of ideas, then choose from among the ideas their final mission. The mission should reflect the niche or distinctive role of the organization in the locality or society.

c) Values Identification

After deciding on the mission of the organization, the leaders/members shall then identify the values and principles which shall guide the organization in the performance of their mission. This can be done by asking each participant to draw the symbols of

their values and principles on a short-bond size paper. When everyone has finished their individual drawing, then in a circular seating arrangement, the participants shall pass in a clockwise direction their illustrations. As each participant gets hold of the drawing of the other participant, s/he will be asked to interpret the meaning of the drawing. S/he will be asked to share his/her interpretation when the papers have reached their respective owners.

With the guidance of a facilitator, the participants will be asked to share the meaning of their illustrations and their interpretation of the illustrations of the others. The output of the exercise is a list of values and principles that shall guide the organization in the accomplishment of its goals.

To finalize the vision, mission and values of the organization, three leaders shall be chosen to draft the vision and mission statements of the organization, as well as its guiding principles and values. This draft shall be presented to the whole body for substance validation. The writing style or editing shall not be finalized during the plenary discussion.

4. Defining Strategic Goals

Based on the outputs of the preceding three analyses — environmental scanning, organizational analysis and vision/mission analysis, the organization shall identify its strategic goals for the next five years. These strategic goals are long-term goals which: 1) if achieved will result into critical changes or resolution of major problems identified in the environmental scan; 2) are reflective of the distinctive competence or niche of the organization as defined in the organizational analysis; 3) represent what the organization wants to accomplish as stated in their vision and mission statements.

The formulation of strategic goals can start with brainstorming on what the organization wants to accomplish in five years After the brainstorming process, the facilitator shall summarize the ideas and present this summary to the whole group for validation, deliberation and final decision. . As a general rule, goals must be attainable and its accomplishment must be measurable or observable — there should, hence, be a list of clear indicators of success for each strategic goal.

5. Strategies Formulation

Again based on the results of the environmental scan, organizational analysis and vision/mission analysis, the organization shall identify its strategies in achieving its strategic goals. Strategies are general statements of courses of action which the organization shall undertake to achieve its goals (e.g. community organizing, networking/linkaging, capability-building, etc.) Though general, the strategies should, however, reflect their specific focus. For instance, where shall community organizing be done? (e.g. organizing of 100 cooperatives in five municipalities of the province of Pampanga.) The detailed activities of each strategy shall be identified in the operational or annual plans.

6. Organizational Structure and Policies

When the strategies for each strategic goals have been clearly identified, then the organization shall discuss the key systems which shall help them effectively and efficiently achieve their goals in accordance with their organizational values and principles. These systems will include the communication and decision-making processes, as well as the

manner (positions and committees) by which tasks shall be divided among its membership. An organizational structure and organizational policies shall be developed to formalize these systems.

7. Determination of Needed Resources

Finally, the organization shall discuss on the financial, human and materials resources needed to undertake its strategies and accomplish its strategic goals. After charting the amount of resources needed, then the organization shall define the policies for their effective, efficient and humane utilization.

D. Operational or Annual Planning

With the strategic plan, the organization can now determine their operational plan. As earlier mentioned, operational planning can be done annually as is the case in cooperatives. The annual planning are, on the other hand, the following:

- Assessment of current situation — problems, issues and needs of internal and external environment.
- Statement of one-year intermediate goals. These intermediate goals must serve to facilitate the achievement of the strategic goals in an incremental manner.
- Listing of actions necessary to achieve intermediate goals in one year;
- Designing of implementation system (delegation of tasks, timeframe (months, weeks, days), provision of resources)
- Setting of monitoring and evaluation tools to check the progress of the plan implementation.

E. The Elements and Features of a Good Plan:

- Founded on the organization's written vision and mission statement.
- Based on a sound analysis of the situation. From the analysis of the situation, the organization identifies the specific problems, issues and needs which they have to address based on their vision and mission, and in accordance with their guiding values & principles. The analysis contains gender-disaggregated data, where practical and strategic gender needs of women are clearly specified.
- With SMART Goals — goals are **S**pecific, **M**easurable, **A**ttainable, **R**elevant, and **T**ime bound.
- With list of actions to achieve the goals. (including alternative courses of action as part of the contingency plan in case the first set of targeted activities cannot be undertaken or fails to lead to the attainment of targeted goals).
- With implementing system, which will include the delegation of tasks based on qualifications and not on gender stereotypes, clear and efficient coordination among players, the timeframe and the provision of adequate resources for the effective execution of all of the activities.
- With monitoring and evaluation tools which shall be used to assess the progress of the plan implementation.
- Participatory — a) members will less likely resist a system that they themselves helped create; b) members and staff who know their jobs better have more responsibility and

exhibit higher levels of commitment. The usual planning processes undertaken in cooperatives are: strategic plans are formulated and ratified by the General Assembly, whereas annual plans are drafted by the staff based on the strategic plans, and are submitted to the Board of Directors for review and approval.

F. Basic Features of a Gender Planning Framework

- Gender equity and equality is integrated in its vision and mission.
- Gathers gender-disaggregated data/information on the situation being addressed.
- Seeks to respond to the practical and strategic gender needs of women
- List of actions are gender responsive and sensitive
- Acknowledges and recognizes the distinctive actual and potential contributions of women and men to the formulation and implementation of a good plan.
- Upholds the participation of women in all steps of the planning process.

II. BUDGETING

A. Definition

Budgeting is generally defined as the process of allocating resources to the different components of a plan. Though budgeting also includes the allocation of time and human resources, it is, nonetheless, more identified with the spending of money. This is because of the more popular definition of the word, budget, as an estimate of money to be spent for various purposes or items based on the total available amount of funds.

As an integral part of planning, a good budget possesses the key elements of a good plan. A good budget plan should, therefore: 1) Be based on a sound analysis of the situation — needs, costs, available resources, and other pertinent information such as inflation rate, etc. 2) Have a clear statement of goals or intended gains from spending the money ; 3) Contain a list of items or purposes on how to use the money to achieve the desired gains; and 4) Include monitoring and evaluation tools to assess the progress of the implementation of the budget plan.

Budgeting is an indispensable activity in any organization because it ensures the economical and optimal use of its financial resources, as well as its facilities and people. Once approved, a budget becomes a guide for the operations of the organization at a specified budget period, and a control device, establishing standards of performance against which actual performance shall be measured.

There are two main forms of budgeting:

- Operating budget deals with relatively short-term financial control concerns, including having sufficient cash on hand to cover daily financial obligations such as routine purchases and payroll.
- Capital budgeting is concerned with intermediate and long-term control of capital acquisitions, such as plant and equipment.

B. Budgeting Methods

There are three ways of budgeting:

- Top-down budgeting where top managers establish budgets and hand them down to middle- and lower-level managers for review and implementation. Although top-down budgeting has the advantage of being able to take a broad, corporate perspective and is relatively quick and inexpensive because it involves relatively few people, it fails to consider the input of those people closest to and most knowledgeable of actual and work responsibilities.
- Bottom-up budgeting flows from lower levels of an organization for review by top management. Bottom-up budgeting involves those more directly engaged in the actual tasks covered by the budget; however, its disadvantage is the possibility that those same people may have a somewhat narrow view of their specific goals, leading them to ignore the effects of their proposed actions on the overall organization.
- Negotiated budgeting involves a degree of give and take between upper and lower levels of management to develop the most appropriate form of budgetary control for a given situation.

C. Importance of Budgeting

As a form of financial control, the advantages of budgeting are the following:

- It can lead to better coordination of organizational activities because the budgeting process often involves employees from various organizational areas, allowing conflicts to be discovered and discussed before they become actual problems.
- When done properly, budgetary control also serves as a means of bringing together diverse organizational members to determine the overall objectives as well as a means of communicating these plans to the organization as a whole.
- In theory, budgeting, especially operating budget, implies a need for the organization to adapt continually in the face of constant environmental change.

D. Disadvantages of Traditional Budgeting

The disadvantages of traditional budgeting are the following:

- It is difficult to do. Managers must successfully allocate scarce organizational financial resources among many departments and subunits, all with projects that they feel are worthy of full organizational backing.
- This often involves the extensive use of incremental budgeting, which is the process of merely adjusting the previous period's budget to arrive at the new plan of control. Over reliance on incremental budgeting greatly increases the probability that managers will fail to consider current —and likely changed—environmental conditions.
- Budgeting suffers when it is used as a method of legitimizing current power structures, when upper-level managers slash or redistribute financial resources in order to reinforce their power — possibly "paying back" or "rewarding" a subordinate manager—rather than basing their decisions on matters more directly related to overall operational performance.

To overcome the disadvantages of traditional budgeting, many organizations have turned to zero-based budgeting (ZBB), a method of budgeting in which managers thoroughly reevaluate organizational activities to determine their true level of importance. As a form of financial control, ZBB forces managers to view budgeting as a true management process rather than a simple

matter of recycling and adjusting the budget for the previous planning period. As a means of budgetary control, ZBB requires managers to reevaluate all activities to determine their true level of importance and resulting funding level as compared to alternative uses of limited financial resources. This thorough reevaluation of activities and alternative uses of limited financial resources gives ZBB its name: everything is considered as if it is a completely new —zero-based—matter.

E. Elements of Zero-Based Budgeting

The key elements of ZBB , include:

- identifying objectives and activities (as shown in the tactical/operational plan);
- evaluating alternative means of accomplishing each activity;
- evaluating alternative funding levels (maintain current level or raise or lower levels);
- evaluating work load and performance levels, and allocating funds for the necessary human and physical resources; and
- establishing priorities.

Regardless of how effective budgetary control may actually be, budgeting should never , however, be the sole means of an organizational financial control. Over-reliance on this one — or any other one — method of control may lead leaders to ignore other pertinent information that can be uncovered only through the use of other financial control methods, such as the analysis of a financial statement and financial audit.

Women, typically tasked to hold the purse of the home, have a wealth of experience in budgeting. And their experiences in this area can serve as the best resource of learning on the formulation of budget plans even of organizations, such as the cooperatives.

III. DESIGNING EVALUATION TOOLS

As earlier mentioned, one indicator of a good plan is the presence of evaluation tools by which the implementation of the plan shall be monitored and assessed. There are generally three ways to evaluate the implementation of a plan.

1. Periodic Evaluation Meetings/Conferences

The leaders or committees or chapters meet periodically, say monthly and/or annually, and at the end of the plan period to assess the conduct of the targeted activities and level of achievement of the targeted goals. The outputs of these periodic evaluation are presented to the General Assembly annually.

In these evaluation meetings or conferences, an evaluation matrix is usually used to guide the process. An example of this evaluation matrix is in the next page.

2. Survey

The survey can be on the level of satisfaction of the membership on the operations of the organization or cooperative, or on their perception of its gains and problems. It can also be a study of how non-members in a particular area perceive the organization.

Based on the results of this survey, the organization assesses the extent by which the goals of the organization are being achieved.

3. Benchmarking

Benchmarking is the process by which an organization is able to objectively compare its own performance with the best practice existing elsewhere. When the gap between such best practice and the organization's own standards is alarmingly high, then the organization may need to change or further improve its performance or its strategies in achieving their goals.

For benchmarking to be done, the organization therefore has to research on the practices of other organizations and to identify the best practice. The identification of best practices on a certain field of work or involvement can be done through networking and through attending related conferences and seminars. Though a practice can be identified by a network of organizations to be the best, it is still, however, up to the organization against which organization(s) they will be benchmarking.

Planning Matrix

Area of Concern/ Problems being addressed	Objectives	Target Outputs/ Success indicators	Target Activities	Schedule of Activities	Persons/ committees incharge	Needed Resources

Evaluation Matrix

Problems Being Addressed	Goals/ Target Outputs	Target Activities	Actual Activities	Actual Outputs	Factors that helped achieve target outputs	Factors that hindered the achievement of target outputs	Actions that must be undertaken

* Contents of columns 1 to 3 shall be taken from the annual plan

IV. ROLE AND FUNCTIONS

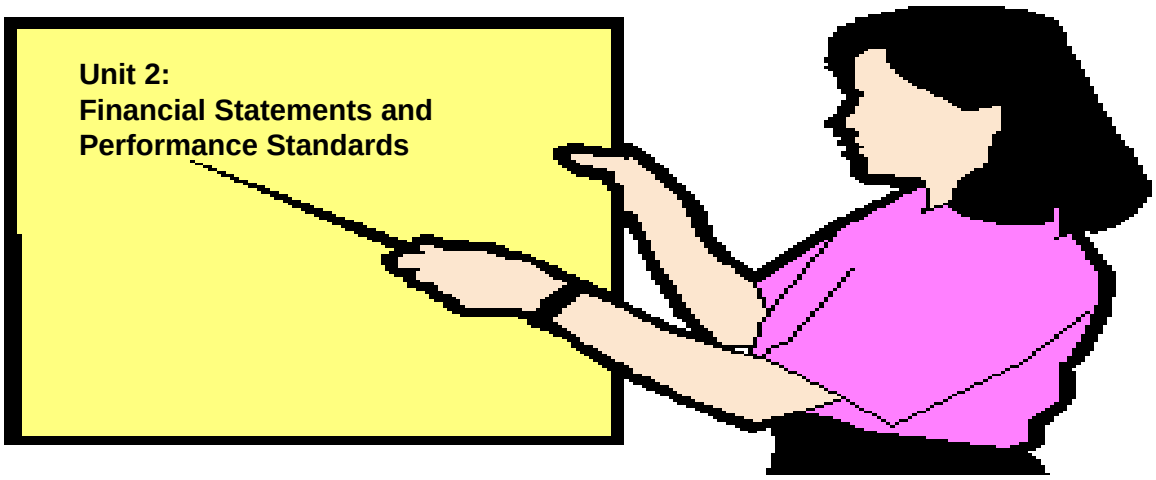
Strategic and annual plans, including the budget and evaluation tools, are usually drafted by the management staff. The finalization of strategic plans, however, rests with the General Assembly, and the annual plans with the Board of Directors. Though the management staff does not have the final say on the strategic and annual plans, they are, however, the ones responsible for their implementation. To do this, the BOD delegates a corresponding authority to the General Manager. This makes, hence, the General Manager accountable for the operations of the cooperative.

The BOD performs its controlling function during interim or implementation period by comparing actual performance against plans and budget. The GM is requested to regularly report to the BOD and to come up at least with a quarterly variance analysis on targets and budget.

Reference:

1. Gatewood, R., Taylor, R., & Ferrel, O.C. (1995). Management: Comprehension, analysis and application. USA: Robert D. Irwin.
2. Sadler, P. (1995). Managing change. London: Kogan Page Limited.

UNIT 2
Financial Statements and Performance Standards



MAIN MESSAGE

This session is designed to provide the participants with the following:

- A brief definition of the financial terms used
- A description of each of the general accounts classification or of the financial terms used
- Samples or illustration of how these account classifications appear on the financial statements of a financial cooperative and a marketing cooperative.
- Some reminders, tips and techniques in understanding the different financial reports and ratios used

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives:

This session aims to:

Raise the awareness and understanding of the participants on the different financial terms, specifically those related to financial statements and financial performance.

Equip the participants with tools and techniques in analyzing how their cooperatives or businesses are performing financially by analyzing the financial statements and financial performance of their cooperatives.

Time Requirement: four hours

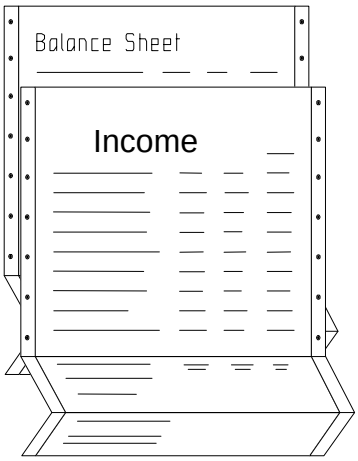
Materials Required:

1. Handouts/reading materials
2. Copies of financial statements from each of the participants
   - Note: these may be requested ahead of time and photocopied for distribution during the sessions.

3. Visual aids
   - Note: if an overhead projector and blank transparencies/acetates are available, prepare these ahead of the actual training. Otherwise, ordinary manila paper and marking pens will do.
4. Calculator for each of the participants

Steps:

The session has two parts:



Part I: The Financial Statements

This part focuses on the financial statements. This includes a general definition of these two statements – the income statement and the balance sheet – as well as the different account classifications included in each report.

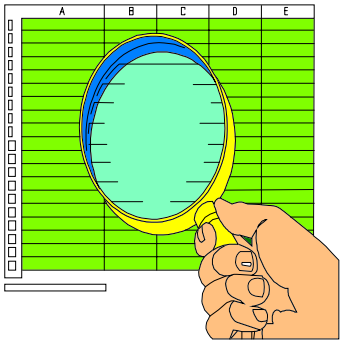
The aim is to familiarize the participants with the two main types of financial statements. The definitions and descriptions are given to achieve a general understanding of each financial term. Exhibits (which are the summary versions of the sample financial statements in Annexes 1 and 2) are then given to illustrate how these account classifications would appear in the different financial statements.

Part II: Understanding Our Financial Performance

The second part allows the participants to deepen their understanding of these financial statements by analyzing how figures in these reports affect certain key concerns of management and members of the board of directors. A series of questions which management and board members normally ask will be given and explained using the financial reports.

The following are the main or key concerns of management and board members when it comes to the cooperatives' financial performance:

1. What's our bottom line?
2. What's our spread?
3. How does current operations compare with last year's performance?
4. How much revenue do we earn from our assets?
5. How long does our money sleep?
6. Can we pay our debts and finance operations?
7. Should we use other peoples' money?



In both sessions, after presenting the different exhibits or samples to the participants, you can request them to go over their respective cooperatives' financial statements and practice analyzing these based on what they have just learned.

1. Preparing for the Training

You will have to read straight through this guide to know what is included in the entire training. Prior to the training, you may want to look at the participating cooperatives' actual financial statements or require participants to bring these during the training proper. This will come in handy during the second part of the training when participants would want to understand their own financial performance. The examples given in the readings have been kept as short and simple as possible but actual financial reports may be more detailed and longer, especially with the multi-purpose types of cooperatives. You can assist them in comparing their actual financial statements with those in the reading materials.

2. The Training Proper

2.1 Give a lecture on Financial Statements.

The focus of this lecture on the topics, income statement and balance sheet. Please refer to the trainers' reference material for guidance.

2.2 After giving a lecture on financial statements, move to the second part of the session: Financial Performance

In this part of the discussion, the participants will answer a series of questions which management and members of the Board of Directors normally ask. Answers shall be derived from the financial reports. Please refer to the reference material for guidance

In summary, these questions are:

1. What's our bottom line?
2. What's our spread?
3. How does current operations compare with last year's performance?
4. How much revenue do we earn from our assets?
5. How long does our money sleep?
6. Can we pay our debts and finance operations?
7. Should we use other peoples' money?

Caution/Hints/Tips

Financial terms used in different countries may vary. Trainers may, hence, need to modify the contents and process of this session based on the financial terminologies and tools used in the country or by the specific cooperatives of the participants.

Quick Check

At the end of the whole session, the trainer can lead the participants to an assessment of the entire session. You may review the list of expectations shared at the start of the training, and assess which were satisfied and not. The following checklist may be used:

Instruction: Please check appropriate boxes	Content		Resource Person and Trainer		Learning Kit & Other Logistics	
	Clear	Not Clear	Effective	Not Effective	Adequate	Lacking
Part 1:						
Income Statement						
Balance Sheet						
Part 2:						
Analyzing Financial Performance (Ratios)						
Other Remarks:						

Trainers' Reference Material

Financial Statements and Performance

By Enrico Garde

I. The Financial Statements

Financial statements are the means by which the activities of a cooperative, business or enterprise are reported. These statements present a summary of the financial condition of the cooperative, business or enterprise as well as the results of its operations.

For this training, focus will be given to the following financial statements: (a) the Income Statement; and (b) the Balance Sheet.

A. The Income Statement

Definition:

An **income statement** presents the results of the operations of the business or enterprise. It shows the revenues, expenses, and net income (or net loss) of a given period.

General Account Classifications:

1. **GROSS REVENUES**
   - These are derived from the conduct of the cooperative's business
   - For a Marketing Cooperative, revenues are expressed in terms of *Gross Sales* (for those in marketing or manufacturing)
   - For a Financial Cooperative, revenues may be in the form of *Gross Financial Income*.
2. **COST OF SALES OR FINANCIAL COSTS**
   - These refer to direct costs, or the costs directly associated in producing the product or service being sold by the cooperative.
   - A marketing or manufacturing business records its *cost of goods sold* (i.e., cost of raw materials, handling, direct labor cost, etc.)
   - A financial cooperative records the *financial costs* (i.e., interests on borrowed funds, interest on savings deposits, bank charges, etc.) of its lending operation.
   - These costs are also called *variable costs* since they are normally proportional to revenues, i.e., they increase when revenues increase and decline when revenues decrease.
   - These costs are subtracted from the Gross Revenues.
3. **GROSS INCOME**
   - This is the difference between the revenues and direct costs.
4. **OPERATING EXPENSES**
   - Apart from expenses to produce a product or service, the cooperative incurs other expenses to run its business.
   - Unlike Cost of Sales or Financial Costs, Operating Expenses are relatively fixed (or they are not based on sales volume).

- For instance, salaries of a secretary or bookkeeper are incurred (*salaries expense*) whether or not stores of the marketing cooperative are closed.
- As another example, the Board of Directors or management staff *meetings* on a regular basis (e.g., monthly) regardless of the level of sales or revenues.
- Other expenses not directly associated in the production of the cooperative product or business include: *utilities* (electricity and water consumed by the cooperative), *communication expenses* (for telephone, postage fees), *representation*, *repair and maintenance of equipment*, etc.
- These expenses are subtracted from the Gross Income.

5. NET INCOME (or NET LOSS) FROM OPERATIONS

- The resulting balance after subtracting all costs/expenses from the Gross Income is called **Net Income** for a positive balance and **(Net Loss)** for a negative balance.

6. NET OTHER INCOME

- This refers to income or revenue not directly related to the main business of the cooperative.
- For example, a financial cooperative receives *rental income* from office space it leased to another cooperative. It may have also received a *grant* from a donor institution. At the same time, it may also incur expenses for these.

7. NET INCOME (or NET LOSS)

- This is known as the *bottom line* since it is literally the last line of the income statement.
- It is the resulting figure after all expenses are deducted from all revenues of the cooperative.

Remember:

We need not be overwhelmed with the numbers in an income statement. They key is to look at the General Account Classifications since they summarize the information.

Exhibits 1.1 and 2.1 below are the summary versions of the income statements in ANNEXES 1.1 and 2.1.

Exhibit 1.1. FINANCIAL COOPERATIVE

Income Statement

For the Year ended

	Dec-1999	Dec-2000
FINANCIAL REVENUES	745,619.83	2,774,997.86
Less: FINANCIAL COSTS	177,375.00	492,554.00
GROSS INCOME	568,244.83	2,282,443.86
Less: OPERATING EXPENSES	574,390.57	1,527,624.89
NET OPERATING INCOME	(6,145.74)	754,818.97
Add: NET OTHER INCOME	128,993.00	909,465.62
NET INCOME	122,847.26	1,664,284.59

Exhibit 2.1. MARKETING COOPERATIVE
Income Statement
For the Year ended

	Dec-1999	Dec-2000
SALES	16,922,657.17	14,332,115.71
Less: COST OF SALES	14,183,031.25	12,484,603.28
GROSS PROFIT	2,739,625.92	1,847,512.43
Less: OPERATING EXPENSES	6,158,037.32	5,218,498.56
NET LOSS FROM OPERATIONS	(3,418,411.40)	(3,370,986.13)
Add: NET OTHER INCOME	3,747,532.35	2,276,803.69
NET INCOME (LOSS)	329,120.95	(1,094,182.44)

Refer the participants to the full version of the above Income Statements included in the Annexes. You can ask the participants to go over copies of their own cooperatives' or businesses' income statements. Their income statements may vary from those given above and may even be longer particularly for those with multi-purpose types of operations.

B. The Balance Sheet

Definition:

The **balance sheet** presents a statement on the financial condition or position of the cooperative or business enterprise at a given date. It shows the assets, liabilities, and owners' equity of the business. Their relationship to each other is shown by the following equation:

ASSETS = LIABILITIES + OWNERS'/MEMBERS'

General Account Classifications:

1. **Assets** – reflect the resources or things owned by the business. These are classified into:

   a) **CURRENT ASSETS**
   - These are assets that can easily be converted into cash in the normal course of the business operation.
   - Examples are: *cash on hand*, *cash in bank*, *inventories*, *receivables*, *prepaid expenses*, *unused supplies*

   b) **INVESTMENTS**
   - These are placements of funds for profit with other financial institutions like banks or other cooperatives.

   c) **FIXED ASSETS**
   - These include properties, equipment, facilities or processes providing the infrastructure of the business such as *land*, *buildings*, *vehicles*, *machineries*.
   - These are purchased for use within the business rather than for purposes of re-sale.

2. **Liabilities** – These reflect other people's money or those owed or borrowed from other programs or the total debt of the business. These are:

   a) CURRENT LIABILITIES

   - These refer to short-term loans and borrowings of the business due and payable within the current year.
   - Examples include: *savings and time deposits payable*, *interest payable*, *loan payable*, *accounts payable*, *accrued expenses* (or those incurred but unpaid accounts), *unearned income*, *patronage refund* and *dividends payable*.

   b) LONG-TERM LIABILITIES

   - These are financial obligations of the business due and payable after one year or longer.

3. **Members' or Owners' Equity** – This reflects how much is owned by the shareholders/ owners of the business or its net worth. These include:

   a) RESERVES

   - These represent accumulated reserves allocated for stability or other purposes from the gross or net proceeds or income from the business.
   - Among the statutory reserves are: the general reserve fund, coop education and training fund.

   b) DONATED CAPITAL

   - Refer to proceeds of materials, gifts, grants and donations.

   c) SHARE CAPITAL

   - The owners' or members' accumulated contributions or equity.
   - This includes accumulated and undivided net income or losses. This means net losses reduce members' equity.

Remember:

As with the income statements, it is important that we look at the General Account Classifications as our guide in analysis. Exhibits 1.2 and 2.2 below are the summary versions of the balance sheets in ANNEXES 1.2 and 2.2.

At this point, you can again guide the participants to the full version of the above Balance Sheets in the Annexes. Copies of their respective cooperatives' balance sheets can be reviewed against these examples

II. Understanding our Financial Performance

This session will focus on further equipping the participants to understand how their cooperatives or businesses are performing financially by analyzing the financial statements. Financial terms and concepts are further clarified by using the question-and-answer format.

Recall that there are two basic financial reports – the Income Statement and the Balance Sheet. In this session, the participants shall go through a series of questions which management and members of the Board of Trustees or Directors would normally ask. Answers shall be derived from the financial reports.

In summary, these questions are:

1. What's our bottom line?
2. What's our spread?
3. How does current operations compare with last year's performance?
4. How much revenue do we earn from our assets?
5. How long does our money sleep?
6. Can we pay our debts and finance operations?
7. Should we use other peoples' money?

1. What's my bottom line?

Definition

A cooperative has a dual character. It is an association of members and, at the same time, it is a business organization. What makes cooperatives different from other business entities is that, essentially, the cooperative does business with its members.

The cooperative is a business enterprise. As such, it has to have net income. In other words, the bottom line must be positive.

Net income is made when the cooperative is able to sell products or services at a price and volume higher than what it cost to produce the product or provide the service to the customers.

The Formula

To derive the Net Income, the basic formula is:

Revenues – Expenses = Net Income (Loss)

The TOP LINE is represented by Financial Revenues or Sales

The MIDDLE LINES refer to the Operating Expenses and Net Other Income

The BOTTOM LINE is literally the last line – the Net Income or Net Loss

Example 1.1

- When (Revenues + Net Other Income) **>** Expenses ➔ Net Income
- The bottom line is highlighted in the Income Statement above.
- We see that the Financial Cooperative achieved a positive bottom line both in 1999 and 2000. In other words, it had higher income compared to its expenses so that there is Net Income.

Note, however, that in 1999, net income from operations of the cooperative was negative (minus 6,145.74). Net Other Income (128,993.00) more than covered up for this deficit so that the bottom line became positive.

Example 1.2

- When (Revenues + Net Other Income) **<** Expenses ➔ Net Loss

- The bottom line in the Income Statement is also highlighted.
- We see that the Marketing Cooperative achieved a positive bottom line (or Net Income) in 1999 but a negative bottom line or (Net Loss) in 2000.
- Again, note that the cooperative had a Net Loss from Operations in 1999 and 2000 (minus 5,166,299.66 and minus 4,789,408.50, respectively).
- In 1999, Net Other Income (5,495,420.61) was able to cover this loss. In 2000, Net Other Income (3,695,220.14) was not sufficient so that the bottom line is negative.

Remember:

The 'Bottom Line' is literally the last line of the Income Statement. As a business entity, the cooperative should have a positive bottom line. A negative bottom line (or Net Loss) is bad for the cooperative or for any business for that matter. It means there is no surplus available for patronage refunds or dividends for members. Worse, losses mean a reduction in members' equity.

2. What is our spread?

Definition

A major determinant whether a cooperative's bottom line will be positive (Net Income) or negative (Net Loss) is Gross Income. Essentially, Gross Income is the difference between Revenues and the Direct Costs (or costs directly associated with the production of the product or provision of a service).

For a Financial Cooperative, the Gross Income is the difference between Financial Revenues and Financial Costs. For a Marketing Cooperative, the Gross Income is the difference between the Sales and Cost of Sales.

Gross Income should be large enough so it can cover the operating expenses (or fixed costs) of the cooperative. A low Gross Income means either: (a) the volume of sales is too low; or (b) the Gross Margin or Spread is too small.

The Gross Margin or Spread, on the other hand, is the ratio of the Gross Income and Revenues. It represents the profit that the cooperative makes out of every 100 monetary unit (e.g., peso, baht, rupiah, etc.) of revenues.

The third ratio that is a type of 'spread' is the Net Margin. It represents the proportion of Net Income or Loss before interest expenses relative to total revenues of a cooperative. It represents the net income or profit that the cooperative generates from its businesses.

The Formulae

We had discussed three figures. The first is the Gross Income. The second is the Gross Margin. The third is the Net Margin. In order to derive these, the formulae are:

a) Gross Income

- For a Financial Cooperative
  Gross Income = Financial Revenues – Financial Costs
- For a Marketing Cooperative
  Gross Income = Sales – Cost of Sales

b) Gross Margin or Spread

- For a Financial Cooperative
  Gross Margin = Gross Income / Financial Revenues
- For a Marketing Cooperative
  Gross Margin = Gross Income / Sales

c) Net Margin

- For a Financial Cooperative
  Net Margin = (Net Income + Interest Expense) / Total Revenues
- For a Marketing Cooperative
  Net Margin = (Net Income + Interest Expense) / Total Revenues

Note that for Net Margin, we add back interest expense to Net Income. This is to measure the level of income regardless of financing. Interest is incurred because operations were partially financed by loans. However, if the cooperative chose to infuse equity, interest would not have been incurred, thus, income would have been higher.

Example 2.1. The Financial Cooperative

For the Financial Cooperative, the following observations may be noted:

- Gross Income is 568,244.83 in 1999 and 2,282,443.86 in 2000.
- Gross Margin for 1999 is 76. This means that for every 100 monetary units (e.g., peso, baht, rupiah, etc.) of financial income, the cooperative earns 76 monetary units. In other words, the Financial Cooperative earns a spread of 76 monetary units.
- For the year 2000, the Gross Margin is much larger at 82 monetary units. This means the cooperative earns 82 monetary units for every 100 monetary units. Thus, the spread for year 2000 is 82 units.
- Why was Net Operating Income negative in 1999 while it was positive in 2000? Part of the answer is that Gross Income and Gross Margin was much lower in the year 1999 compared to 2000.

We compute for the Net Margin below. Note that we add back interest expense to Net Income.

$$\text{1999 Net Margin} = \frac{(122{,}847.26 + 177{,}375.00)}{(745{,}619.83 + 128{,}993.00)} = 34.3\%$$

$$\text{2000 Net Margin} = \frac{(1{,}664{,}284.59 + 492{,}554.00)}{(2{,}774{,}997.86 + 909{,}465.62)} = 58.5\%$$

- We observe that the Net Margin is relatively high. This means that for every monetary unit of total revenues, the cooperative earned 34.3 monetary units in 1999 and a high of 58.5 monetary units in 2000.

Example 2.2. The Marketing Cooperative

For the Marketing Cooperative, the following observations may be noted:

- Gross Income is 2,739,625.92 in 1999 and 1,847,512.43 in 2000.
- For 1999, Gross Margin is 16 monetary units. This means that for every 100 monetary units (e.g., peso, baht, rupiah, etc.) of sales, the cooperative earns 16 monetary units, or

alternatively, the cooperative earns a spread of 16 monetary units.

- The Gross Margin in 2000 is lower at only 13 monetary units. This means the cooperative earns 13 units for every 100 units. Thus, the spread for year 2000 is 13 units.
- So why did the Marketing Cooperative register losses in 1999 and 2000? One of the reasons is that Gross Incomes are very low. These were insufficient to cover Operating Expenses.
- Another reason is that Gross Margins or spreads generated from sales are too low so that the cooperative has to rely on Net Other Income to achieve a positive bottom line.

The Net Margin is computed below. Note that we also add back interest expense to Net Income as well as Net Other Income. (Unlike the Financial Cooperative, Net Other Income of the Marketing Cooperative includes an Interest Expense so that to get Total Other Income, we add back Other Expenses which, in turn, is composed only of Interest Expense).

$$\text{1999 Net Margin} = \frac{329{,}120.95 + 1{,}747{,}888.26}{(\ 16{,}922.657.17 + 3{,}747{,}532.35 + 1{,}747{,}888.26\ )} = 9.3\%$$

$$\text{2000 Net Margin} = \frac{(\ 1{,}094{,}182.44\ ) + 1{,}418{,}423.37}{(\ 14{,}332{,}115.71 + 2{,}276{,}803.69 + 1{,}418{,}423.37\ )} = 1.0\%$$

- We observe that the Net Margin for the Marketing Cooperative is very low. In fact, it was almost zero in 2000. This means that for every monetary unit of revenues, the cooperative hardly earns anything.

Remember

Each business has its appropriate level of Gross Margin. In other words, there is an 'industry standard'.

As we have seen above, financial cooperatives tend to rely on higher margins in order to achieve a positive bottom line.

On the other hand, marketing cooperatives tend to have lower margins and rely on Other Income to make bottom lines positive.

3. How does this year compare with last year?

Definition

After looking at the Gross Income and Gross Margins or Spread, the next question to ask is: how does this year's performance compare with last year's?

Comparisons are very useful since they provide us with a basis for saying whether we did better or worse.

For instance, if this year's bottom line is higher than last year's figure, we can trace which items accounted for the increase: Was it due to higher income? Was it due to lower expenses? Was it both?

On the other hand, if our performance was worse this year, we can pinpoint the major causes of the decline and plan how we can avoid such in the future.

Example 3.1. The Financial Cooperative

Based on Exhibit 3.1 below, we observe that the bottom line increased from 122,847.83 in 1999 5o 1,664,284.59 in 2000 or an increase of more than 12 times! How was this achieved?

a) First, we note that Financial Revenues increased almost three times from 745,613.83 in 1999 to 2,774,997.86 in year 2000. This implies an increase in Net Income.

b) Second, even as financial costs increased, the rate of its increase is slower than that of Financial Revenues such that the proportion of Financial Costs and Financial Revenues actually decreased. From 24 monetary units in 1999, the proportion of Financial Cost decreased to 18 monetary units in 2000. The effect is an increase in Net Income.

c) Again, even while Operating Expenses increased, it also increased at a slower rate than Financial Revenues such that in terms of proportion, Operating Expenses actually went down to 55 monetary units compared to 77 monetary units in 2000. This means an increase in Net Income.

d) Finally, Net Other Income likewise increased more than six times from 128,993.00 in 1999 to 909,465.62 in 2000. This likewise increases Net Income.

The Formulae

Just as we did to derive the Gross Margin, we divide the income and expense items with Total Sales or Financial Revenues. The resulting proportions will then be compared with other periods in order to determine which items went up or down so as to affect the bottom line.

- Financial Costs/Financial Revenues
  Cost of Sales/Sales
- Operating Expenses/Financial Revenues
  Operating Expenses/Sales
- Net Other Income/Financial Revenues
  Net Other Income/Sales

Example 3.1. The Financial Cooperative

Based on Exhibit 3.1 below, we observe that the bottom line increased from 122,847.26 in 1999 to 1,664,284.59 in 2000 or an increase of more than 12 times! How was this achieved?

a) First, we note that Financial Revenues increased almost three times from 745,613.83 in 1999 to 2,774,997.86 in year 2000. This implies an increase in Net Income.

b) Second, even as financial costs increased, the rate of its increase is slower than that of Financial Revenues such that the proportion of Financial Costs and Financial Revenues actually decreased. From 24 monetary units in 1999, the proportion of Financial Cost decreased to 18 monetary units in 2000. The effect is an increase in Net Income.

c) Again, even while Operating Expenses increased, it also increased at a slower rate than Financial Revenues such that in terms of proportion, Operating Expenses actually went down to 55 monetary units compared to 77 monetary units in 2000. This means an increase in Net Income

d) Finally, Net Other Income likewise increased more than six times from 128,993.00 in 1999 to 909,465.62 in 2000. This likewise increases Net Income.

Exhibit 3.1. MICROFINANCE COOPERATIVE

Income Statement

For the Year ended

		Dec-1999	%	Dec-2000	%
FINANCIAL REVENUES	(a)	**745,619.83**	100	**2,774,997.86**	100
Less: FINANCIAL COSTS	(b)	177,375.00	**24**	492,554.00	**18**
GROSS INCOME		568,244.83	76	2,282,443.86	82
Less: OPERATING EXP	(c)	574,390.57	**77**	1,527,624.89	**55**
NET OPERATING INCOME (LOSS)		(6,145.74)	(1)	**754,818.97**	**27**
Add: OTHER INC	(d)	**128,993.00**		**909,465.62**	
NET INCOME		**122,847.26**		**1,664,284.59**	

Example 3.2. The Marketing Cooperative

Our example of a Marketing Cooperative, on the other hand, shows that the bottom line declined from Net Income of 329,120.95 in 1999 to a Net Loss amounting to 1,094,182.44 in 2000. How did this come about?

a) We observe that Cost of Sales declined in absolute terms but the proportion of Cost of Sales to Sales increased from 84 monetary units to 87 monetary units. This means higher costs per monetary units of Sales and therefore a decrease in Net Income.

b) Net Other Income likewise decreased dramatically, contributing to the Net Loss.

Exhibit 3.2. MARKETING COOPERATIVE

Income Statement

For the year ended

		Dec-1994	%	Dec-1995	%
SALES		16,922,657.17	100	14,332,115.71	100
Less: COST OF SALES	(a)	14,183,031.25	**84**	12,484,603.28	**87**
GROSS PROFIT		2,739,625.92	16	1,847,512.43	13
Less: OPERATING EXPENSES		6,158,037.32	36	5,218,498.56	36
NET LOSS FROM OPERATIONS		(3,418,411.40)	(20)	(3,370,986.13)	(23)
Add: NET OTHER INC	(b)	**3,747,532.35**		**2,276,803.69**	
NET INCOME(LOSS)		**329,120.95**		**(1,094,182.44)**	

Remember:

We have to identify items that lead to higher Net Income. Essentially, it boils down to increasing revenues or sales while keeping expenses down.

On the other hand, we should avoid the situation where expenses increase faster than sales or revenues. This will inevitably lead to Net Losses.

What are the possible solutions to improve the cooperative's Net Income? Essentially, these are:

a) Increasing Financial Revenues or Sales
   - Increasing the price of finished goods/products or interest on loans
   - Offering a better product mix to entice more customers
   - Increasing the amount of loans per borrower or increasing number of borrowers in the case of the microfinance cooperative
   - Increasing sales through advertising, promotions
   - Adding sales outlets or cooperative branches

b) Reducing Costs
   - Increasing efficiency of workers through better recruitment processes or employee trainings
   - Acquiring new equipment
   - Avoiding wastage
   - Strictly monitoring activities that drives cost

4. How much revenue do we earn from our assets?

Definition

The first three questions above discuss the bottom line and margins. As may be observed, these are analyses that refer only to items in the Income Statement. In this section, we extract figures from the Income Statement and Balance Sheet.

As we had seen, generating sufficient revenues is critical in ensuring a positive bottom line. And in order to generate revenues, the cooperative uses its resources to produce goods for sales or perform services.

Thus, we ask the question: has the cooperative management utilized our assets (or resources) efficiently so that it is able to generate as much revenues as possible?

The Formulae

The question above refers to the ratio called **Asset Turnover**. The formulae are as follows:

For a Financial Cooperative:

$$\text{Asset Turnover} = \frac{\text{Revenues + Other Income}}{\text{Total Assets}}$$

(from Income Statement)
(from the Balance Sheet)

For a Marketing Cooperative:

$$\text{Asset Turnover} = \frac{\text{Sales + Other Income}}{\text{Total Assets}}$$

(from Income Statement)
(from the Balance Sheet)

Example 4.1. The Financial Cooperative

Based on the formula above, we extract the Financial Revenues from the income statement and the Total Assets from balance sheet. The data are shown below:

Exhibit 4.1.

	1999	2000
FINANCIAL REVENUES	745,619.83	2,774,997.86
Other Income	128,993.00	909,465.62
TOTAL ASSETS	**3,817,974.42**	**19,372,985.45**

By dividing Financial Revenues by Total Assets, we derive the following ratios:

	1999	2000
Asset Turnover	**0.23**	**0.19**

- A financial cooperative earns in the form of different financial fees from loans, e.g., loan interest, service or processing fees, application fees.
- Thus, the turnover ratios mean that for every monetary unit of assets, the cooperative earned 0.23 monetary units in financial fees in 1999 and 0.19 monetary units in 2000.
- Note that revenues for 1999 were much lower than in 2000. However, this is only because cooperative management also had lesser resources (or assets) to work with. In reality, assets available in 1999 earned more for each monetary unit (0.23) compared to 2000 (0.19) even if revenues were lower in 1999.
- Thus, it may be said that the cooperative management was more efficient in using its resources 1999 than in 2000.

Example 4.2. The Marketing Cooperative

We also extract the Financial Revenues from the income statement and the Total Assets from balance sheet of the marketing cooperative. The data are shown below:

Exhibit 4.2.

	1999	2000
SALES	16,922,657.17	14,332,115.71
Other Income*	5,495,420.61	3,695,227.06
TOTAL ASSETS	**36,153,327.44**	**35,904,483.15**

*Interest Expense of 1,747,888.26 in 1999 and 1,418,423.37 in 2000 were added back

And as with the Financial Cooperative, we divide Sales by Total Assets to derive the following ratios:

	Dec 1999	Dec 2000
Asset Turnover	**0.62**	**0.50**

- A marketing cooperative sells goods to generate revenues. As such, the turnover ratios mean that for every monetary unit of assets, the cooperative earned generated sales of 0.62 monetary units in 1999 and 0.50 monetary units in 2000.
- We observe that revenues for 1999 were lower than in 2000. But the cooperative had lesser resources (or assets) in 1999. Comparing efficiency in generating revenues, we find that, in reality, the cooperative earned more for each monetary unit of asset in 1999 (0.62) compared to 2000 (0.50).
- Thus, similar to the observation in the financial cooperative, the cooperative management was more efficient in using its resources 1999 than in 2000.

Remember:

We combine our observations from question number 2 and this section to highlight differences between the operations of the financial cooperative and a marketing cooperative:

For the Financial Cooperative:

- In terms of the revenue turnover, the financial cooperative's ratio is relatively low.
- Recall, however, that in the previous section, it was observed that the Gross Margin or Spread as well as the Net Margin of the cooperative was high (compared to a marketing cooperative).
- Thus, for a financial cooperative, the rule of thumb is: high spread or margins, but low asset turnover.

For the Marketing Cooperative:

- Unlike the financial cooperative, the turnover of marketing cooperative is relative high.
- However, the Gross Margin or Spread and Net Margin of the marketing cooperative is relatively low (compared to a financial cooperative).
- Thus, the rule of thumb for a marketing cooperative is: low spread or margins, but relatively higher asset turnover.

5. How long does our money sleep?

Definition

As with any business entity, the cooperative must utilize its resources in order to generate revenues and income.

Essentially, the financial cooperative earns revenues by converting its cash into loans to its members. In turn, after a certain period, the cooperative collects the loan principal together with interest. Schematically, the process is as follows:

Cash ⟶ Loans Receivable ⟶ Cash (Loan Principal and Interest)

On the other hand, the marketing cooperative likewise converts its cash into merchandise that it sells to its customers. Once the goods are sold, the cooperative receives cash that it can use to buy new stocks. In brief, the process is as follows:

Cash ⟶ Merchandise ⟶ Accounts Receivable ⟶ Cash (Cost of Stock plus spread)

Looking at both processes, we observe that after we initially convert our cash into loans or merchandise, it will take time before we are able to convert them back into cash together with our sales or revenues.

During these times, it may be said that our money is 'sleeping'. In other words, it is not working to generate revenues.

Thus, the critical question is: how long does our money 'sleep'? In other words, how long that it take for loans and merchandise to be converted back into cash? If our money 'sleeps' too long, it means that we need more money to generate our target amount of revenues.

The Formulae

There are different ways of answering the question above. It is because of differences in the nature of their business activities, ratios for the financial and marketing cooperative are not the same.

For a Financial Cooperative:

Ideally, loan amortizations should be paid when these are due. When this is achieved, the accounts are said to be 'up-to-date' or 'current'.

When does a loan 'sleep' too long? For a financial cooperative, this is when loan amortizations due are not paid according to the prescribed schedule. In other words, payments become 'past due' or past their due date. On the other hand, there may also be accounts where the cooperative has initiated legal action in order to collect the loan balances.

We should ask the cooperative management to classify or break the Loans Receivable item from the balance sheet into the following:

- Loans Receivable
  - *Up-to-date Accounts*. These are loans that are paid according to schedule
  - *Past due Accounts*. Refers to loans whose amortizations are delayed.
  - *Under litigation*. Refers to accounts where legal action has been initiated.

For a Marketing Cooperative:

There are two ratios that need to be computed for the marketing cooperative. These include:

$$\text{Accounts Receivable Turnover} = \frac{\text{Sales}}{\text{Accounts Receivable}} \quad \begin{matrix}\textit{(from the Income Statement)} \\ \textit{(from the Balance Sheet)}\end{matrix}$$

$$\text{Inventory Turnover} = \frac{\text{Cost of Sales}}{\text{Average Inventory}} \quad \begin{matrix}\textit{(from the Income Statement)} \\ \textit{(from the Balance Sheet)}\end{matrix}$$

where

Average Inventory = (Beginning Inventory + Ending Inventory) / 2

- How are the ratios to be interpreted? The higher the ratio, the shorter the time our money is 'sleeping'. Conversely, the lower the turnover, the longer the period our money is 'sleeping'.

Example 5.1. The Financial Cooperative

Based on the formula above, we extract the Loan Receivables Data from the Balance Sheet

and ask the cooperative management to provide the breakdown. The data are shown below:

	1999	%	2000	%
Loans receivable	**1,922,886.25**	**100**	**10,541,876.80**	**100**
~ Up-to-Date	1,894,042.96	98.5	9,487,689.12	90.0
~ Past Due	28,843.29	1.5	1,054,187.68	10.0
~ Under Litigation		0.0		

- From the table above, we observe that the portfolio quality of the financial cooperative has deteriorated a bit.
- In 1999, 98.5 percent of its loans receivable were up-to-date. In 2000, however, the loans past due increased to 10 percent from only 1.5 percent in 1999.
- Based on this information, we can say that our money is 'sleeping' longer in 2000 compared to 2000. This decline is one major cause of the lower asset turnover in 2000.

Example 5.2. The Marketing Cooperative

From the formulae discussed, we extract the relevant data from the Income Statement and Balance Sheet of the marketing cooperative.

	1999	2000
SALES	16,922,657.17	14,332,115.71
Acct Receivable	6,084,098.58	5,625,846.76
Aver Receivable	5,854,972.67	
TOTAL COST OF SALES	14,183,031.25	12,484,603.28
Ave Inventory	3,552,535.74	1,853,776.08
Inventory, Jan 1	4,945,617.13	2,159,454.35
Inventory, Dec 31	2,159,454.35	1,548,097.82

$$\text{1999 Accounts Receivable Turnover} = \frac{16{,}922{,}657.17}{6{,}084{,}098.58} = 2.78$$

$$\text{2000 Accounts Receivable Turnover} = \frac{14{,}332{,}115.71}{5{,}625{,}846.76} = 2.54$$

- Accounts Receivable Turnover declined in 2000. This means a lesser proportion of our sales are in the form of cash. Conversely, it takes longer to collect the accounts receivable.
- This means our money is 'sleeping' longer in 2000.

$$\text{1999 Inventory Turnover} = \frac{14{,}183{,}031.25}{3{,}552{,}535.74} = 3.99 \text{ times}$$

$$\text{2000 Inventory Turnover} = \frac{12{,}484{,}603.28}{1{,}853{,}776.08} = 6.73 \text{ times}$$

- On the other hand, inventory turnover is higher in 2000 compared to 1999. This means that we are converting our inventory into sales at a faster pace in 2000.
- This implies that in terms of time, our money is 'sleeping' is lesser in 2000.

Remember:

The lesser the time our money 'sleeps', the better for the cooperative. As much as possible, every peso of assets used or employed in the business should generate more in revenues.

There are several causes why our money 'sleeps' longer.

When stocks or inventory is too high, the business suffers low liquidity or there is less cash available for the other operational needs. To solve this, you must reduce stocks and maintain only the average industry level.

What if you are already maintaining the average industry level of inventory? Better check on your efficiency in collecting your loans or accounts receivable. You may have too many accounts on credit not being collected when they fall due.

The management of the cooperative should always be on the lookout for these situations in order to minimize, if not avoid, them.

6. Can we pay our debts and finance operations?

Definition

Cooperatives need resources to finance the day-to-day expenses of its business operations. These include releases of loans in the case of the financial cooperative, or purchases of raw materials and other processing costs on the part of a marketing cooperative.

At the same time, the cooperatives must pay its suppliers for purchases made on credit, or lenders for interest or loan principal falling due.

As such, we should ask management of the cooperative: does the cooperative have sufficient resources to pay its creditors and suppliers without sacrificing the needs of the cooperative's business operations and vice versa?

The Formulae

There are two formulae that we will look at in order to answer our questions. These are the **Current Ratio** and the **Net Working Capital ratio**.

$$\text{Current Ratio} = \frac{\text{Current Assets (from the Balance Sheet)}}{\text{Current Liabilities (from the Balance Sheet)}}$$

- Current Assets are resources that are in the form of cash or are easily converted to cash (such as inventories or receivables).

- On the other hand, Current Liabilities are short-term loans and borrowings of the business due and payable within the current year.
- If Current Ratio > 1. This means that the cooperative can meet obligations falling due within the current year since current assets is greater than current liabilities.
- If Current Ratio < 1. This means that the cooperative cannot meet obligations falling due within the current year since current assets is less than current liabilities.

$$\text{Net Working Capital Ratio} = \frac{\text{Net Working Capital (from the Balance Sheet)}}{\text{Total Assets (from the Balance Sheet)}}$$

where

Net Working Capital = (Current Assets – Current Liabilities)

- Why is Working Capital necessary?
  - Not all sales of the cooperative are paid for in cash. In many instances, these are sold with the expectation that payment will be made within one to three months from date of the transaction.
  - The cooperative may need to keep a certain level of inventory so that it will not be delayed in meeting orders of customers.
- The amount of working capital required is a function of: (a) the size of the business; (b) credit given and taken; (c) lead time through the manufacturing process; and (d) range of products and services offered.
- As such, a higher level of working capital provides flexibility to the management of the cooperative.
- On the other hand, the lack of working capital implies delays in payment of suppliers, delayed production and delivery schedules, or a longer waiting period in loan releases. All these tend to create problems with both suppliers and customers of the cooperative.

Example 6.1. The Financial Cooperative

We highlight the data needed in the Balance Sheet below:

Exhibit 6.1. FINANCIAL COOPERATIVE

Balance Sheet

	As of December-99	As of December-00
ASSETS		
Current Assets	3,609,783.76	18,713,341.01
Fixed Assets	208,190.66	659,644.44
TOTAL ASSETS	**3,817,974.42**	**19,372,985.45**
LIABILITIES & MEMBERS EQUITY		
Current Liabilities	695,128.15	2,129,197.11
Long-Term Loans Payable	3,000,000.00	15,440,000.00
Members' Equity	122,846.27	1,803,788.34
TOTAL LIABILITIES & EQUITY	**3,817,974.42**	**19,372,985.45**

Using the formulae, we compute the Current Ratios and Net Working Capital Ratios:

	1999	2000
Current Ratio	5.19	8.79
Working Capital Ratio	0.76	0.86

- The Current Ratio of the Financial Cooperative is quite healthy. In 1999, the ratio of 5.19 means that for every monetary unit of liability due for the year, there are 5.19 monetary units of current assets that can be used for payment.
- The higher Current Ratio in 2000 means an even better picture for the cooperative.
- As may be inferred, financial cooperatives do not need much fixed assets. As such, most of its resources are in the form of Current Assets. As such, the Net Working Capital is relatively high, registering 0.76 in 1999 and 0.86 in 2000.

Example 6.2. The Marketing Cooperative

We present the data needed in the Balance Sheet below:

Exhibit 6.2. MARKETING COOPERATIVE

Balance Sheet

	As of December-99	As of December-00
ASSETS		
Current Assets	21,636,921.69	21,243,419.95
Investments	2,534,568.20	2,653,618.20
Fixed Assets, Net	11,981,837.55	12,007,445.00
TOTAL ASSETS	**36,153,327.44**	**35,904,483.15**
LIABILITIES & MEMBERS' EQUITY		
Current Liabilities	24,432,052.53	25,480,197.29
Long Term Liabilities	7,046,039.36	7,462,373.95
Reserves & Members' Equity	3,675,235.55	2,961,911.91
TOTAL LIABILITIES & EQUITY	**35,153,327.44**	**35,904,483.15**

We then compute the Current Ratios and Net Working Capital Ratios:

	1999	2000
Current Ratio	0.89	0.83
Working Capital Ratio	–0.08	–0.12

- The Current Ratio of the Marketing Cooperative is not good because it is less than 1. In both 1999 and 2000, the ratio of 0.89 and 0.83, respectively, means that current assets cannot pay for all current liabilities due for the year.
- Since Current Ratio is less than one, it implies that working capital (current assets less current liabilities) is negative. With negative working capital, it means payments to

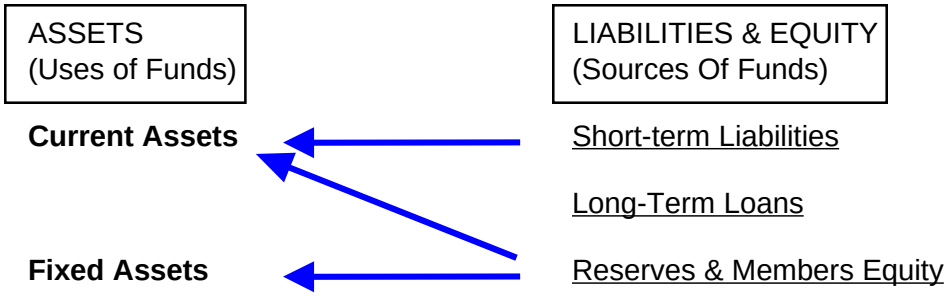
suppliers and creditors, and perhaps even processing activities and deliveries to customers, are more likely delayed.

- To solve this problem, the Marketing Cooperative must negotiate for Long-Term Loans and/or Increase Members' Equity.

Remember:

The cooperative must have more than enough resources to be able to pay for its obligations and, at the same time, have the necessary working capital to be able to take advantage of opportunities that may emerge.

Essentially, there has to be a match between the nature of the assets and type of financing. The correct financing scheme is as follows:



Fixed assets (such as equipment, land, buildings) that are long-term in nature should be financed by long-term funds (i.e. long-term debts and members' equity).

Conversely, current liabilities cannot be used to finance fixed assets. Rather short-term loans should cover only short-term assets.

7. Should we use other people's money?

Definition

When more money is needed to finance or service business operations, we need to decide where to source the amount we need. Here we are faced with several choices.

'Our' money essentially refers to Members' Equity.

- *Members' Equity*. This represents a long-term source of money for the cooperative. The return to equity is not certain. When the cooperative incurs a loss, it is charged to members' equity. When the cooperative earns income, members expect dividends to be declared.

  In exchange for an uncertain return, members are given the power to vote for the leaders of the cooperative.

On the other hand, 'Other Peoples Money' broadly refers to Loans and other Liabilities such as:

- *Members' Deposits*. While these are also 'our money', members' deposits are like loans in that they carry interest charges. Nevertheless, savings deposits are good sources of short-term funds.
- *Loans*. These are obligations incurred by the cooperative that carry interest charges.

- *Suppliers' Credit*. This refers to the transaction where raw materials are paid several days or weeks after delivery. This is a cheap source of fund since there is no explicit interest rate.
- *Payables to Government*. Unless payments due to government such as taxes remittances to social security are paid, the cooperative can use this money as part of working capital.

There are three ratios that can guide the cooperative whether to use more of other people's money or not.

The first is the **debt-to-equity ratio**. It measures how much debt has been incurred by the cooperative relative to its equity.

The second is the **Return on Assets**. This indicates whether the cooperative can afford interest charges in case it gets a loan.

The third is the **Return on Equity**, which measures the proportion of Net Income before Interest that can be allocated to Members' Equity.

The Formulae

The formulae are as follows:

$$\text{Debt-to-Equity} = \frac{\text{Total Liabilities (from the Balance Sheet)}}{\text{Members Equity (from the Balance Sheet)}}$$

$$\text{Return on Assets} = \frac{\text{Net Income before Interest (from the Income Statement)}}{\text{Total Assets (from the Balance Sheet)}}$$

$$\text{Return on Equity} = \frac{\text{Net Income before Interest (from the Income Statement)}}{\text{Members Equity (from the Balance Sheet)}}$$

$$= \text{(Return on Assets) x (1 + Debt-to-Equity)}$$

- In general, the values of Return on Assets and Debt-to-Equity determines Return on Equity
- We can increase Return on Equity under the following conditions:
  - Increase Debt-to-Equity (incur loans) but at least maintain the same level of Return on Assets
  - Increase Return on Assets with the same level of Debt-to-Equity Ratio
  - Increase both Return on Assets and Debt-to-Equity

Example 7.1. The Financial Cooperative

Based on the formula above, we extract the relevant figures from the income statement and the balance sheet. The data are shown below:

Exhibit 7.1.

	1999	2000
Net Income + Interest	300,222.26	2,156,838.59
TOTAL ASSETS	3,817,974.42	19,372,985.45
Current Liabilities	695,128.15	2,129,197.11
Long-Term Loans	3,000,000.00	15,440,000.00
Members' Equity	122,846.27	1,803,788.34

We then compute for the ratios based on the given formulations:

	1999	2000	% Change
Debt-to-Equity	30.1	9.7	-67 %
Return on Assets	0.08	0.11	37 %
Return on Equity	2.44	1.20	-50 %

- As stated above, we increase Return on Equity if we increase Debt-to-Equity and/or Return on Assets.
- We observe that Return on Assets increased, but Debt-to-Equity decline significantly.
- Overall, because of the significant decline in the debt-to-equity ratio (implies a dramatic increase in equity), the financial cooperative registered a decline in Return on Equity.
- Having a positive increase in Return on Assets, it would have been better if the Financial Cooperative borrowed money rather than put in equity.

Example 4.2. The Marketing Cooperative

We also extract the data income statement and balance sheet of the marketing cooperative. The data are shown below:

Exhibit 4.1.

	1999	2000
Net Income + Interest	2,077,009.21	324,240.93
TOTAL ASSETS	36,153,327.44	35,904,483.15
Current Liabilities	24,432,052.53	25,480,197.29
Long-Term Loans	7,046,039.36	7,462,373.95
Members' Equity	3,675,235.55	2,961,911.91

And as with the Financial Cooperative, we compute for the ratios:

	1999	2000	% Change
Debt-to-Equity	8.5	11.1	30.5 %
Return on Assets	0.06	0.009	-85 %
Return on Equity	0.57	0.11	-80 %

- For our Marketing Cooperative, Debt-to-Equity increased significantly. From the data above, this is mainly because of a decrease in members' equity, which, in turn, was due to losses from the previous year.
- Unfortunately, Net Income likewise declined dramatically, causing Return on Assets and Return on Equity to fall.
- In this case, increasing debts does not make sense if Net Income is declining.

Remember:

- The key determinant in deciding whether to use our money or other peoples' money is the **Return on Equity**. One of our key objectives is to generate as much net income with as little equity as possible. In doing so, we can use our money in other ventures and generate more income.
- There are several ways of increasing Return on Equity:
  - Increase Debt-to-Equity (incur loans) but at least maintain the same level of Return on Assets
  - Increase Return on Assets with the same level of Debt-to-Equity Ratio
  - Increase both Return on Assets and Debt-to-Equity
- If the rate of decrease in Debt-to-Equity is not offset with an equivalent increase in Return on Assets, then Return on Equity is lower. This is bad for the cooperative.
- Thus, the relevant rule of thumb is: if the cooperative management foresees a significant improvement in Net Income (i.e. rate of increase in net income is greater than or equal to interest rate of loans), then it makes sense for the cooperative to use other peoples' money (i.e. incur loans).

UNIT 3
Cooperative Enterprise Building and Management

MAIN MESSAGE

At the core of the operations of cooperatives is the business or enterprise which the members jointly own and manage. Though the daily management of this business rests on the general manager and the staff, who usually work on paid basis for the cooperative, still the women-leaders (e.g. women-members of the board of directors) have to be oriented on the basic principles and processes of business management. A basic knowledge of business management will help them effectively participate in the making of decisions and the formulation of policies affecting their cooperatives' business operations.

This session provides the women-leaders with a general orientation on business or enterprise building and management. Because of the limitation of this session, it is highly suggested for the women-leaders to undertake more thorough training courses on the subject after this session. Attendance in more intensive business management courses will certainly expand their options on how to earn more income for themselves and for their families, and become more economically independent from men.

Specifically, this session will tackle the different stages of enterprise creation.

SESSION GUIDE

Objectives

1. To help the women leaders gain a basic knowledge of the basic processes of business or enterprise creation and management
2. To facilitate a process whereby the women-leaders can confront their fears and feeling of self-inadequacy vis-à-vis business creation and management.

Time Requirement: seven and a half hours

Materials Required:

1. Board and pens
2. Four big tables to be set up as stores.
3. Materials:
   - Cardboards of three sizes: Large, medium and small (4 sets of each size)
   - Scissors (4 sets)
   - Art papers (8 sets of assorted colors)
   - Beads of different sizes: large, medium, and small (as many as the trainers can provide)

- Thread: (25 meters)
- Needles: (16 needles)
- Glue: (4 bottles)
- Colored papers: (8 sets of assorted colors)
- Watercolor: (4 boxes)
- Colored pens: (4 sets with different colors)
- Empty cans, any available size: (20 cans)

4. Visual aids

Steps:

The session has two parts: The first part is a discussion of the different stages of enterprise creation; and the second part is a simulation exercise.

Part 1: Discussion on the Stages of Enterprise Building (2 ½ hours)

1. After explaining to the participants the topic and objectives of the session, give each of them three idea cards of any color. Idea cards are 8" x 4" blank cards or sheets of paper. Ask each participant to write on her idea cards her fears about running businesses and enterprises. Each card must contain only one fear, written in not more than 8 words and big enough for everyone in the training room to read if posted on the board. The question can be asked this way:

   "Why do you think many women fear getting involved in enterprise creation and management? What specific areas or aspects of business or enterprise do many women feel inadequate at?"

   If a participant has more than three answers, you can give them more cards. But do this only when all the cards have been posted on the board and not one of the cards contain her additional answers.

2. When all answers of the participants are already posted on the board, then classify the cards according to the following stages of enterprise building:
   - Product selection
   - Project formulation
   - Project implementation
   - Growth and expansion

   One example of a fear that can be shared is "they don't know which product will be accepted by the targeted customers". Certainly, this falls under the first stage of enterprise building. Another example is "lack of access to credit or lack of capital". This can be included in the "Project Implementation" stage.

3. Explain each stage of enterprise creation and why the cards fall under each stage. If you think that other common issues and concerns are missing, you may add these issues and concerns. Please refer to the reference material on the definition of each stage.

4. Divide the participants into four small groups. Assign one stage of enterprise building and management to a group. Instruct the members of the groups to use the following matrix for their discussion.

A	B	C	D
Issues/fears about the stage address these issues and fears fears	Knowledge and skills women should have to should receive to face issues and	Support from the environment which women columns of this matrix)	What should women do to attain B & C? (second and third

Give the participants 45 minutes for discussion and 15 minutes to prepare for the presentation of their outputs to the plenary.

5. Invite each small group to present their outputs to plenary. Give each group ten minutes to present its output. After each presentation, ask the members of the other small groups if they have questions for clarification or if they have something to add to the group's outputs. Then give your own additions on how the issues and concerns for each stage can be effectively addressed.
6. Sum up the key learning points of the discussion.

Part 2: Simulation Exercise (5 hours)

1. Divide the participants into four small groups. Tell them that each group will be putting up a small store of any product, and that the target buyers are the participants who are not members of their own groups.

2. Give all groups equal amount of capital, say $ 500, for their business capital, and all individual participants equal amount of play money, say $ 200, to spend during the exercise. Tell them that the available raw materials in the hardware and their prices are:
   - Cardboards: Large $10 each; medium: $ 8 each; small: $5 (4 sets of each size)
   - Scissors: $ 5 each (4 sets)
   - Art papers: $ 1 each (8 sets of assorted colors)
   - Beads of different sizes: large: $ 5 each; medium: $3; small $ 1 each. (as many as the trainers can provide)
   - Thread: $ 1 for 1 meter (25 meters)
   - Needles: $ 2 each (16 needles)
   - Glue: $ 5 per bottle (4 bottles)
   - Colored papers: $1 each (8 sets of assorted colors)
   - Watercolor: $ 3 per box (4 boxes)
   - Colored pens: $ 5 per set (4 sets with different colors)
   - Empty cans: $ 1 each (20 cans)

The possible products that can be developed from these materials are: picture frames, necklaces, bracelets, cards, pen holders, and waste bins. The group may think of other products aside from these.

The store of raw materials, tools and equipments shall be managed by a committee, to be composed by three trainers and staff.

3. Instruct each group to develop in one hour their business plan based on their assessment of what the market wants, their available capital, the available raw materials and tools, and the production capacity of their people. The Business plan , which must be submitted to the trainer before implementation, should include the following details:
   - Type(s) of product selected and the reason(s) for choosing such product.
   - Required raw materials, tools and equipment, and calculation of the total needed capital.
   - Target volume of goods to serve
   - Pricing of the product
   - How to present and deliver the product
   - Profitability – target earnings of the group
4. After submitting their business plan, each group will buy their needed raw materials, tools and equipments from the committee. Then give them another one hour to produce their products. Once all the products are ready, tell them to set up their stores. Give them 45 minutes to do this.
5. When the four groups are ready with their stores, invite the individual participants to buy the products of groups, aside from their own. They will use the play money which the trainers gave them at the beginning of the exercise. During the buying time, ask each group must ensure that two members at a time are left to manage their store and sell their products. Remind all the participants of the rule not to buy from their own stores. Allocate 20 minutes for this stage.
6. After 20 minutes, ask the participants to go back to their stores and to compute their group's gross and net profits, and to write these on the board.
7. When all groups have written their gross and net profits on the board, then start the processing of the exercise.
   a) Ask each group to share their experience in developing the business plan:
      - What were the easy and difficult parts of the process?
      - On what types of information did they base their business plan? How were these information gathered?
      - What were their assumptions?
      - Did the group consider their own skills, information and time as important resources? If yes, how?
      - Who among the members of the group emerged as good planners? Why did the group say so?
   b) Analyze their project implementation by asking the following
      - How many goods did you estimate to produce and how many did you sell?

- How did the group handle the time pressure?
- What were the production problems? How were they addressed?
- How was the concern for quality, innovation and efficiency shown?
- Did the group think of asking the customers for their feedback on your products? If yes, what mechanisms did you use to get feedback?

c) Analyze the way the group members worked together?

- How were decisions made?
- How was the group organized? Was there a division of labour in which the members were assigned specific tasks? For instance, was someone responsible for ensuring the quality of products, for monitoring the sales, for asking feedback from customers, etc.?

d) Which of the four groups earned the biggest net profit? What do you think are the factors that helped this group to succeed?

e) What are your key learning points from this exercise?

- How does each group assess their entrepreneurial competencies?
- What steps could the participants take to develop and strengthen these competencies?

8. Sum up the session by highlighting the key discussion and learning points raised by the participants on the exercise.

Variation:

Instead of opening the game – simulation exercise – to the production and selling of different products, the trainers can simply focus on one, such as the production and selling of picture frames. The groups will, however, decide on the sizes and designs of the picture frames they will produce, and their prices.

Trainers' Reference Material

Cooperative Enterprise Building and Management

Being the core of the operations of a cooperative, the members' jointly-owned and managed business or enterprise must be comprehensible, not only to the managers of the business, but as well as to the leaders of the cooperative. A knowledge of the basic operations of the business or enterprise will enable the leaders to make appropriate decisions for its success. In this light, then the advocacy to have women significantly represented in the decision making bodies and leadership structures of cooperatives must include training or orienting actual and potential women-leaders on the basics of enterprise building and management. The assumption of this training is that competencies in business and enterprise building can be learned. This is contrary to a gender stereotype claiming that such kind of involvement is not suited for women. The process of developing the entrepreneurial competencies of women, therefore, should consider these attitudinal barriers among women, themselves, and men. Women and men should therefore watch out for their prejudiced attitudes towards the ability of women to develop competencies in enterprise building and management as well.

This trainers' reference material discusses the general stages of enterprise building, some techniques in undertaking each stage and the competencies women must develop to effectively execute each stage of enterprise building. The material, therefore, provides only a general orientation on the subject. The women-leaders are hence encouraged to undergo more intensive course on enterprise building and management after this session.

I. Stages of Enterprise Building

The process of building an enterprise can be divided into the following four stages:

1. Product selection
2. Project Formulation
3. Project Implementation
4. Growth and expansion

1. Product Selection

Product selection involves identifying and understanding your target customers and potential competitors. In understanding your target customers and potential competitors, you can do market research. The following questions can be asked in this research:

- Who are the customers we want to sell to?
- What products or services do they want? Why do they want them?
- Of the products or services they want, which are we capable (based on our resources) of producing?
- What prices are they willing to pay?
- Where are the customers and where do they usually buy?
- When do they buy?
- How often and how much do they buy?
- Who are my competitors, the other businesses selling products and services similar to mine? How good are my competitors?

But it is not enough to know who your customers and what they want. You must also find out if there are enough customers. Not everybody will buy from your business.

Based on the results of your market research, you have to make decisions on:

- What products or services to sell
- What prices to charge
- How to get your products to your customers

- How to inform your customers and attract them to buy.

2. Project Formulation

Once you have made the above decisions, then you can write your business plan. This should include the following:

- A description of your product and your target customers
- Your business goal: How much do you target to earn (net income) for a certain period—say a year?
- What are the materials, equipments and human resources you need to put up the business? Where are you going to find these materials, equipment and human resources? How much will it cost you to find them? Where are you going to get this capital? How much will be the interest if to be loaned?
- How are you going to produce and sell your product? (Division of labour, training of workers and work flow)
- How are you going to present and deliver your products? How will you bring your products to your customers? How will you inform your customers and attract them to buy?
- How are you going to monitor the progress of your business?

3. Project Implementation

Based on your business plan, the implementation will be done. This includes the creation and running of the enterprise. Concretely, this stage entails the following activities:

- Putting up the capital needed for the business
- Hiring and training of people for the production and marketing of the product
- Production process — including checking the quality of products and efficiency of its production
- Setting the price of products, and informing the target customers about the product
- Bringing the products to the customers
- Gathering feedback from customers on their level of satisfaction with the products, and their suggestions on how the product can be improved.
- Continually developing the human and material resources to ensure the effective production and marketing of products.

4. Growth and Expansion

When the product has gained ground in the market, the next stage is to work towards its growth and expansion. Based on your assessment of the market (target customers and competitors) as well as your of own resources, you will venture into the scaling up of your business. To do this, the first three stages will have to be done again, but on a bigger scale. For instance, if your initial business focused only in one village or municipality, then at this point your target customers will be in the provincial or national level; eventually, maybe even at the international level.

II. Key Behavioral Competencies Required in Undertaking Each Stage

In 1983, David McClelland conducted a 36-month research project aimed at identifying and validating cross-cultural behavioral competencies of successful entrepreneurs. He showed that attitudes such as motives and self-concept, and competencies such knowledge and skills

can lead to effective or superior performance in a given job. At the end of this research project, the personal entrepreneurial behavioral competency model was designed and the 11 most important entrepreneurial behavioral competencies were related to the model of highly successful entrepreneurs, as opposed to averagely successful entrepreneurs. These competencies, with examples, are the following:

1. Goal setting:
   - Articulates long-range vision and goals
   - Continuously sets and revises short-range objectives
2. Risk Taking
   - Takes personal responsibility
   - Welcomes challenges
   - Willing to take calculated and moderate risks
3. Initiative-taking
   - Does things before being asked or being forced by events
   - Takes action that goes beyond job requirements or the demands of the situation
4. Persistence
   - Takes repeated actions to meet a challenge or overcome an obstacle
5. Sees and acts on opportunity
   - Sees and acts on new or unusual business opportunities
6. Information seeking
   - Takes action on her own to get information to help achieve objectives or clarify problems.
7. Concern for quality, innovation and efficiency
   - Looks for or finds ways to do things better, faster and cheaper
   - Takes action to improve things or achieve standards of excellence
8. Problem solving
   - Generates new and potentially unique ideas or innovative solutions to reach goals
   - Switches to alternative strategies to reach a goal
9. Self-confidence
   - Has a strong belief in her own abilities
10. Systematic planning
    - Develops and uses logical, step-by-step plans to reach goals
    - Makes plans by breaking a large task into sub-tasks.
11. Persuasion and influencing strategies
    - Uses a variety of deliberate strategies to influence or persuade others.

III. Ending note

As mentioned in the beginning section of this reading material, this session provides only a general orientation on enterprise building. Hence, the women-leaders are encouraged to attend more vigorous training on business or enterprise building and management, including marketing, and human resource management and development.