**CHAPTER ONE**

**Introduction**

**What is Management**

The following are some of the common and most widely used definitions of management given by different scholars of management.

* Management is the art of getting things done through/ with people in a formally organized group.
* Management is set of activities (including planning & decision making, organizing, leading and controlling) directed at an organization’s resources (human, finance, physical and information) with the aim of achieving organizational goals in an effective and efficient manner.
* Management is the art of knowing what you want to do in the best and cheapest way.
* Management is the process of planning, organizing, staffing, directing/ leading and controlling the use of resources effectively and economically to attain objectives.
* Management is the art of securing maximum results with minimum efforts so as to secure maximum happiness and prosperity for employer and employee; and to give best services to the public.
* Management is the process of working with/ through others to effectively achieve the organizations objectives by efficiently utilizing scarce resources of the organization in this changing environment.
* Management is the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, effectively accomplish selected aims.

**Who is a manager?**

A person responsible for controlling or administering an organization or a group of staff. A manager is a person responsible for the work performance of group members. A manager holds the formal authority to commit organizational resources, even if the approval of others is required. The concept of manager and managing are intertwined. The term management refers to the process of using organization resources to achieve organizational objectives through the function of planning, organizing and staffing, leading and controlling. In addition to being a process, the term management is also used as a label for a specific discipline, for the people who manage, and for a career choice,

**Levels of Management and Types of Managers**

*Is management the same throughout an organization? Yes and No*

*Yes*: because all managers perform the five managerial functions.

*No*: because despite the fact that they perform all managerial functions, they perform it with different emphasis and scope.

Managers all perform the same management functions but with different emphases because of their position in the organization. Although all managers may perform the same basic duties and play similar roles, the nature and scope of their activities differ. These differences are the base for the classification of managers.

Managers can be divided based on two criteria. These are:

1) Levels of management (vertical difference)

2) Scope of responsibilities (horizontal difference)

***Types of Managers based on Levels of Management***

An important determinant of a manager’s job is hierarchical level. *Levels* refer to hierarchical arrangement of managerial positions or persons in an organization. The number of managerial levels in an organization depends on the size of the organization. In most organizations, however, there are three distinct levels. How these levels are distinguished? What functions are performed at each level? And the reporting relationships are some of the issues to be addressed.

Based on levels of management or hierarchy we do have three types of managers. A manager’s assigned duties and the authority needed to fulfill those duties are what determine management level.

***Top Level Managers***

Top-level managers are managers who are at the top of the organizational hierarchy and are responsible for the entire organization. The top level management includes the board of directors and the chief executives. They are usually few in number and include the organization’s most important managers - the CEO or the president and his/her immediate subordinates usually called vice-presidents. This level determines the objectives of the Business as a whole and lays down policies to achieve these objectives (making of policy means providing guide lines for action and decision). The top management also exercises an overall control over the organization.

They are few in number because of the nature of the work they perform and economic problem. They deal with the big picture, not with the nitty-gritty. They are responsible for the overall management of the organization. They establish companywide objectives or goals & organizational policies. Furthermore, top management:

* Develop overall structure of the organization.
* Direct the organization in accordance with the environment.
* Are persons who are responsible for making decisions and formulating policies that affect all aspects of the firm’s operations.
* Provide overall leadership of the organization towards accomplishment of its objectives.
* They are responsible for the organization because objectives are established and policies are formulated at the top. Top-level managers take the credit or blame for organizational success and failures respectively.
* Represent the organization in community affairs, business deals, and government negotiations.
* Spent much of their time in planning and dealing with middle level managers and other subordinates.
* Work long hours and spend much of their time in meetings and on telephone.

**Middle Level Managers**

Middle level managers occupy a position in an organization that is above first-line management and below top management. They interpret and implement top management directives and forward messages to and from first-line management.

Middle Level Managers:

* Receive broad/overall strategies from top managers and translate it into specific objectives and plans for First-Line Mangers/operating managers.
* Are responsible for the proper implementation of policies and strategies defined by top level managers. They interpret and implement top management directives and forward messages to and from first-line management.
* Middle level managers are particularly concerned with the activities of their respective departments.
* Regardless of their title, their subordinates are managers.
* Often coordinate and supervise the activities of lower level managers.
* Their principal responsibility is to direct the activity that implement the policies of the organization.

E.g. Academic deans, Division Head, Plant managers, Army captain

**First Level Managers/Supervisory Level managers**

* Are those at the operating level or at the last level of management.
* Their subordinates are non-managers.
* Are in charge of carrying out the day-to-day activities within the various departments to ensure that short-term goals are met.
* They are responsible for overseeing and coordinating the work of operating employees.
* Assign operating employees to specific tasks.
* Are managers on which management depends for the execution of its plan since their job is to deal with employees who actually produce the organization’s goods and services to fulfill the plan.
* Are directly responsible for the production of goods and services.
* Motivate subordinates to change or improve their performance.
* Serve as a bridge between managers and non-managers.
* Spent much of their time in leading and little in planning.

 E.g. Section Heads, supervisory personnel, Sales managers, Loan officers, Foreman.

* - Are often neither fish nor fowl – neither management nor labor because they feel great deal of empathy for their subordinates (which stems from close personal contact and the fact that most supervisors have come up from the ranks of labor) and they are there to reflect the company’s point of view to their subordinates. And that is why First-Line Mangers are called “People in the Middle”.

All managers carry out managerial functions. However, the time spent for each function varies according to their managerial hierarchy. Top-level managers spend more time on planning and organizing than lower-level managers. Leading, on the other hand, takes a great deal of time for first-line managers. The difference in time spent on staffing and controlling varies only slightly for managers at various levels.

Managers who supervise operatives are referred to as first level managers, first – line managers, or supervisors. The largest number of people is at the bottom organizational level.

**Top level management**

**First level management**

**Individual contributors**

**(Operatives and specialists)**

**Middle level management**

**Figure 1: Levels of Management**

Note: Many job titles can be found at each levels of management

**Types of Managers based on scope of responsibility**

Based on the scope of responsibility/activities they manage, managers are divided into two:

**Functional Managers**

Functional managers are managers who are responsible for a department that performs a single functional task and has employees with similar training and skills. Supervise employees (managers + workers) with specialized skills in specific areas of operations such as accounting, payroll, finance, marketing, production, or sales etc. They are responsible for only one organizational activity; i.e. their responsibility is limited to their specialization/specification.

**General Managers**

General Managers are managers who are responsible for several departments that perform different functions. They are responsible for the entire operations of the organization without being specific.

Oversee a complex unit, such as a company, a subsidiary, or an independent operating division. S/he will be responsible for all activities of that unit, such as its production, marketing, sales and finance.

**Resources used by Managers**

Managers use resources to accomplish their purposes, just as a carpenter uses resources to build a terrace. A manager’s resource can be divided into four types: Human, Financial, Physical and Informational.

* **Human Resources**: - are the people needed to get the job done. Manager’s goals influence which employees they choose.
* **Financial Resources**: - are the money the manager and the organization use to reach organizational goals. The financial resources of a business organization are profits and investments from stockholders for community agencies from tax revenue, charitable contributions, and government grants.
* **Physical resources**:- are a firms’ tangible goods and real-estate, including raw materials, office space, production facilities, office equipment, and vehicles.
* **Informational resources**:- are the data that the manager and the organization use to get the job done. For example, to supply leads to the firm’s sales representatives, the sales manager of an office supply company reads local business newspapers and internet postings to learn about new firms in town.

**Functions of management**

Regardless of the type of firm and the organizational level, all managers perform certain basic functions. These managerial functions are Planning, organizing, staffing, directing/leading/ and controlling.

**Planning**

Planning is deciding in advance what is to be done, when it is to be done, how it is to be done and why it is to be done. It emphasizes the fact that if one knows where he is going; he is more likely to get there. Planning involves (i) problem-solving and (ii) decision-making. Whenever there is a problem, the manager should know what alternatives are there to solve it. Out of the alternative courses of action he has to choose the most suitable one. This process of making choice is known as decision making. Planning requires decisions to be made on what should be done, how it should be done, who will do it, where it will be done, and why it is to be done. The essential part of the planning consists of setting goals and programmers of activities.

Planning bridges the gap between where we are to where we want to be in a desired future. Planning identifies goals and alternatives. It maps out courses of action that will commit individuals, departments and the entire organization for days, months and years to come. Planning is the first managerial function that all managers engaged in because it lays the groundwork for other managerial functions. Even other managerial functions have to be planned.

 ***Organizing:*** is concerned with assembling the resources necessary to achieve organizations’ objectives and establishing the activity authority relationship.

It is the management function that focuses on allocating and arranging human and non-human resources so that plans can be carried out successfully. Resources are allocated on the basis of major company goals.

Planning has established the goals of the company and how they are to be achieved; organizing develops the structure to reach these goals.

It is through organizing function that managers determine which tasks are to be done, how tasks can best be combined into specific jobs, and how jobs can be grouped into various units that make up the structure of the organization. It involves creating job positions with assigned duties and responsibilities, arranging positions into hierarchy by establishing authority–reporting relationship, determining the number of subordinates each manger should supervise, determining the number of hierarchical levels etc and thereby create an organization. Organizing is not done once and then forgotten. As the objectives of the company change, they will influence the structure of managerial and organizational relationship.

***Staffing:*** As it has been pointed out, organizing involves creating job positions with assigned duties and responsibilities. Staffing involves filling and keeping filled the positions in the organization structure. It is concerned with locating prospective employees to fill the jobs created by the organizing process. It basically deals with inventorying the people available, announcing vacancies, accepting, identifying the potential candidates for the job, recruiting, selecting, placing, orienting, training and promoting both candidates and existing employees.

Staffing is concerned with human resource of the organization.

***Directing/leading:*** has been termed as motivating, influencing, guiding, stimulating, actuating or directing. It is aimed at getting the members of an organization move in the direction that will achieve its objectives.

The directing function of management includes guiding the subordinates, supervising their performance, communicating information and motivating. A manager should be a good leader. leading/leadership is the heart and soul of management. It involves influencing others to engage in the work behavior necessary to reach organizational goals; i.e., it is influencing people so that they will contribute to organization and group goals; it has to do predominantly with the human/interpersonal aspect of management.

Leading includes communicating with others, helping to outline a vision of what can be accomplished, providing direction, and motivating organization members to put forth the substantial effort required.

***Controlling:*** is the measuring and correcting of activities of subordinates to ensure that events conform to plans. It deals with establishing standards, measuring performances against established standards and dealing with deviations from established standards.

Controlling is the process through which mangers assure that actual activities conform to planned activities. It is checking current performances against predetermined standards contained in the plan. Control activities generally relate to the measurement of achievement.

**Managerial Roles currently emphasized**

Managerial work has shifted substantially away from the controller and director role to that of motivator and coach, facilitator, and supporter. As reflected in the position of team leader, many mangers today deemphasize formal authority and rank. Instead, they work as partners with team members to jointly achieve results. Managers today emphasize horizontal relationships and deemphasize vertical (top–down) relationships. We encourage you not to think that traditional (old) managers are evil, while new managers are good.

**Five key managerial skills**

Whatever the level of management, a manager needs a combination of the following five skills:

**Technical skill**

Technical skill involves an understanding of and proficiency in a specific activity that involves methods, processes, procedures, or techniques. Technical skills include the ability to prepare a budget, layout a production schedule, prepared a spread sheet analysis, upload information onto a social net work site, and demonstrate a piece of electronic equipment. Intricate knowledge of the business such as developing a marketing campaign for a product can also be regarded as a technical skill. Technical skills are frequently referred to as hard skills. A well developed technical skill can facilitate the rise into management. For example, Bill Gates of Microsoft Corp. launched his career by being a competent programmer.

**Interpersonal skill**

 Interpersonal (or human relations) skill is a manager’s ability to work effectively as a team member and to build cooperative effort in the unit. Communication skills are an important component of interpersonal skills. They form the basis for sending and receiving messages on the job. Although interpersonal skills are often referred to as soft skills, it does not mean these skills are easy to learn or insignificant, interpersonal skills are more important than technical skills in getting to the top and providing leadership to people. Many managers at all levels ultimately fail because their interpersonal skills do not much the demands of the job. For example, some managers intimidate, bully, and swear at group members. In the process, they develop such a poor reputation that it may lead to their being replaced. Have you ever worked for a manager who was to rude and insensitive that he or she damaged morale and productivity?

Another important subject of interpersonal skills for mangers is multiculturalism, the ability to work effectively and conduct business with people from different cultures. Closely related is the important asset in today’s global and multicultural work environment.

**Conceptual skill**

Conceptual skill is the ability to see the organization as a total entity. It includes recognizing how the various units of the organization depend on one another and how changes in any one part affect all the others. It also includes visualizing the relationship of the individual business to the industry, the community, and the political, social, and economic forces of the nation as a whole. For top level management, conceptual skill is a priority because executive managers have the most contact with the outside world.

The famous management thinker Peter Drucker emphasized that the only comparative advantage of the developed counties in the number of knowledge workers (People who work primarily with concepts). Educated workers in underdeveloped countries are just as smart as those in developed countries, but their numbers are smaller. According to Drucker and many other authors, the need for knowledge workers and conceptual knowledge will continue to grow.

**Diagnostic skill**

Managers are frequently called on to investigate a problem and then to decide on and implement a remedy. Diagnostic skill often requires other skills, because managers must use technical, human, conceptual, or political skills to solve the problems they diagnose. Much of the potential excitement in a manager’s job centers on getting to the root of problems and recommending solutions. An office supervisor, for example, might attempt to understand why productivity has not increased in his office despite the installation of the latest office technology.

**Political Skill**

An important part of being effective is the ability to obtain power and prevent others them taking it away. Managers use political skills to acquire the power necessary to reach objectives. Other political skills, includes establishing the right connections and impressing the right people. Furthermore, managers high in political skill possess an astute understanding of people, along with a fundamental belief that they can control the outcomes of their interactions with people. This feeling of mastery often reduces the stress associated with interacting with people.

Political skill should be regarded as a supplement to job competence and the other basic skill. Managers who over emphasis political skill at the expense of doing work of substance focus too much on pleasing company insiders and advancing their own careers. Too much time invested in office politics takes time away from dealing with customer problems and improving productivity. Experience is obviously important in developing management skills. Yet experience is likely to be more valuable if it is enhanced with education.

A key reason for continuing to develop managerial skills is that the manager’s job is more demanding than ever, and the work place keeps changing. A manager is likely to work in and intense, pressure – filled environment requiring many skills. Companies forced to keep up with competition are driving the demand for managers with updated skills. Rapid changes, such as the need for e-commerce and a social networking presence, require managers to continually develop new skills.

**Group assignment**

Group one: classical school of management

Group two: behavioral school of management

Group three: modern management theory

Group four: scientific approach to management

Group five: bureaucratic management

**CHAPTER TWO**

**News Room Management**

**Communication in the Newsroom**

Communication is the vital link that influences both individual motivation and group behavior in the newsroom. Timely, precise, accurate, complete information affects the quality of decisions that editors must make and the quality of work the staff produces. However, in every newsroom, one – on –one relationship, there are natural barriers to communication. The editor’s understanding of effective skills and strategies for overcoming communication barriers is an essential part of his or her management responsibility.

Communication as if works in the news room has two dimensions: communications between individuals, and organizational communication that flows up or down through the various levels of authority.

**Interpersonal Communication**

Communication in the news room takes place in a variety of ways: meetings, memos, conversation in the hallway, one-on-one discussions at the city desk, telephone calls, bulletin –board, postings, talking shop over lunch or after work-all are part of the communications mix in the newsroom. Research shows that managers spend about 80percent of their time in oral communication with others more often listening than talking. Managers prefer oral communication because it is an “action” medium and because it provides current information and immediate feedback.

Interpersonal communication, in whatever manner, serves four basic purposes: (1) To influence others, (2) to express feelings and emotions’ (3) to provide, receive or exchange information and (4) to reinforce the formal structure of the organization, such as using formal channels of communication.

**Barriers to Good communication**

Barriers to communication can be explained by physical, personal and semantic reasons. Physical barriers, typically, are noise or distance personal barriers are of a psychological origin own back grounds, prejudices, and experiences can hinder listening efforts. Semantic barriers result when we give different meanings to the same words. Communication problems often are only symptoms of other difficulties among people and groups in an organization. Following are some barriers to communication that can be especially troublesome to editors:

* **Interpretation**: the tendency to evaluate what someone has said is the greatest barrier to effective communication because evaluation leads to defensiveness. Perception is not based on logic but experience.
* **Defensiveness**: is a natural reaction to negative messages, yet we don’t often think how defensiveness affects communication. Two editors attempting to defend their own actions will not communicate very well because neither will be listening to the other.
* **Distortion**: messages get altered as they are passed along communication channels. It occurs when imprecise language is used, when information is misinterpreted, when social or status barriers exist, when information is condensed, or when the sender and receiver use different frames of reference.
* **Omission**: as a message is transmitted, one or more parts may be left out.
* **Distance**: physical barriers are necessary in most newsrooms, but they can prevent good communication. The managing editor who hits in the middle of the newsroom is easier to talk to than the one who stays in his or her office.
* **Too much information**: editors can get overloaded with information if their subordinates fail to screen the amount of material presented to them.
* **Stereotyping the tendency to categorize people:** good, bad, union – non union, loyal-disruptive, self-starter – lazy- affects how we evaluate their messages. Editors who stereotype individuals will evaluate what they say based on these artificial classifications rather than the substance of the message.
* **Emotion:** good communication rarely occurs in the heat of an argument. A rigorous disagreement may be a healthy and hones outlet of feelings, but after a cooling off period, and attempt should be made to resolve the issue rationally.

**Improving Listening skill**

Listening is a powerful management tools, unfortunately, few people truly understand the importance of listening. As communicators, editors may be so intent on the effectiveness of their speech and the persuasiveness of their delivery that they fail to listen effectively.

The editor who is a good listener gathers valuable information, learns about coworkers, and strengthens his or her ability to motivate staffers or influence colleagues. Editors who develop good listening skills can also be effective counselors and mentors. Their willingness to listen sensitively to expressions of fear and anxiety can help a staffer as a person while building a strong bond with him or her as an employee. Listening is especially important to the success of a performance review in which the editor has an opportunity to counsel and motivate.

**Organizational Communication**

Organizational communication is the flow of messages within a network of interdependent relationships. It has increasingly focused on the level of communication (group, organizational and inter-organizational communication).

**Types of organizational communication**

Based on the following three parameters, we can divide the types of communication as follows.

1. according to organizational structure
2. According to direction
3. According to expression

According to the organizational structure, the communication can be formal or informal.

Formal communication is highly associated with the formal organizational structure and the official status or the position of the communicator and the receiver. Here communication travels through the formal channels which are officially recognized positions in the organization charts. It is a deliberate attempt to regulate the flow of communication so as to ensure that information flows smoothly, accurately and timely.

Formal communication can be seen under the following ways:

A, departmental meetings B, conferences C, telephone calls D, company news bulletins E, special interviews and special purpose publications and messages

Informal communication is free from all sorts of formalities because it is used on informal relationships between the parties, such as friendship, membership in the same club or association. Persons at the executive levels also use informal communication when they find it difficult to collect information from the workers. Such communication includes comments, suggestion and other informal ways of communication.

According to direction also communication can be vertical or horizontal. **Vertical communication** occurs between hierarchically positioned persons and can involve both downward and upward communication flows. Downward is more prevalent than upward communication. **Downward** is most effective if top managers communicate directly with immediate supervisors, and immediate supervisors communicate with their staff (the rest employees).

Downward communication is best when:

1. Top managers should communicate directly with immediate supervisors;
2. Immediate supervisors should communicate with their direct reports; and
3. Top managers should follow-up by communicating with employees directly.

N.B. To be effective in downward communication, you should communicate orally, and then follow up in writing.

**Upward communication**: from employees to top-managers:

* Employee surveys,
* Suggestion programs,
* Employee grievance programs,
* Employee participation programs (team meetings)

**Horizontal communication**: it involves communication among persons who do not stand in hierarchical relation to one another. Eg. Across managers of dissimilar functional divisions, workers in different functional areas. This kinds of communication also known as lateral communication.

According to expression communication can be either written or oral.

The primary functions of organizational communication are:

* Compliance – gaining,
* Leading, motivating, and influencing,
* Sense-making,
* Problem-solving and decision-making,
* Conflict management, negotiating, and bargaining.

We can categorize and bring these functions into three basic functions of communication in organization settings. These are:

1. **Command function:** to issue, receive, interpret and act on commands. Giving direction and feedback, and coordination among the interdependent units of the organization are good example of command function of communication.
2. **Relational function:** to create and maintain productive business it is important to build personal relationships with others who work for the organization.
3. **Ambiguity – Management function:** it is known that communication is the means for copying with and reducing the ambiguity inherent in the organization.

**Communication channels from staff to management**

 If the editor is using the communication skills described in the above discussion, the remaining link in a sound news room environment is to open channels from the staff to the management. This cannot be left to chance. It will not happen on its own. The editor has to use the process if employees think their ideas are valued and the editors’ care about their feelings and attitudes, a more, positive organizational climate will result.

**Meetings**

John Dougherly, a managing editor of the times-union understands that meetings are necessary, but they also tend to waste time unless the leader imposed discipline on the group.

In every newspaper organization (or a given medium), people come together in small groups for a variety of purposes. Some of the meetings, such as the daily news conference, have been long established and serve a practical purpose. Others are for solving problems or planning projects. Still others may seem to serve no purpose at all.

There are at least six functions that meetings can perform better than any other communication device.

1. A meeting defines the team, the group, the unit
2. A meeting is the place where the group revises, update and adds to what it knows as a group.
3. A meeting helps every individual understand both the collective aim of the group and the way in which each member of the group can contribute to the group’s success.
4. A meeting creates for its member a commitment to the decisions it makes and the goals it pursues.
5. A meeting is very often the only occasion where the team or group actually exists and works as a group.
6. A meeting is statuses are a time when members get the chance to find out their relative standing in the group.

In conducting a meeting, the editor has several responsibilities dealing with both the subject and the people:

* Start on time
* Control the talker
* Draw out the silent
* Protect the weak
* Encourage the clash of ideas
* Watch for the suggestion quashing reflex
* Come to the senior people last
* Close on a note of achievement

**Net works**

Networks are people talking to each other, sharing ideas, information, and resources – a communication system that creates linkages between people. Networks can provide four types of support for individuals and they are important in moderating the effects of stress on the job:

1. **Emotional support:** the sharing of feelings, trust, esteem, and concern may be the most important source of support in helping individuals handles stressful situations at work.
2. **Appraisal support:** feedback and affirmation are important to success on the job, and networks can be a source of this kind of support
3. **Information support:** information is casually exchanged among coworkers.
4. **Instrumental support:** to the extent that reciprocity is available, the individuals in a network are more likely to feel comfortable asking for help, knowing that they will have opportunities to offer support in return.

**Managing conflict in the News room**

 Conflict in the news room is inevitable. It is natural for editors and their subordinates to disagree on issues, goals, and perception. Conflict cans rise between the individual and the newspaper, between or among individuals, between groups and individuals, or between groups and the news paper company. Yet conflict in itself is neither good nor bad; it is the consequences that can be damaging if conflict is poorly managed or is allowed to continue. If editors learn to manage conflict, the attainment of individual and organizational goals is more likely. The starting points in this process are understanding why conflict occurs and developing effective strategies for managing it.

As editor’s philosophy about conflict will influence how he or she deals with conflict situations.

One approach is known as the traditional view of conflict. The editor who takes this view uses conflict unnecessary and harmful to the newsroom. This editor fears conflict and tries to avoid it or eliminate all evidence of it. When conflict occurs the editor think he or she has failed because the conflict was not prevented.

A second attitude is a behavioral view of conflict. The editor recognizes that conflict is common because of the nature of people and organizational life and because of the competition for resources. This editor expects conflict, but anticipates that the conflict will be harmful, although he or she recognizes that occasionally conflict turns out to be positive.

A current philosophy, the interactions view of conflict, considers conflict to be inevitable and even necessary in organizations. An interactions editor sees the challenge as managing conflict so that the outcome is positive.

**The Sources of conflict**

Seven specific sources of conflicts typically are present in the news room.

Share resource: A limited resource may be a source of conflict.

Goals: Individuals may have goals that are different from those of the news paper.

Perceptions and value: Individuals value systems and perceptions may differ leading to conflict

Role requirements: Role conflict can occur at every level of the organization

Nature of the work: Inequity is work leads or in rewards can be a source of conflict

Individual style: People have different styles and approaches to deal with work and with other people

Ambiguity: Uncertainly over responsibility is a certain cause of conflict.

**Conflict and individuals**

Conflict can produce a variety of emotions, such as anxiety, fear, and anger. When there esteems to be no satisfactory way to reduce those feelings, we rely on our defense mechanisms. The concept of self-image is at the heart of our defense mechanisms. When conflict threatens self-image, there are at least two ways to dissipate the threat. First, we can change the self image so that it moves into harmony with whatever is causing the difficulty. The second way of dealing with a threat to self-image is to be defensive. This occurs when the reporter denies that an error was made or attempts to reject or distort the editor’s criticism. Such distortion may be conscious or unconscious. In this way, the reporter maintains the integrity of self –image.

**Strategies for resolving conflict**

 Approaches to resolving conflict that have not proven to be effective include no action-do nothing, ignore the problem, and may be it will go away, or the editor may acknowledge the problem and say that it is “ Under study” or that “ make information is needed”. Another ineffective strategy is to set up a complicated process for resolving conflict. Here, due process is intended to be long and complicated, a tactic to wear down a dissatisfied employee. Editors also attempt to reduce conflict through secrecy, the logic being that controversial issues decided in secret can be carried out with a minimum of resistance. This “what they don’t –know-won’t – hurt – them” strategy.

 Each of the above strategies is ineffective at solving conflict. The cong-term effect of each is to initiate or increase distrust of management.

1. Problem solving: Editors attempt to identify the nature of the problem consider alternatives, and select the most appropriate option. This works when the problem can be looked at objectively and when there is a willingness to cooperate in working out a solution.
2. Persuasion: With this technique, one party attempts to continue another to change its mind or to agree to cooperate with proposed solution. Personality is thought to have a close link with an individual’s persuasive powers.
3. Politics: A manger brings politics into play by attempting to accumulate enough power to control a decision. This is often done through building coalitions-pulling together individuals or small groups that support the manager’s position and increase his or her ability to influence a decision.
4. Bargaining: Negotiation is conferring with another to arrive at a settlement. Conferring- which suggests openness, objectivity, respect is the key to creating the right attitude about bargaining. Bargaining is effective where both parties have something to offer and are willing to give and take. It focuses on arriving at a solution that offers something to all parties in the conflict.

**THE NEW EDITOR’S GUIDE TO NEWSROOM MANAGEMENT**

### BE FRIENDLY, NOT FRIENDS

It’s important for you to have a strong working relationship with all members of your newsroom staff. This means you are equally friendly with everyone in a professional way that creates a strong team environment. It doesn’t mean that you have to be friends with everyone or anyone in your newsroom. If you are friends with some staffers, which certainly makes work more fun, don’t let those friendships taint your relationships with others.

### AVOID OFFICE POLITICS/GOSSIP

There will be people in your newsroom who are just cynical, for one reason or another. Don’t allow them alter your views. Form your own opinions about the workplace without being jaded by people who just want to complain.

Also, avoid gossiping about or among coworkers. These results in cliques being formed may make employees wonder what you’re saying about them behind their backs and just makes you look unprofessional.

### LEARN FIRST

Don’t come in on the first day and immediately start making big announcements, decisions and changes. Instead, give yourself time to learn from others within your newsroom and really listen to their wants, needs and wishes before you start changing things up.

Retain this concept of learning first throughout your time as a manager. Ask employees what they think, really listen to their answers and determine how/if you can help. Learn from your staff.

### TAKE OWNERSHIP

While you need to learn first, newsrooms are fast-paced places. Don’t be afraid to take on your leadership role quickly and start making informed decisions. Take ownership of your role as an editor. It means you have the knowledge and ability to manage others.

### ASK FOR HELP

I frequently am surprised by student journalists who say they “think they should know” things they don’t. Never be afraid to ask for help. If you knew everything there was to know about working in a newsroom, you wouldn’t still be a student or a staffer; you’d be running the joint. Asking for help is not a sign of weakness. It shows you are intelligent enough to understand your limitations.

### DON’T BOSS

People don’t like being told what to do. They like to be directed and inspired. Do not assume that being a manager means you bark orders and everyone does exactly what you want them to do. This management style will result in distrust, unhappiness and an empty newsroom. Instead, earn your team’s respect by listening to their ideas, engaging in discussions about the best ways to do work and communicating openly to help your team embrace your goals.

### BE ORGANIZED

No one wants to work for a scatter brain. Create an organization system that works for you and stick with it. Always be on time and prepared. Set the tone for your staff.

Of course, we all have our days. If you find yourself showing signs of disorganization, take a few minutes to regroup.

### DON’T OVER PROMISE

I know you want to help your staff, but be wary of promising things you can’t actually do. If you make promises you can’t fulfill, it will make your staff feel like they can’t trust you or that you’re lying to them.

If you’re uncertain about whether you can make something happen, say so. Tell the staffers you’ll check into their need, then actually do some research and get back with them. If you can accomplish the task, great. If not, explain to the staffer why it can’t happen or can’t happen at this time. It might be difficult to do, but this will build your staff’s trust and respect.

If you know you can make something happen, but don’t think it’s best for the staff or your publications, explain why and listen to counterpoints from your staff.

If you know you can make something happen and you think it’s a good idea, go ahead and do it.

### DELEGATE

The fastest way to burn out in any management role is to try to do it all. You cannot function as a team of one. You must learn to hire well, delegate to those with the knowledge and skills to do the work, then step back and let them do it. Your staff, products and audience all suffer when you try to do everything. Oh, and you suffer too because you’ll be miserable and hate your job, having set yourself up for failure.

### LEARN PRODUCTIVITY

I don’t know a single person who doesn’t struggle with productivity. Even the most productive people wish they could do more. The truth is that we all have the same 24 hours in a day. Learn how to make those hours as productive as they can be for you. Being in a management role is a wonderful opportunity for you. Get as much out of it as you can and leave a positive legacy for future staffs.

### CUT EXCUSES

Excuses are one of my biggest pet peeves as a supervisor. We can always find a reason why we can’t do something or why a mistake was unavoidable. Excuses undermine your credibility and make you look weak and lazy.

It’s ok to explain processes or ways of thinking, but don’t try to shuck responsibility. As I tell my student editors, shit rolls up hill when you reach the top. You’re ultimately responsible for whatever happens in your newsroom. That’s what being the boss is about.

### SHIP IT

This is a management trait I have to work at myself. It’s easy to get bogged down in all of the details of a task or by trying to make things perfect. Instead, do the best you can on a project or task in the time you have, then ship it! If you wait for perfection, you’ll never get anything accomplished. Focus on completing the task to a level you can be proud of, knowing there’s always room for improvement or expansion later.

### COMMUNICATE VISION

Why do you do the things you do? Be able to articulate your organization’s vision and communicate it frequently with your staff. Once you help them buy in to your organization’s mission, they will become focused on helping you meet your mutual goals.

### KNOW YOUR EMPLOYEES

Knowing your employees is not just about relationships. It’s also about situational leadership, which means figuring out how to manage each of your employees individually in a way that’s best for him/her. Using situational leadership is the best way to become a great leader who employees respect and remember fondly. Start studying up on this concept today.

### HAVE DIFFICULT CONVERSATIONS

No one likes having difficult conversations like those about poor employee performance, missed deadlines or conflicts in the newsroom, but addressing these issues in a timely, calm and respectful way is part of what makes managers leaders and helps organizations function at their best. The quickest way to lose the respect of your best employees is to avoid addressing issues.

### BE FLEXIBLE

One of the great things about working in a newsroom is having flexibility in your schedule. As long as your staffers meet their deadlines, don’t put a lot of rules on when they are physically in the newsroom. Require them to be there only when they’re actually working. Show that you are respectful of their time. As a manager, you likely will spend more time in the newsroom than most other staffers. That’s ok. Just because you’re there doesn’t mean they have to be.

### GIVE FEEDBACK

Everyone loves to know how they’re doing. Give staffers specific feedback on things they’re doing well. Praise them in front of others. Avoid correcting staffers in front of others. Instead, give them constructive advice in private.

### BE HAPPY

I know this sounds cliché, but you have to love what you do to do it well. Unhappy managers breed unhappy staffs and create poor products. If you hate being a manager, don’t be one. You always have a choice. But do not get trapped in a management role and make everyone around you miserable. You set the tone (whether you realize it or not) in your organization. Make it a positive one.

### DO GREAT WORK

You do not have to do every job your staff does (in fact, you shouldn’t), but you must be able to perform every role in your newsroom well.

Also, not only should you be a great manager, you should do great work yourself. Write big stories (but don’t save them all for yourself), create strong training programs, organize important projects… lead your staff by example by doing great work yourself.

### FIND YOUR SAFE PLACE

Managers need help too. Find a person (perhaps your adviser) to mentor you through the management process. Go to him or her for advice and discussion, but remember that it still is a professional relationship. Don’t gripe to your mentor about your job or gossip about others. Find a friend or partner outside of the newsroom who you can “vent” to.

### UNDERSTAND THE LIFESTYLE

Being a journalist is a lifestyle, not just a job. If you’re in a newsroom management position, you already know that. However, being a manager is even more so. You don’t get to stop being a manager. It is a change in the way you think and behave, always. Make yourself available to your team. Set the standard of how you want them to treat each other and their future employees.

### WORK ON IT

Your real goal during your time as a manager is to work toward becoming a leader. You cannot name yourself a leader and make it so. Leader is a title others give you after you’ve earned it. Learning to be a better leader doesn’t stop. It’s something I work on every day. Some days I’m good at it. Others, I need improvement, but the payoff for being a strong leader truly is a happier, more fulfilled life.

**CHAPTER THREE**

**Schools of management**

Most commonly there are three major schools of management thoughts. These are: the classical management, behavioral management and the modern management schools. Under each of the above three schools of management, there are approaches to management as well.

Under the umbrella of classical schools to management, one can find the scientific, administrative and bureaucratic management approaches. Whereas, under the umbrella of behavioral school of management, we have the Hawthorne studies, Maslow’s theory of human needs and McGregor’s theory X and theory Y. Finally, under the modern school of management, one can find the following three major approaches to management. These are: system and Contingency thinking

**THE CLASSICAL SCHOOL**

Classical approach of management professes the body of management thought based on the belief that employees have only economical and physical needs and that the social needs & need for job satisfaction either does not exist or are unimportant. Accordingly it advocates high specialization of labor, centralized decision making & profit maximization.

Classical management thought embraces three separate but related approaches to management: (1) scientific management, (2) administrative management, and (3) bureaucratic management.

**Scientific Management** At its origin, scientific management focused on increasing employee productivity and rested on four basic principles:

• Systematic analysis of each job to find the most effective and efficient way of performing it (the “one best way”)

• Use of scientific methods to select employees best suited to do a particular job

• Appropriate employee education, training, and development

• Responsibility apportioned almost equally between managers and workers, with decision making duties falling on the managers.

 The person associated most closely with this school is Frederick W. Taylor (1856–1915), a mechanical engineer, who questioned the traditional, rule-of thumb approach to managing work and who earned the title “father of scientific management.” Taylor believed that economic incentives were the best motivators. Workers would cooperate if higher wages accompanied higher productivity, and management would be assured of higher productivity in return for paying higher wages. Not surprisingly, he was criticized for viewing people as machines. However, his contributions were significant.

**Administrative Management**

If Taylor was the father of scientific thought, the French mining and steel executive Henri Fayol (1841–1925) can lay claim to being the father of management thought. While Taylor looked at workers and ways of improving their productivity, Fayol considered the total organization with a view to making it more effective and efficient. In so doing, he developed a comprehensive theory of management and demonstrated its universal nature.

His major contributions to administrative theory came in a book, General and Industrial Management, in which he became the first person to set forth the functions of management, or, as he called them, “managerial activities”:

**Bureaucratic Management** At the same time that Taylor and Fayol were developing their thoughts, Max Weber (1864–1920), a German sociologist, was contemplating the kind of structure that would enable an organization to perform at the highest efficiency. He called the result a bureaucracy and listed several elements for its success. They included:

• Division of labor

• A clearly defined hierarchy of authority

• Selection of members on the basis of their technical qualifications

• Promotion based on seniority or achievement

• Strict and systematic discipline and control

• Separation of ownership and management

It is unfortunate that contemporary society associates the word bureaucracy with incompetence and inefficiency. While it is true that a bureaucracy can become mired in rigid rules and procedures, Weber’s ideas have proved useful to many large companies that need a rational organizational system to function effectively, and they have earned him a berth in the annals of management thought as “the father of organizational theory.” Contributors to the classical school of management concerned themselves with efforts to make employees and organizations more productive. Their work revealed several of their assumptions about the nature of human beings, among them the notion that workers are motivated chiefly by money and require a clear delineation of their job responsibilities and close supervision if work is to be accomplished satisfactorily. Such assumptions would not withstand the scrutiny of the school that followed.

**Behavioral School/Management Theory**

The behavioral management theory emerged partly because practicing managers found the classical management approach/theory didn't achieve complete production and work place harmony; because classical management theory viewed organizations from the mechanistic view point and considered workers as cogs.

Classical management theorists focused on controlling and standardizing the individual behavior, but it is difficult to standardize group or individual human behavior. Practicing managers got problems in managing organizations because subordinates and workers weren't behaving as expected by scientific/classical management theory. As a result behavioral management theory emerged opposing the ideas of classical management theory, and emphasized on human relations- a general term used to describe the ways in which managers interact with their subordinates- based on social environment of work, individual and group behavior and interpersonal relationships.

They used concepts from psychology; sociology and anthropology to assist managers understand human behavior in the work place. They focused on motivation, communication, work group formation and leadership.

**4.2 Elton Mayo and the Behavioral Schools**

Behavioral management theory was stimulated by a number of writers and theoretical movements. Among writers Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor and Elton Mayo were well-known. Of these Elton Mayo was the most prominent one. The behavioral school of management had its origins in industrial psychology and sociology. It emphasizes the interactions of people in an organization in order to understand the practice of management.

The human relation movement marked the daybreak of behavioral science theory and historically it represented a reaction to the dehumanization aspects of scientific management theory. While the former emphasized human relationships in organization, the later (task management) focused on the management of work (the task) and aimed to achieve total efficiency and work place harmony: but in actuality disorder and animus instead of agreement and friendliness continued. Despite then adoption of scientific management, management as well as labor still encountered serious problems because one seldom behaved as the other wanted to be. In short, scientific management stood far from success in accomplishing its mission of achieving a mental revolution in the minds of both the employers and the employees. Consequently, since the human problem grew as crucial as the machine problems it appeared essential to find a means that could help managers become effective in dealing with people and thereby increasing people's productivity. To this end a series of experiments were conducted in 1920s and early 1930s and these experiments pointed the way to new approach to the problem of productivity.

**The Hawthorne studies**

The Hawthorne studies (1924-1932) had their roots in the logic of scientific management. The initial purpose of these experiments was to study the effect of physical factors such as illumination, rest periods, length of working days, and the payment schemes up on productivity; because classical management theorists believed that physical factors are determinants of workers productivity. The studies were conducted at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric Company in Illinois, USA. The Hawthorne studies consist of four major experiments.

1. **Illumination Experiments**

The intention of this experiment was to learn if there was any correlation between intensity of light and productivity. To these effect two groups of women were taken: the experiment group - one subjected to variety in the intensity of light and the other a controlled group which was exposed to constant illumination intensity. But in the end the researchers were bewildered by their experiment since productivity not only constantly increased in both the experimental and controlled groups following the increase in the intensity of illumination in only the experimental room but also kept on ascending in both rooms though the light was diminished so that it was barely enough to see. After seeing this puzzle researchers concluded that illumination has little or no effect on productivity.

1. **Relay Assembly Test Room Experiment**

In the relay assembly test room experiment, Mayo and his associates placed two groups of six women (five assemblers and a layout operator) with an observer who was to record everything that happened and to maintain a friendly atmosphere in separate rooms. The six workers were told that the experiment was not designed to boost production but merely to study various types of working conditions so that the most suitable environment could be ascertained. They were instructed to keep working at the regular pace. Researchers allowed the groups to choose their own rest periods (were allowed to leave their work station without permission) and to have a say in other suggested changes.

A number of variables were tried: salaries, coffee breaks (rest periods), refreshments, workday and workweek, temperature, and noise. In one room job conditions were varied and in the other they were not. Output went up in both the test room and controlled room regardless of how the factors under consideration were manipulated.

However, when these changes were later terminated and original conditions reestablished, output still remained high, indicating that the change in conditions was not the only reason for the increase in output. Some investigators hypothesized that the increases were related not to the rest pauses or shorter working hours but to the improved outlook that the workers had toward their work.

Mayo and his associates concluded that such physical changes have no significant effect on productivity, and said the change in supervisory management was the major reason for the increase in productivity in the relay assembly test room study. That is, assemblers were exercising relative self-direction and control, were subjected to the observation of a single man, were allowed to talk freely among themselves and as a result close relationship was maintained and a new social environment was created. In order to gather information on this idea, the management decided to investigate employee attitudes and the factors to which they could be traced. The result was the massive interviewing program.

1. **The Massive Interviewing Program**

After the first two phases, the researchers concluded that their attempt to relate physical conditions of the job to productivity did not produce any significant results. So they postulated that the human element in the work environment apparently had a significantly greater impact on productivity than the technical and physical aspects of the job. On the basis of their extensive interview program, the researchers proposed that the work group as a whole determined the production output of individual group members by enforcing an informal norm of what a fair day's work should be.

Over 20,000 interviews were conducted in the third phase of the studies. The interviews had begun by asking employees direct questions about supervision and the work environment in general. Although the interviews made it clear that answers would be kept in strict confidence, the responses to questions were often guarded and stereotyped. The approach was therefore changed from direct to indirect questioning. The employees were free to choose their own topics. A wealth of information about employee attitudes resulted. The researchers realized that an individual's work performance, position and status in the organization were determined not by that person alone but also by the group members. Peers had an effect on individual performance. In order to study this more systematically, the research entered its fourth and final phase: The Bank Wiring Observation Room Study.

1. **The Bank Wiring Observation Room Study**

To test the premise formulated at the conclusion of the interview program, the researchers conducted a final experiment. The procedure in this part of the study was similar to that used in the relay assembly test room, except that nine males who assembled terminal banks for telephone exchanges were selected.

This experiment focused on the effect of a group piecework incentive pay. The assumption was that the workers would seek their own economic interests by maximizing their productivity and that faster workers would pressure the slower ones to improve their efficiency. However, the researchers found that pressure was actually a form of social behavior. In order to be accepted in the work group, the worker had to act in accordance with group norms and be a "rate buster" by overproducing or a "chiseler" by under producing. The group defined what constituted a day's work, and as soon as they knew that they could reach this output level, they slacked off. This process was more marked among the faster workers than the slower ones.

The researchers concluded that the work group set the fair rates for each of its members. They found no relationship between productivity and intelligence, dexterity, and other skills. They concluded that the wage incentive plan was less important in determining an individual worker's output than was group acceptance and security.

**Findings and Implications of Hawthorne**

The Hawthorne studies constituted the single most important foundation for the behavioral approach to management. The conclusions drawn from them were many and varied.

1. Physical working conditions did not seem to explain the changes that were related in productivity.
2. There are other factors other than physical factors and monetary incentives, which affect productivity. These factors are social and psychological in nature.
* **Social environment:**

 - Ability to talk to each other.

 - The right to choose their rest periods.

* The right to leave the workstation without permission.
* The right to have a say in suggested changes.
* **Psychological conditions**
* Since they were selected as a member of the study group they felt social acceptance, recognition, and social importance.

From this we can understand that human beings are social beings rather than rational, economic beings. In addition we can understand that to be successful managers should understand people along with the reward systems, machines and tools (socio-technical aspect). That is, Human aspect must match with social aspect.

1. Workers are not motivated by the bodily needs only but also by social and psychological needs.
2. A kind of managerial leadership capable of understanding individual and group behavior and that would serve them through such skills as motivation and communication is necessary.

**Hawthorne Effect**: a second finding, and probably the most widely cited, is the Hawthorne effect, which is simply the observation that when people know that they are being watched, they will act differently than when they are not aware of being observed. The Hawthorne effect refers to the possibility that individuals singled out for a study may improve their performance simply because of the added attention they receive from researchers, rather than because of any specific factor being tested in the study. Applying this concept to the increase in productivity in the relay room, many modern psychologists contend that it was not the changes in the rest pauses that led to increased output but the fact that the workers liked the new situation, in which they were considered to be of some significance. The attention given them led them to increase their output. The Hawthorne effect thus seemed to lead to the decline in reverts, but further investigation indicated that it was apparently not the only factor involved.

**4.4. Contributions and Limitations or pros and cons of Behavioral Management Theory**

**Contributions**

1. It has changed managerial thinking. Managers are now more likely to recognize the importance of people and to view workers as valuable resources than mere tools. Mayo had rediscovered Owen's century old dictum.
2. It has provided important insights into motivation, group dynamics and other interpersonal processes in organizations.

**Limitations**

1. The complexity of individual behavior makes prediction of that behavior difficult

Contemporary research findings by behavioral scientists are not often communicated to practicing managers in an understandable form.

**Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs**

This theory was proposed by Abraham Maslow and is based on the assumption that people are motivated by a series of five universal needs. These needs are ranked, according to the order in which they influence human behavior, in hierarchical fashion

• **Physiological needs** are deemed to be the lowest- level needs. These needs include the needs such as food & water.

* So as long as physiological needs are unsatisfied, they exist as a driving or motivating force in a person's life. A hungry person has a felt need. This felt need sets up both psychological and physical tensions that manifest themselves in overt behaviors directed at reducing those tensions (getting something to eat). Once the hunger is sated, the tension is reduced, and the need for food ceases to motivate. At this point (assuming that other physiological requirements are also satisfied) the next higher order need becomes the motivating need.

• **Thus, safety needs** -- the needs for shelter and security -- become the motivators of human behavior.

* **Safety needs** include a desire for security, stability, dependency, protection, freedom from fear and anxiety, and a need for structure, order, and law. In the workplace this needs translates into a need for at least a minimal degree of employment security; the knowledge that we cannot be fired on a whim and that appropriate levels of effort and productivity will ensure continued employment.

• **Social needs** include the need for belongingness and love.

* Generally, as gregarious creatures, human have a need to belong. In the workplace, this need may be satisfied by an ability to interact with one's co-workers and perhaps to be able to work collaboratively with these colleagues.

• After social needs have been satisfied, ego and esteem needs become the motivating needs.

* **Esteem needs** include the desire for self-respect, self-esteem, and the esteem of others. When focused externally, these needs also include the desire for reputation, prestige, status, fame, glory, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, and appreciation.
* The highest need in Maslow's hierarchy is that of self-actualization; the need for self-realization, continuous self-development, and the process of becoming all that a person is capable of becoming.

**McGregor’s theory X and theory Y**

In this theory the basic nature of people is divided into two attitude profiles as Theory X and Theory Y. Managers can be categorized on either of the two attitude profiles. A theory X manager or believes that the average person dislikes work and will avoid responsible labor whenever possible. These managers must respond to this attitude with controls such as punishments if employees fail to produce. They also assume that employees prefer to be directed in order to avoid responsibility. Such type of managers is based on scientific management theory.

In contrast, a theory Y manager understands motivations and interactions of individuals in the organization are crucial for the accomplishments of tasks. Such mangers believe that employees find work as enjoyable as play. They are self motivated and self directed. Because employees are committed to organizational goals, they do not need the threat of punishment to be productive. Theory Y workers neck responsibility and are creative in a solving organizational problems. However, with their contrasting attitude profiles, managers can draws on both sets of ideas depending on the situation.

**Theory X Managers assume the average worker:**

✓ Is gullible and not very bright.

 ✓ Is indifferent to the organization's needs.

✓ Dislikes work.

✓ Is motivated only by financial incentives.

✓ Must be closely supervised

**Theory Y Managers assume the average worker:**

✓ Feels work is natural.

✓ Can enjoy work.

✓ Is motivated by the desire to do a good job.

✓ Might do a better job if control is minimized.

✓ Has potential for development and advancement.

**Modern management theory**

**Traditional organizational** theories used a highly structured closed system approach. But modern theories have moved towards the open system approach. That is, the classical and neo classical approaches focused on the internal management of the organization. They didn't take into consideration the effect of the external environment on the organization and vice versa.

While the classical and behavioral approaches continue to make contributions to management, other viewpoints also have emerged. These are contemporary in the sense that they represent recent major innovations in thinking about management. Three of the most important contemporary viewpoints are the systems and contingency theories.

**Systems Theory**

The systems theory approach is based on the notion that organizations can be visualized as systems. A System is a set of interrelated parts that operate as a whole in pursuit of common goals. The systems approach to management views organizations and the environment within which they operate as sets of interrelated parts to be managed as a whole in order to achieve a common goal.

According to the systems approach, an organizational system has four major components.

1. **Inputs** - are the various human, financial, equipment and informational resources required to produce goods and services.
2. **Transformation process** - are the organization's managerial and technological abilities that are applied to convert inputs in to outputs.
3. **Outputs** - are the products, services and other outcomes produced by the organization.
4. **Feedback** - is information about results and organizational status relative to the environment. It is a key to system control.

**CONTINGENCY theory**

The classical theorists like Taylor and fayol, were attempting to identify “the one best way" for managers to operate in a variety of situations. If universal principles could be found, then becoming a good manager would essentially involve learning the principles and how to apply them. Unfortunately, things were not simple. Researchers soon found that some classical principles such as Fayol's unity of command could sometimes be violated with positive results. Consequently, contingency theory began to develop.

Contingency theory is a viewpoint that argues that appropriate managerial action depends on the particular parameters of the situation.

Hence, rather than seeking universal principles that apply to every situation, contingency theory attempts to identify contingency principles that prescribe actions to take depending on the characteristics of the situation. Contingency theory suggests that appropriate managerial behavior in a given situation depends on or is contingent on a wide variety of elements. Managerial decisions must be specific for specific situations by recognizing the uniqueness of the environment. It states, "Nothing is best for all situations."

The basic idea of contingency theory was that there is no one best way of managing. Every organization is unique, exciting in a unique environment, with unique employees and unique goals. Managerial practices and technique that are appropriate in one area might not be appropriate in another. This is because the world is too complex to be managed by a single approach in all situations.

**CHAPTER Four**

**The Structure of Media Organizations**

An organizational structure is [defined as](http://smallbusiness.chron.com/meaning-organizational-structure-3803.html) “a system used to define a hierarchy within an organization. It identifies each job, its function and where it reports to within the organization.” A structure is then developed to establish how the organization operates to execute its goals.

There are many types of organizational structures. These charts are a good way to visualize reporting relationships and team roles in businesses, nonprofit organizations, media and educational institutions, and governments. Commonly, there are four types of organizational charts. These are functional, divisional, matrix and flat organizational charts. Each of these organizational structures comes with different advantages and disadvantages and may only work for companies or organizations in certain situations or at certain points in their life cycles.

**Functional structure**

A functional, top-down organizational chart reflects a traditional business structure. This structure shows the C-Suite at the top, followed by other senior management, middle managers, and so on. The structure is divided into traditional departments like IT, marketing, finance, human resources, and operations based on everyone's functional role in the organization. In such an organizational structure, employees with similar skill sets and specialization are grouped together. However, they often suffer from lack of visibility and communication with other departments.

Also commonly called a bureaucratic organizational structure, the functional structure divides the company based on specialty. This is your traditional business with a sales department, marketing department, customer service department, etc.

The advantage of a functional structure is that individuals are dedicated to a single function. These clearly defined roles and expectations limit confusion. The downside is that it’s challenging to facilitate strong communication between different departments.



**Divisional Structure**

A divisional organizational chart reflects a company organized along a product line or specific geography. For example, in a car company the divisions may represent SUVs, sedans, and electric cars. Each division than has its own functional structure like IT and marketing.

A company will use a divisional set up like this when one division is sufficiently independent from another; however this kind of structure can also add some accounting and other overhead.

Divisional structure typically is used in larger companies that operate in a wide geographic area or that have separate smaller organizations within the umbrella group to cover different types of products or market areas. For example, the now-defunct Tecumseh Products Company was organized divisionally – with a small engine division, a compressor division, a parts division and divisions for each geographic area to handle specific needs.

The benefit of this structure is that, needs can be met more rapidly and more specifically, as each division can operate more or less independently for the other divisions in the company. However, a divisional arrangement can also be cumbersome, as communication is inhibited because employees in different divisions are not working together. Divisional structure is costly because of its size and scope. Small businesses can use a divisional structure on a smaller scale, having different offices in different parts of the city, for example, or assigning different sales teams to handle different geographic areas.



**Matrix Organizational Chart**

The third main type of organizational structure, called the matrix structure, is a hybrid of divisional and functional structure. Typically used in large multinational companies, the matrix structure allows for the benefits of functional and divisional structures to exist in one organization. This can create power struggles because most areas of the company will have a dual management – a functional manager and a product or divisional manager working at the same level and covering some of the same managerial territory.

A matrix organizational chart reflects a company where employees are divided into teams by projects or product lead by a project or product manager, but also report to a functional manager. It shows a company that operates using cross-functional groups instead of vertical silos.

A matrix organizational structure can help facilitate better, more open communication and create a flexible, dynamic work environment that can easily shift resources where they're needed, but it can also create confusion and frustration with dueling priorities and supervisors.



**Flat Organizational Chart**

A flat organization structure will show few or no levels of management between executives and all other employees. This type of structure empowers self-management and greater decision making ability for every employee. It's most often employed by smaller businesses, but it's not unheard of it even at larger companies.



# CHAPTER FIVE

# THE DECISION MAKING

## 3.1 Meaning of decision making

***What is decision making?***

Decision making is defined as a rational choice among alternatives. “If there is no option, there is no choice & no decision.” In decision making, manager is making judgments – reaching conclusion- from a list of known activities. Decision making is universal. It is the main part of all managers job. A management makes decisions constantly while performing management functions. Decision making is not a separate, isolated function of management, but the common core to other functions.

Managers at all levels are engaged in decision making and make big & small decisions daily. They make decisions while

* Planning a budget
* Organizing a work schedule
* Interviewing a prospective employee
* Watching a worker on the assembly line
* Making adjustment to projects, etc.

3.2 Rational decision making process

Decision making is a process which an important part of a manager’s job. It is necessary to find anything that can improve the quality of decision making. The effective measure is to follow conscious, rational decision making process. The decision making process are logical & simple and all are essential to the process.

Decision making process has seven (7) steps.

***Step 1. Define the problem***

*Defining the problem* is the critical step. There is a particular problem you have to solve. The accurate definition of a problem affects all steps that follow. If the problem is inaccurately defined, every step in the decision making process will be based on that incorrect point.

The good method for manager to define the problem is to focus on the problem but not on the symptoms. This is accomplished by asking the right question & developing a sound questioning process.

As to Peter Drucker, “The most common source of mistake in management decision is the emphasis on finding the *right answers rather than the right questions.”*

Finding a solution to the problem will be greatly aided by its proper identification. The consequence of not properly defining the problems is wasted time & energy.

***Step 2. Identify the limiting or critical factors***

Once the problem is defined, the manager needs to develop the limiting or critical factors of the problem. Happened cause

Limiting factors are the constraints those rule out certain alternative solutions. The common limitations are time, resources, personnel, money, facilities, and equipment. They narrow down the range of possible alternatives.

***Step 3. Develop potential alternatives***

At this point, it is necessary to look for, develop & list as many possible alternative solutions to the problem as you can. These alternatives should eliminate, correct, or neutralize the problem. Doing nothing about a problem sometimes is the proper alternative at least until the situation has been thoroughly analyzed. Occasionally, just the passing of time provides a cure. Censorship/ restriction limits the number of alternatives developed. Alternatives should be separate solutions to the problems. In developing alternatives, the goal has to be creative and wide-ranging as possible. Sources for alternatives include:

* + Experience
	+ Persons (whose opinions & judgments are respected)
	+ The practice of successful manager
	+ Group opinions through the use of task forces & committee
	+ The use of outside sources, including managers in other organizations.

***Step 4. Analyze the alternatives***

This step is to decide the relative merits and demerits of each of the alternatives. If the alternatives conflict with critical (limiting) factors, they must be automatically discarded. Depending on the type of problem, the potential solutions developed. The manager might need to make a more thorough analysis by applying specific decision making aids.

***Step5. Select the best alternative***

Here all the alternatives are listed along with their corresponding advantages and disadvantages.

To select the alternatives, you must find a solution that appears to offer *the fewest* serious disadvantages &*the most* advantages. Take care not to solve one problem & create another with your choice.

***Step 6. Implement the solution***

Managers are paid to make decisions and to get results from these decisions. A decision has to be put into effect. Everyone involved with it must know what s/he must do; how to do it; why & when.

A good alternative that half–heartedly applied by uncommitted person will often create problems. Like plans, decisions need effective implementation to yield the desired results. People must be sold on their roles & must know exactly what they must do & why. Programs, procedures, rules or policies must be thoughtfully put into effect.

***Step 7. Establish a control & evaluation system.***

This is the final stage of decision – making process. Ongoing actions need to be monitored. It should provide feedback on

* how well the decision was implemented
* what results are positive & negative , and
* What adjustments are necessary to get the results that were wanted & when the solution was chosen?

If a manager uses this decision making process, the probability for success in decision would be improved, because it provides a step–by–step roadmap for the manager to move logically through decision making.

3.3**Types**of decisions

Programmed decision and Non-Programmed decision are the two basic types of decisions that managers make. This depends on their [authority](https://iedunote.com/delegation-of-authority), responsibility, and [position in the organizational decision-making structure](https://iedunote.com/management-levels-hierarchy).

Definition, similarities, and differences of Programmed Decision and Non-Programmed Decision are explained below;

## Programmed Decision

Programmed decisions are those that are traditionally made using standard operating procedures or other well-defined methods. These are routines that deal with frequently occurring situations, such as requests for leaves of absence by employees.

In routine situations, it is usually much more desirable for managers to use programmed decision than to make a new decision for each similar situation.

In programmed decisions, managers make a real decision only once, when the program is created. Subsequently, the program itself specifies procedures to follow when similar circumstances arise.

The creation of these routines results in the formulation of rules, procedures, and policies.

Programmed decisions do not necessarily remain confined to simple issues, such as vacation policies or similar such things; they are also used to deal with very complex issues, such as the types of tests that a doctor needs to conduct before performing a major surgery on a patient with diabetes.

To summarize; **programmed decisions features** are;

* Programmed decisions made using standard operating procedures.
* Deals with frequently occurring situations. (Such as requests for leaves of absence by employees)
* Much more appropriate for managers to use programmed decision for similar and frequent situations.
* In programmed decisions managers make a real decision only once and program itself specifies procedures to follow when similar circumstances arise.
* Leads to the formulation of rules, procedures, and policies.

## Non-Programmed Decision

Non-programmed decisions are unique. They are often ill-structured, one-shot decisions. Traditionally they have been handled by techniques such as judgment, intuition, and creativity.

More recently [decision-makers](https://iedunote.com/decision-making-3-conditions) have turned to heuristic problem-solving approaches in which logic; common sense and trial and error are used to deal with problems that are too large or too complex to be solved through quantitative or computerized approaches.

In fact, many management training programs on decision-making are designed to help managers think through problems using a logical, non-programmed approach.

In this way, they learn how to deal with extraordinary, unexpected, and unique problems.

**Non-programmed decision features** are;

* Situations for Non-programmed decisions are unique, ill-structured.
* Non-programmed decisions are one-shot decisions.
* Handled by techniques such as judgment, intuition, and creativity.
* A logical approach to deal with extraordinary, unexpected, and unique problems.
* Managers take heuristic problem-solving approaches in which logic; common sense and trial and error are used.

## Similarities of Programmed Decision & Non-Programmed Decision

* Both are required to run operations of Business efficiently.
* Complements each other in [setting goals](https://iedunote.com/organizational-goals) and managing resources of the organization.

## Differences of Programmed Decision & Non-Programmed Decision

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Programmed Decision | Non-Programmed Decision |
| Used for frequent situations of the organization; both internal and external. | Used for unique and ill-structured situations of the organization; both internal and external. |
| Mostly Lower level managers are making these decisions. | Mostly Upper-level managers are making these decisions. |
| Follows structured and non-creative patterns. | Takes an outside of the box unstructured, logical and creative approach. |

Programmed decisions usually relate to structured problems while non-programmed decisions are taken to solve unstructured problems.

It is also to be noted that the programmed decisions are taken at the lowest level whereas the non-programmed decisions are taken at the highest level of the organization hierarchy.

***Types of decisions & level of management***

The nature of the problem how frequently it occurs, and the degree of certainty surrounding it should dictate at what level of management the decision should be taken/ made.

Problems that ***arise infrequently***& having a great deal of uncertainty surrounding them are often strategic in nature and should be the concern of top management. Problems that ***arise frequently***& have fairly certain outcomes should be the concern of lower level management. Middle managers in most organizations *concentrate on programmed decisions.*

**3.4 Decision making environment/conditions**

As there are different kinds of decisions, there are also different conditions in which decisions must be made. The manager must be aware of the environment in which s/he makes decisions. Decision making like other management functions doesn’t take place in vacuum. There are factors in the environment that affect *theprocess & the decision maker.* In some situations one manager can have *perfect knowledge/ understanding* of what to do & what the consequence of the action will be; where as in others has *no such knowledge or have few clues.*

Decisions are made under the conditions of certainty, risk & uncertainty. These different decision making environments/ circumstances require different responses from a manager.

1. ***Decision making under conditions of certainty***

This situation means the manager has what is known as *perfect knowledge*, i.e. the manager had had this decision before; the alternatives are known; and the consequences of each alternative are fully understood. It can mean a manager can rely on standing plans; the decisions will be made routinely.

1. ***Decision making under conditions of risk***

This situation provides a more difficult decision making environment than the certainty situation. In this situation, the manager knows what the problem is; what the alternative are; but doesn’t know how each alternative will work out even though s/he knows the odds (probabilities) of possible outcomes. The manager is faced *with dilemma of choosing* the best alternative available.

1. ***decision making under conditions of uncertainty***

This is the most difficult situation for managers. It is like being a pioneer/ breaking new ground. In this situation, the manager is not able to determine the exact odds (probabilities) of the potential alternatives available. S/he may be dealing with too many variables, or perhaps there are too many unknown facts. The management is unable to accurately predict the probable results of choosing anyone of the alternatives. Reliance on experience, judgment & other people’s experience can assist the manager in assessing the value of the alternatives.