Organization and Management

Study Material for Students

CAREER OPPORTUNITIES IN MEDIA WORLD

Mass communication and Journalism is institutionalized and source specific. It functions through well-organized professionals and has an ever increasing interlace. Mass media has a global availability and it has converted the whole world in to a global village. A qualified journalism professional can take up a job of educating, entertaining, informing, persuading, interpreting, and guiding. Working in print media offers the opportunities to be a news reporter, news presenter, an editor, a feature writer, a photojournalist, etc. Electronic media offers great opportunities of being a news reporter, news editor, newsreader, programme host, interviewer, cameraman, producer, director, etc.

Other titles of Mass Communication and Journalism professionals are script writer, production assistant, technical director, floor manager, lighting director, scenic director, coordinator, creative director, advertiser, media planner, media consultant, public relation officer, counselor, front office executive, event manager and others.

INTRODUCTION

The book will cover all aspects of management of an organization. The book will deal in media organization in particular like the nature, forms, functions and role of media organizations. Students of mass communication will also learn the significance of Human Resource Planning and processes relating to it. The book will also cover the foundation of behaviors. In later sections, the book will cover the steps involved in establishing a media organization.

SYLLABUS

Organization and Management

1. **Media organization**: Meaning, Nature, Forms, Structure and Functions; Role and Importance of Media Organizations.

2. **Management**: Definition, Nature and Management Functions; Planning – Definition, Process and Importance; Organizational Structure and Design – Responsibility, Authority and Accountability; Span of Control; Centralization and Decentralization.

3. **Human Resource Planning & Process:** Recruitment, Selection, Orientation, Training and Career Development

4. **Foundations of Behavior:** Attitudes, Personality, and Learning; Leadership – Importance and major types; Contemporary Issues in Leadership – empowerment, gender leadership, leadership style across and culture; Motivating employees.

5. **Control Tools and Techniques:** Financial, Operational and Behavioral Controls.

6. **Establishing a Media Organization:** Steps involved, Process, Importance of Entrepreneurship and Sources of Finance.

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ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

OBJECTIVES

- To learn the Meaning, Structure; Role and Importance of Media Organizations
- To know all about management of an organization
- To learn the processes of Human Resource Management
- To know the steps involved in establishing a media organization
- To learn about foundations of behaviors
- To know Financial, Operational and Behavioral Controls

MANAGEMENT

1.1. Meaning of Management

2: Organization and Management

Management comprises planning, organizing, leading or directing and controlling an organization a group of one or more people or entiti es for the purpose of coordinating and harmonizing them towards accomplishing a goal. Management often encompasses the deployment and manipulation of human resources, financial resources, technological resources, and natural resources. Management can also refer to the person or people who perform the acts of management.

Management is the process of guiding the development, maintenance, and allocation of resources to attain organizational goals. Managers are the people in the organization responsible for developing and carrying out this management process. Management is dynamic by nature and evolves to meet needs and constraints in the organization's internal and external environments. In a global marketplace where the rate of change is rapidly increasing, flexibility and adaptability are crucial to the managerial process. This process is based in for key functional areas of the organization: planning, organization, leadership and control. The four functions are highly interdependent, with managers often performing more than one of them at a time and each of them many times over the course of a normal workday.

1.2. Different levels of Management

Organization and Management

Top-level Management

- Top-level managers require an extensive knowledge of management roles and skills.
- They have to be very aware of external factors such as markets.
- Their decisions are generally of a long-term nature.
- They are responsible for strategic decisions.
- They have to chalk out the plan and see that plan may be effective in future.
- They are executive in nature.

Middle Management
- Mid-level managers have a specialized understanding of certain managerial tasks.
- They are responsible for and carrying out the decisions made by top-level management.
- They are responsible for tactical decisions.

Lower Management

- This level of management ensures that the decisions and plans taken by the other two are carried out.
- Lower-level managers' decisions are generally short-term ones.

In new businesses, "management" is often considered **"whatever needs to be done just to keep things afloat".** However, for your business to grow and remain healthy, you must master certain basic skills in management and leadership -- skills that will help you avoid the crisis situations where you have to do "whatever it takes to stay afloat". The basic skills include **problem solving and decision making, planning, meeting management, delegation, communication and managing.**

Traditionally, the term **"management"** refers to the set of activities, and often the group of people, involved in four general functions, including planning, organizing, leading and coordinating activities.

Some writers, teachers and practitioners assert that the above view is rather outmoded and that management needs to focus more on leadership skills, e.g., establishing vision and goals, communicating the vision and goals, and guiding others to accomplish them. They also assert that leadership must be more

facilitative, participative and empowering in how visions and goals are established and carried out.

Both of the above interpretations acknowledge the major functions of planning, organizing, leading and coordinating activities- they put different emphasis and suggest different natures of activities in the following four major functions. They still agree that what managers do is the following:

1. Planning-including identifying goals, objectives, methods, resources needed to carry out methods, responsibilities and dates for completion of tasks. Examples of planning are strategic planning, business planning, project planning, staffing planning, advertising and promotions planning, etc.

2. Organizing resources-To achieve the goals in an optimum fashion. Examples are organizing new departments, human resources, office and file systems, re-organizing businesses, etc.

3. Leading- including setting direction for the organization, groups and individuals and also influencing people to follow that direction. Examples are establishing strategic direction vision, values, mission and / or goals and championing methods of organizational performance management to pursue that direction.

4. Controlling or Coordinating- This occurs with the organization's systems, processes and structures to effectively and efficiently reach goals and objectives. This includes ongoing collection of feedback, and monitoring and adjustment of systems, processes and structures accordingly. Examples include use of financial controls, policies and procedures, performance management processes, measures to avoid risks etc.

Another common view is that "management" is **getting things done through others.** Yet another view, quite apart from the traditional view, asserts that the job of management is to support employee's efforts to be fully productive members of the organizations and citizens of the community.

To most employees, the term "management" probably means the group of people executives and other managers who are primarily responsible for making decisions in the organization. In a nonprofit, the term "management" might refer to all or any of the activities of the board, executive director and/or program directors.

2: Organization and Management

1.3. Principles of management

❖ **Division of Work**. Specialization allows the individual to build up experience, and to continuously improve his skills. Thereby he can be more productive.

❖ **Authority**. The right to issue commands, along with which must go the balanced responsibility for its function.

❖ **Discipline**. Employees must obey, but this is two-sided: employees will only obey orders if management plays their part by providing good leadership.

❖ **Unity of Command**. Each worker should have only one boss with no other conflicting lines of command.

❖ **Unity of Direction**. People engaged in the same kind of activities must have the same objectives in a single plan. This is essential to ensure unity and coordination in the enterprise. Unity of command does not exist without unity of direction but does not necessarily flows from it.

❖ **Subordination of individual interest** to the general interest. Management must see that the goals of the firms are always paramount.

❖ **Remuneration**. Payment is an important motivator although by analyzing a number of possibilities, t there is no such thing as a perfect system.

❖ **Centralization** or Decentralization. This is a matter of degree depending on the condition of the business and the quality of its personnel.

❖ **Scalar chain** Line of Authority. A hierarchy is necessary for unity of direction. But lateral communication is also fundamental, as long as superiors know that such communication is taking place. Scalar chain refers to the number of levels in the hierarchy from the ultimate authority to the lowest level in the organization. It should not be over-stretched and consist of too-many levels.

❖ **Order**. Both material order and social order are necessary. The former minimizes lost time and useless handling of materials. The latter is achieved through organization and selection.

❖ **Equity**. In running a business a 'combination of kindliness and justice' is needed. Treating employees well is important to achieve equity.

❖ **Stability of Tenure of Personnel**. Employees work better if job security and career progress are assured to them. An insecure tenure and a high rate of employee turnover will affect the organization adversely.

❖ **Initiative**. Allowing all personnel to show their initiative in some way is a source of strength for the organization. Even though it may well involve a sacrifice of 'personal vanity' on the part of many managers.

❖ **Esprit de Corps**. Management must foster the morale of its employees. "Real talent is needed to coordinate effort, encourage keenness, use each

person's abilities, and reward each one's merit without arousing possible jealousies and disturbing harmonious relations."

1.4. .Five Elements of Management:

- **Forecast & Plan**. Examining the future and drawing up a plan of action. The elements of strategy.
- **To organize**. Build up the structure, both material and human, of the undertaking.
- **To command**. Maintain the activity among the personnel.
- **To coordinate**. Binding together, unifying and harmonizing all activity and effort.
- **To control**. Seeing that everything occurs in conformity with established rule and expressed command.

Management Information Systems MIS, sometimes referred to as **Information Management and Systems**, is the discipline covering the application of people, technologies, and procedures — collectively called information systems — to solving business problems. Management Information Systems are distinct from regular information systems in that they are used to analyze other information systems applied in operational activities in the organization. Academically, the term is commonly used to refer to the group of information management methods tied to the automation or support of human decision making, e.g. Decision Support Systems, Expert systems, and Executive information systems.

Grapevine

Grapevine is an informal communication network, which ignores formal channels of communication and spreads rumors and gossips at all levels of the organization. It can be easily found that a large portion of the communication in almost every business house is not formal or pre-planned. The employees communicate through informal channels as they do their jobs. **It is neither pre-planned nor deliberately motivated by the management.** It is neither written nor documented or recorded. Therefore, it refers to any communication that takes place outside the prescribed and pre-planned channels of formal communication. It is not set with the lines of **organizational hierarchy**. As it has no set rules and regulations, it is not confined to a particular direction; it just spreads like a grapevine.

1.5. STRUCTURE OF AN ORGANIZATION

Organizational structure refers to how individual and team work within an organization are coordinated. To achieve organizational goals and objectives, individual work needs to be coordinated and managed. Structure is a valuable tool in achieving coordination, as it specifies reporting relationships who reports to whom, delineates formal communication channels, and describes how separate actions of individuals are linked together. Organizations can function within a number of different structures, each possessing distinct advantages and disadvantages. Although any structure that is not properly managed will be plagued with issues, some organizational models are better equipped for particular environments and tasks.

1.6. Building Blocks of Structure

What exactly do we mean by organizational structure? Which elements of a company's structure make a difference in how we behave and how work is coordinated? We will review four aspects of structure that have been frequently studied in the literature: centralization, formalization, hierarchical levels, and departmentalization. We view these four elements as the building blocks, or elements, making up a company's structure. Then we will examine how these building blocks come together to form two different configurations of structures.

1.7. Centralization is the degree to which decision-making authority is concentrated at higher levels in an organization. In centralized companies, many important decisions are made at higher levels of the hierarchy, whereas in decentralized companies, decisions are made and problems are solved at lower levels by employees who are closer to the problem in question.

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As an employee, where would you feel more comfortable and productive? If your answer is "decentralized," you are not alone. Decentralized companies give more authority to lower-level employees, resulting in a sense of empowerment. Decisions can be made more quickly, and employees often believe that decentralized companies provide greater levels of procedural fairness to employees. Job candidates are more likely to be attracted to decentralized organizations. Because centralized organizations assign decision-making responsibility to higher-level managers, they place greater demands on the judgment capabilities of CEOs and other high-level managers.

Many companies find that the centralization of operations leads to inefficiencies in decision making.

However, centralization also has its advantages. Some employees are more comfortable in an organization where their manager confidently gives instructions and makes decisions. Centralization may also lead to more efficient operations, particularly if the company is operating in a stable environment.

In fact, organizations can suffer from extreme decentralization. For example, some analysts believe that the Federal Bureau of Investigation FBI experiences some problems because all its structure and systems are based on the assumption that crime needs to be investigated after it happens. Over time, this assumption led to a situation where, instead of following an overarching strategy, each FBI unit is completely decentralized and field agents determine how investigations should be pursued. It has been argued that due to the change in the nature of crimes, the FBI needs to gather accurate intelligence before a crime is committed; this requires more centralized decision making and strategy development.

Hitting the right balance between decentralization and centralization is a challenge for many organizations.

1.8. Formalization is the extent to which an organization's policies, procedures, job descriptions, and rules are written and explicitly articulated. Formalized structures are those in which there are many written rules and regulations. These structures control employee behavior using written rules, so that employees have little autonomy to decide on a case-by-case basis. An advantage of formalization is that it makes employee behavior more predictable. Whenever a problem at work arises, employees know to turn to a handbook or a procedure guideline. Therefore, employees respond to problems in a similar way across the organization; this leads to consistency of behavior.

While formalization reduces ambiguity and provides direction to employees, it is not without disadvantages. A high degree of formalization may actually lead to reduced innovativeness because employees are used to behaving in a certain manner. In fact, strategic decision making in such organizations often occurs only when there is a crisis. A formalized structure is associated with reduced motivation and job satisfaction as well as a slower pace of decision making. The service industry is particularly susceptible to problems associated with high levels of formalization. Sometimes employees who are listening to a customer's problems may need to take action, but the answer may not be specified in any procedural guidelines or rulebook.

1.9. Hierarchical Levels

Another important element of a company's structure is the number of levels it has in its hierarchy. Keeping the size of the organization constant, *tall structures* have several layers of management between frontline employees and the top level, while *flat structures* consist of only a few layers. In tall structures, the number of employees reporting to each manager tends to be smaller, resulting in greater opportunities for managers to supervise and monitor employee activities. In contrast, flat structures involve a larger number of employees reporting to each manager. In such a structure, managers will be relatively unable to provide close supervision, leading to greater levels of freedom of action for each employee.

Research indicates that flat organizations provide greater need satisfaction for employees and greater levels of self-actualization. At the same time, there may be some challenges associated with flat structures. Research shows that when managers supervise a large number of employees, who are more likely to happen in flat structures, employees experience greater levels of role ambiguity—the confusion that results from being unsure of what is expected of a worker on the job. This is especially a disadvantage for employees who need closer guidance from their managers. Moreover, in a flat structure, advancement opportunities will be more limited because there are fewer management layers. Finally, while employees report that flat structures are better at satisfying their higher-order needs such as self-actualization, they also report that tall structures are better at satisfying security needs of employees. Because tall structures are typical of large and well-established companies, it is possible that when working in such organizations employees feel a greater sense of job security.

UNIT 2 DEPARTMENTALIZATION

Organizational structures differ in terms of departmentalization, which is broadly categorized as either functional or divisional.

Organizations using *functional structures* group jobs based on similarity in functions. Such structures may have departments such as marketing, manufacturing, finance, accounting, human resources, and information technology. In these structures, each person serves a specialized role and handles large volumes of transactions. For example, in a functional structure, an employee in the marketing department may serve as an event planner, planning promotional events for all the products of the company.

In organizations using *divisional structures*, departments represent the unique products, services, customers, or geographic locations the company is serving. Thus each unique product or service the company is producing will have its own department. Within each department, functions such as marketing, manufacturing, and other roles are replicated. In these structures, employees act like generalists as opposed to specialists. Instead of performing specialized tasks, employees will be in charge of performing many different tasks in the service of the product. For example, a marketing employee in a company with a divisional structure may be in charge of planning promotions, coordinating relations with advertising agencies, and planning and conducting marketing research, all for the particular product line handled by his or her division.

In reality, many organizations are structured according to a mixture of functional and divisional forms. For example, if the company has multiple product lines, departmentalizing by product may increase innovativeness and reduce response times. Each of these departments may have dedicated marketing, manufacturing, and customer service employees serving the specific product; yet, the company may also find that centralizing some operations and retaining the functional structure makes sense and is more cost effective for roles such as human resources management and information technology. The same organization may also create geographic departments if it is serving different countries.

Each type of departmentalization has its advantages. Functional structures tend to be effective when an organization does not have a large number of products and services requiring special attention. When a company has a diverse product line, each product will have unique demands, deeming divisional or product -specific structures more useful for promptly addressing customer demands and anticipating

market changes. Functional structures are more effective in stable environments that are slower to change. In contrast, organizations using product divisions are more agile and can perform better in turbulent environments. The type of employee who will succeed under each structure is also different. Research shows that when employees work in product divisions in turbulent environments, because activities are diverse and complex, their performance depends on their general mental abilities.

2.1. CO-ORDINATION IN AN ORGANIZATION

Coordination may be defined as the process of managing dependencies between activities. The need for coordination arises from the fact that literally all organizations are a complex aggregation of diverse systems, which need to work or be operated in concert to produce desired outcomes. To simplify the picture, one could decompose an organization into three broad components of actors, goals and resources.

The actors, comprising of entities such as management, employees, customers, suppliers and other stakeholders perform interdependent activities aimed at achieving certain goals. To perform these activities, the actors require various types of inputs or resources. The inputs may themselves be interdependent in the ways that they are acquired, created or used. The goals to which the actors aspire are also diverse in nature. Some of them will be personal while others are corporate. Even where the goals are corporate, they address different sets of stakeholders and may be in conflict.

Calls for coordination are evident is situations where a) temporality is a factor, such that effects of delays or of future consequences of today's decisions are not immediately apparent b there is a large number of actors c) there is a large number interactions between actors or tasks in the system or d where combinations or occurrences in the system involve an aspect of probability. In short, the more complex the system and organizations are complex aggregations the more coordination is necessary.

Multiple actors and interactions, resources and goals need to be coordinated if common desired outcomes are to be achieved. Viewed from the need to maintain perspective and solve problems that might arise from these multiplicities, coordination links hand in glove with the concept of systems thinking.

: Organization and Management

In contrast to traditional methods of problem analysis, system thinking focuses on how a component of a system under study interacts with other constituents of the same system. Organizations are systems in the sense that they comprise of elements that interact to produce a predetermined behavior or output. Traditional analysis approaches focus on isolating individual parts. The systems thinking approach instead works by expanding the analytical spectrum to take into account the broader picture of how the constituent parts of the system interact with each other. Change in a constituent part of a system may constrain efficient functioning of other parts of the same system or alter required input or output specifications. Others, especially resources, may need to be used in combination to achieve desired changes. The point here is that looking at small parts of an interacting system involving multiple actors, resources and goals may accentuate a problem that analysis seeks to solve.

Lack of coordination may be felt as inefficiency and lost opportunity. Where successful advancement or investment requires liaison, lack of liaison prevents real or lasting change.

There are some key symptoms of poor coordination.
- Delay- waiting- work-in-progress
- Duplication- waste of effort or demand-redundancy- overlap
- Confusion-cross purposes-incommensurate data- misunderstanding
- Lost data-gaps-poor utilization of resources- missed opportunities
- Inflexibility-prematurely frozen protocols-obsolete standards-stagnation

A lack of coordination is sometimes called a **contradiction**. This is not a logical contradiction, but an organizational or social or interpersonal contradiction. The process of coordination can then be thought of as the prevention or more usually the removal of contradictions.

2.2. MOTIVATION IN AN ORGANIZATION
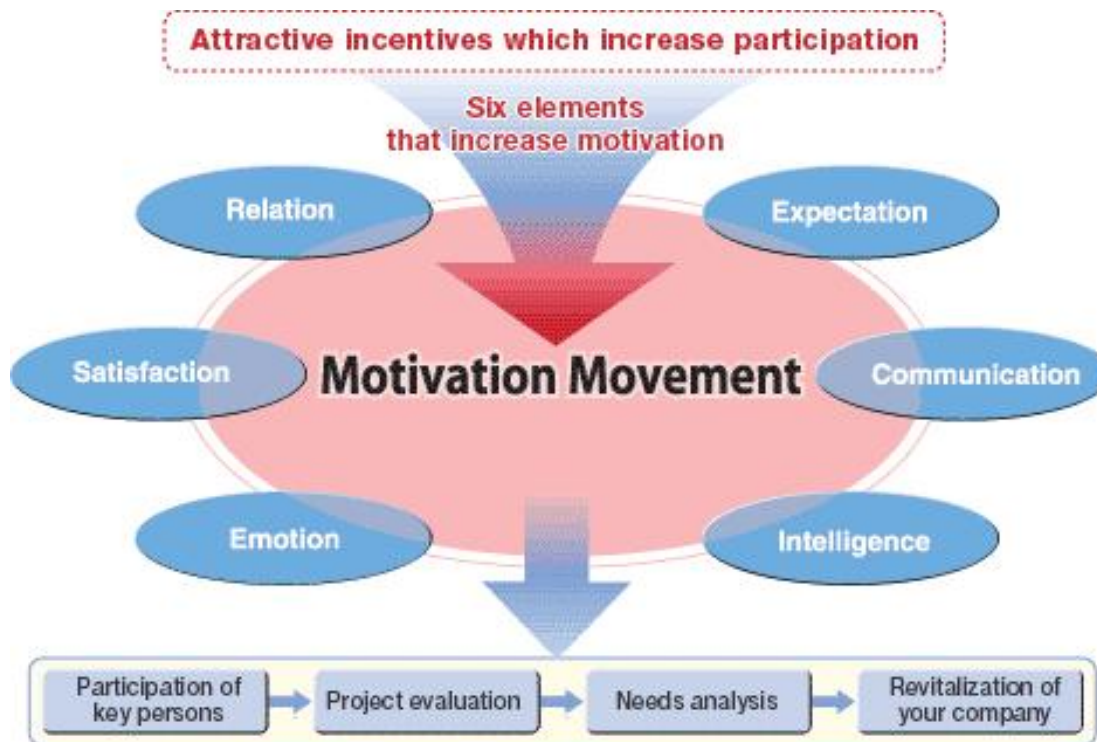
Motivation is a process of arousing and sustaining goal-directed behavior induced by the expectation of satisfying individual needs. Motivation is the set of forces that cause people to choose certain behaviors from among the many alternatives open to them. An employee's performance typically is influenced by motivation, ability, and the work environment. Some deficiencies can be addressed by providing training or altering the environment, motivation problems are not as easily addressed. Motivation is important because of its significance as a determinant of performance and its intangible nature.

Evolution can be traced from scientific management, through the human relations movement, to the human resource approach.

Scientific management: The assumptions of scientific management were that work is inherently unpleasant for most people and the money they earn is more important to employees than is the nature of the job they are performing.

Human relations movement: This school of thought emphasized the role of social processes in organizations and assumed that the need for belongingness and the need to feel useful are more important than money in motivating employees.

Human resource approach: This view assumes that people want to contribute to organizational effectiveness and are able to make genuine contributions. The organization's responsibility is to create a work environment that makes full use of available human resources.

The human resource approach guides most thinking about motivation today, but three integrative approaches conceptualize motivation more completely: need-based, process-based, and reinforcement-based approaches.

Need-based approaches to motivation focus on what motivates employees to choose certain behaviors as shown on the following diagram.
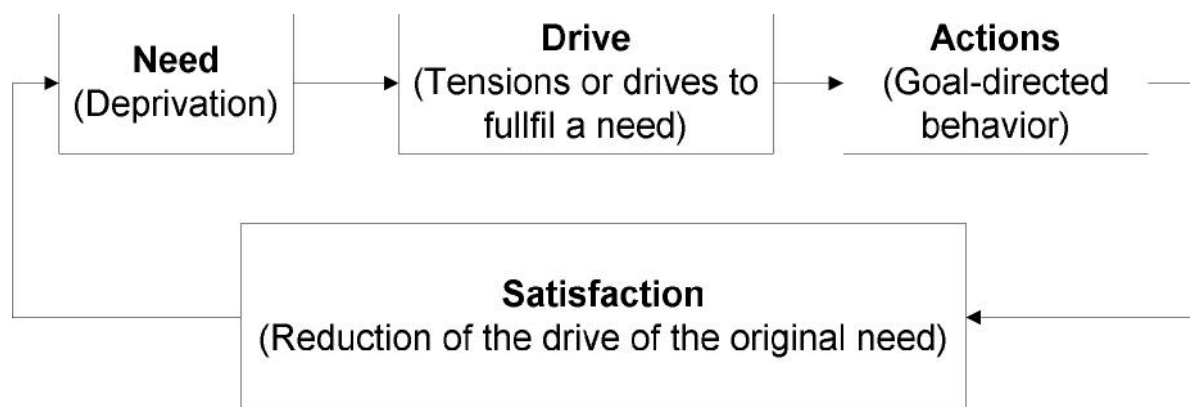
Two need-based approaches are need hierarchies and the dual-structure approach.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs assumes that people are motivated to satisfy five levels of needs:

- physiological,
- security,
- belongingness,
- esteem, and
- self-actualization

The hierarchical arrangement suggests that the five levels of needs are arranged in order of increasing importance, starting with physiological needs. According to the theory, when needs at one level are satisfied, they are no longer motivators and the

individual "moves up" the hierarchy to satisfy needs at the next level. Maslow's view of motivation provides a logical framework for categorizing needs, but it does not supply a complete picture.

Alderfer developed the ERG theory of motivation in response to criticisms of Maslow's hierarchy. **ERG** stands for **existence, relatedness, and growth** needs ERG theory. Existence needs are satisfied by food and water pay fringe benefits and working conditions. Relatedness needs are satisfied by relationships with co workers, superiors' family and friends. Growth needs cover the need to advance and develop.

As with Maslow's theory, assumes that motivated behavior follows a hierarchy, but it has two important differences:

- ERG theory suggests that more than one level of needs can cause motivation at the same time;
- ERG theory has a frustration-regression element that suggests that if needs remain unsatisfied at some high level; the individual will become frustrated, regress to a lower level, and begin to pursue lower-level needs again.
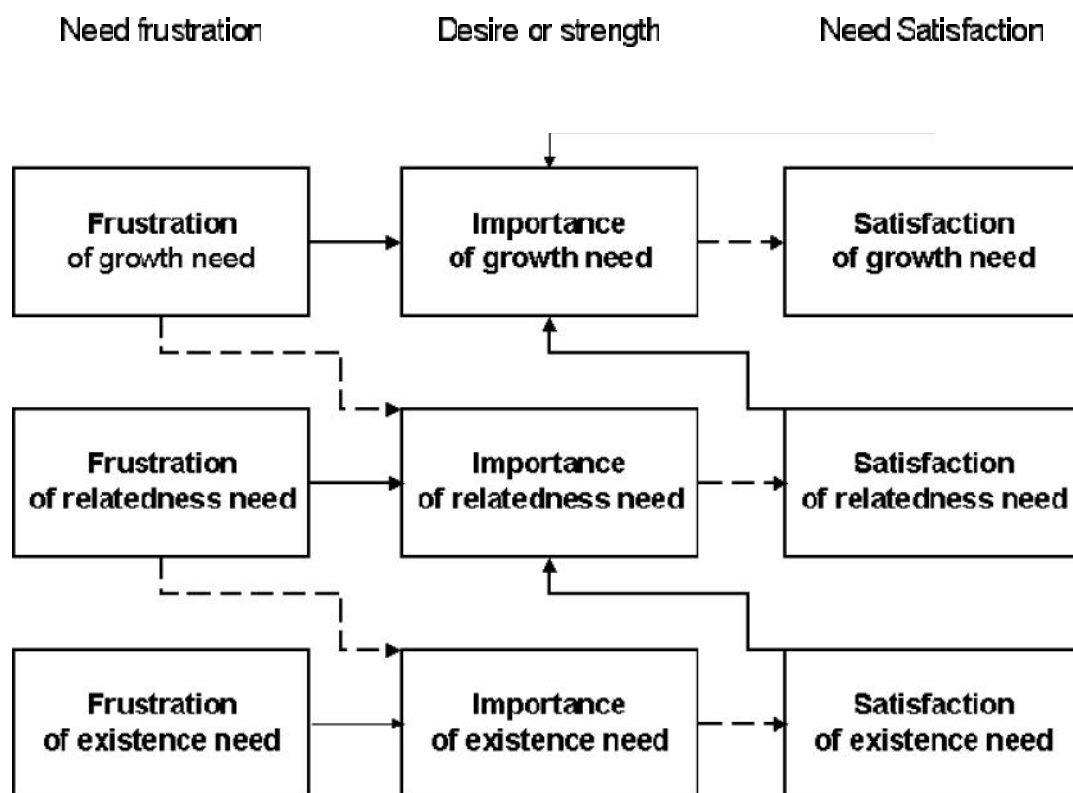
2.3. **The Dual-Structure Approach to Motivation**

The dual-structure approach was developed by Frederick Herzberg and is often referred to as the two-factor theory. Herzberg's studies of accountants and engineers led him to suggest that entirely different sets of factors are associated with satisfaction and with dissatisfaction. Motivation factors, relating to the job itself, result in feelings ranging from satisfaction to no satisfaction. Hygiene factors, relating to the work environment, result in feelings ranging from dissatisfaction to no dissatisfaction.

Acquired Needs

Other need-based perspectives on motivation focus on acquired needs: the needs for achievement, affiliation, and power. This approach is concerned not about the ordering of needs but rather about the needs themselves. David Mc Cleland first identified the need for achievement, which reflects an individual's desire to do something more effectively than in the past. The need for power is the desire to be influential in a group and to control one's environment.

2.4. CONTROL IN ORGANIZATION

Controlling is the process of assessing the organization's progress toward accomplishing its goals. It includes monitoring the implementation of a plan and correcting deviations from that plan.

- ✓ Setting performance standards goals
- ✓ Measuring performance
- ✓ Comparing actual performance to established performance standards
- ✓ Taking corrective action if necessary
- ✓ Using information gained from the process to set future performance standards.

Performance standards are the levels of performance the company wants to attain. These goals are based on strategic, tactical, and operational plans. The most effective performance standards state a measurable behavioral objective that can be achieved in a specified time frame. For example, the performance objective for the sales division of a company could be stated as "Rs.100, 000 crores in gross sales for the month of January." Each individual employee in that division would also have a specified performance goal. Actual firm division or individual performance can be measured against desired performance standards to see if a gap exists

between the desired level of performance and the actual level of performance. If a performance gap does exist, the reason for it must be determined and corrective action taken.

Feed back is essential to the process of control. Most companies have a reporting system that identifies areas where performance standards are not being met. A feedback system helps managers detect problems before they get out of hand. If a problem exists, the managers take corrective action.

Why is controlling such an important part of a manager's job? First, it helps managers to determine the success of the other three functions: planning, organizing, and leading. Second, control systems direct employee behavior toward achieving organizational goals. Third, control systems provide a means or coordinating employee activities and integrating resources throughout the organization.

2.5. ORGANIZATION CONTROL

I. Organization Control includes any process designed to assure that organization plans are carried out the way they were designed.

- ✓ Traditionally, control processes were primarily quantitative in nature. i.e.; budgets, standard cost systems, market quotas
- ✓ Thus, the duty for establishment and analysis of control system results developed primarily as an accounting function.
- ✓ During the past decade, control systems have moved from strictly quantitative in nature to both quantitative and qualitative in nature. i.e.; From performance bonuses based on bottom-line net income to efforts that generate increased satisfaction of customers with the quality of products or services

II. The contemporary attitude of control and control systems is that such control efforts should motivate people toward desired organizational behavior and not promote dysfunctional behavior.

2.6. DECISION MAKING IN AN ORGANIZATION

Decision making is an important process for organizational effectiveness. Decision making is almost universally defined as choosing between alternatives. It is closely related to all the traditional management functions. In the manufacturing area,

effective decisions are aimed at achieving zero defects in recent years this focus has also been applied to the service sector in order to create zero defections. Decision making is an organizational process because it transcends the individual and has an effect on organizational goals. First the overall nature of the decision making is explored.

Then the models of behavioral decision making are described. Next, the traditional and modern participative techniques are presented as behaviorally oriented decision techniques. Creativity in decision making can apply to individuals or groups. Since individual decision making has largely given way to group decision making in today, organizations, an understanding of group dynamics become relevant. In fast a no of social decision schemes have emerged. Decisions can be classified as either programmed or non-programmed. Programmed decisions are repetitive or routine and can be solved through clear-cut mechanical procedures, such as applying the rules to find the best solution. Up to 90 percent of management decisions are programmed. Non-programmed decisions are exceptional or non-recurring, and they are often made under crisis conditions which involve so much ambiguity that specific procedures or programs are not available. Therefore, managers who must make non-programmed decisions rely on judgment and creativity.

2.7. Centralization and Decentralization

Centralization refers to the union and consolidation of departments into one center. Within the center, standardization may occur on operations ranging from computer systems to networked resources, from employee policy and conduct to furniture layout and space allocation. Obvious advantages are **increased organization, cost reduction due to bulk purchases, and increased efficiency.** Disadvantages are that organizational flexibility is often compromised and necessary changes in structure become difficult and slow to implement.

Decentralization refers to a shift in organizational structure that distributes more administrative control to local centers or groups. Main advantages of decentralization are **increased communication among local sectors of the organization and less of a reliance on formal communication.** Disadvantages are many and make this strategy slightly more risky than the former. They include possibilities of neglect, mismanagement, and the loss of objectivity.

Centralization
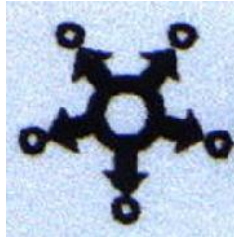
Benefits	Costs
Greater efficiency	May lessen internal communication
Increased professionalism	May lessen involvement with organizational image
Less parochialism	May lessen the extent of "team member" feelings
Uniform corporate image	
Standardization of space allocation and furniture distribution	Delayed response time
Cost Savings on bulk purchases of building services and materials	
Minimizes company's dependence on outside consultants and vendors	Dependence on centralized authorities may discourage the development of local skills and talents
Allows for company wide databases	Necessary changes become slow to implement

Decentralization
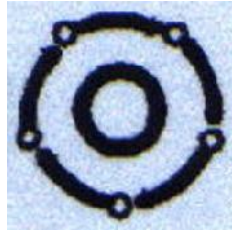
Benefits	Costs
Enhances communication and interaction among employees	Loss of objectivity may occur
Promotes project prioritization	
Creates a need for less formalized communication	
Facilitates a more comprehensive understanding of individual units	
Less formal restrictions promote innovation and creativity	Need for constant employee training since operations are separate
Increased input from local hubs	
	More difficult to ensure and monitor employee compliance with company policies

2.8. INTERNAL & EXTERNAL COMMUNICATION

Business communication can essentially be divided into internal and external communication. Things like establishing a brand, marketing your products and services, advertising, working on things like public relations, media management and even business dealings with customers or other business firms fall in the category of external business communication.

As for internal business communication, things like building up the ideals of your company, setting certain guidelines that you expect to follow in your business, carving out strategy and goals to ensure success, keeping your employees inspired and egging on all those involved in your business falls into the category of internal business communication.

Internal communication involves the communication that exists within a company and can take many forms. Key to the success of an organization is communication from within. In order to effectively engage in two-way symmetrical communication, the goal of public relations practitioners, communication is essential internally. External communication covers how a provider interacts with those outside their own organization. This may be with the public, employers, community organizations, local authorities, job centers, careers offices, funding bodies, specialist agencies and other training providers.

2.8.1. Principles to Effective Internal Organizational Communications
- Unless management comprehends and fully supports the premise that organizations must have high degrees of communications like people needing lots of water), the organization will remain stilted. Too often, management learns the need for communication by having to respond to the lack of it.
- Effective internal communications start with effective skills in communications, including basic skills in listening, speaking, questioning and sharing feedback. These can developed with some concerted review and practice.
- Perhaps the most important outcome from these skills is conveying that you value hearing from others and their hearing from you. Sound meeting management skills go a long way toward ensuring effective communications.
- A key ingredient to developing effective communications in any organization is each person taking responsibility to assert when they don't

understand a communication or to suggest when and how someone could communicate more effectively.

This communication can be looked at as communications downward and upward.

2.8.2.Downward Communications:

✓ Ensure every employee receives a copy of the strategic plan, which includes the organization's mission, vision, values statement, strategic goals and strategies about how those goals will be reached.

✓ Ensure every employee receives an employee handbook that contains all up-to-date personnel policies.

✓ Develop a basic set of procedures for how routine tasks are conducted and include them in standard operating manual.

✓ Ensure every employee has a copy of their job description and the organization chart.

✓ Regularly hold management meetings at least every two weeks, even if there's nothing pressing to report. If you hold meetings only when you believe there's something to report, then communications will occur only when you have something to say - communications will be one way and the organization will suffer.

✓ Hold full staff meetings every month to report how the organization is doing, major accomplishments, concerns, announcements about staff, etc.

✓ Leaders and managers should have face-to-face contact with employees at least once a week. Even if the organization is over 20 employees large for a nonprofit, management should stroll by once in a while.

✓ Regularly hold meetings to celebrate major accomplishments. This helps employees perceive what's important, gives them a sense of direction and fulfillment, and let them know that leadership is on top of things.

✓ Ensure all employees receive yearly performance reviews, including their goals for the year, updated job descriptions, accomplishments, needs for improvement, and plan to help the employee accomplish the improvements. If the nonprofit has sufficient resources a realistic concern, develop a career plan with the employee, too.

2.8.3.Upward Communications:

✓ Ensure all employees give regular status reports to their supervisors. Include a section for what they did last week, will do next week and any actions/issues to address.

✓ Ensure all supervisors meet one-on-one at least once a month with their employees to discuss how its' going, hear any current concerns from the employee, etc. Even if the meeting is chit-chat, it cultivates an important relationship between supervisor and employee.

✓ Use management and staff meetings to solicit feedback. Ask how it's going. Do a round table approach to hear from each person.

✓ Act on feedback from others. Write it down. Get back to it - if only to say you can't do anything about the reported problem or suggestion, etc.

✓ Respect the "grapevine." It's probably one of the most prevalent and reliable forms of communications. Major "movements" in the organization usually first appear when employees feel it safe to venture their feelings or opinions to peers.

2.8.4.Supervisor and Employee Communications

Supervision is often considered to include designing the job, hiring someone to fill the job, training them, delegating to them, guiding them via performance reviews, helping them develop their career, noting performance issues, and firing them, if needed. Obviously small nonprofits may not be able to afford full attention to all of these activities.

However, there are several basic and regular activities which provide a solid foundation for effective supervision. These basics ensure that everyone is working together as important, that staff feels they are working together towards a common cause. Ironically, these basics are usually the first activities that stop when an organization is in a crisis. Consequently, an organization development specialist, when "diagnosing" an organization, often first looks to see if these basics are underway. The following activities should be conducted by the new employer's supervisor.

- **Have all employees provide weekly written status reports to their supervisors.** Include what tasks were done last week, what tasks are planned next week, any pending issues and date the report. These reports may seem a tedious task, but they're precious in ensuring that employee and their

supervisor have mutual understanding of what is going on, and the reports come in very handy for planning purposes. They also make otherwise harried staff and managers stand back and reflect on what they're doing.

- **Hold monthly meetings with all staff together** - Review the overall condition of the organization and review recent successes. Consider conducting "in service" training where employees take turns describing their roles to the rest of the staff. For clarity, focus and morale, be sure to use agendas and ensure follow-up minutes. Consider bringing in a client to tell their story of how the organization helped them. These meetings go a long way toward building a feeling of teamwork among staff.

- **Hold weekly or biweekly meetings with all staff together if the organization is small e.g., under 10 people); otherwise, with all managers together.** Have these meetings even if there is not a specific problem to solve - just make them shorter. Holding meetings only when there are problems to solve cultivate a crisis-oriented environment where managers believe their only job is to solve problems. Use these meetings for each person to briefly give an overview of what they are doing that week. Facilitate the meetings to support exchange of ideas and questions. Again, for clarity, focus and morale, be sure to use agendas, take minutes and ensure follow-up minutes. Have each person bring their calendar to ensure scheduling of future meetings accommodates each person's calendar.

- **Have supervisors meet with their direct reports in one-on-one meetings every month -** This ultimately produces more efficient time management and supervision. Review overall status of work activities, hear how it's going with the supervisor and the employee, exchange feedback and questions about current programs and services, and discuss career planning, etc. Consider these meetings as interim meetings between the more formal, yearly performance review meetings.

UNIT 3 MEDIA ORGANIZATION & MANAGEMENT

3.1. Media Organization is a deceptively simple term encompassing a countless array of institutions and individuals who differ in purpose, scope, method, and cultural context. Mass media include all forms of information communicated to large groups of people, from a handmade sign to an international news network. There is no standard for how large the audience needs to be before communication becomes "mass" communication. There are also no constraints on the type of information being presented.

Organization and Management

Media Management includes the following:

- Running a media organization like a newspaper, Television channel, radio station, media educational institute
- Marketing and advertising of Print and Electronic media
- Event promotion and production
- Print and web design

Media Management includes connecting all aspects of media like Promotion, Production, Duplication, Marketing, Management, Graphic Design, Photography, Video, Audio, TV, Radio and the Web.

3.2 Nature, Functions & Forms of Different Media Organizations

3.2.1. NEWS AGENCY

A news agency is an organization, which **collects or gathers news and supplies** it to different newspapers, magazines, radio stations and television channels subscribing to its service. News gathered/reported by reporters/correspondents is sent to newspapers via electronic teleprinters or computers. These newspapers, in turn, pay a monthly subscription to use news agencies for the news they receive.

A news agency office is always buzzing with activity, since it has to serve not only the print media within the country, but also transmit news to All India Radio and Doordarshan. It also supplies news to newspapers and other agencies all over the world. Thus, the news agency works round the clock as there may be some newspapers somewhere in the world going to the press about to be printed or some radio or TV bulletin about to go on air.

There is a vast difference in a newspaper organization and a news agency. Firstly, the news agency does not publish any newspaper of its own. Whatever its reporters write/report is transmitted to the newspapers and radio and television channels. It is then up to the newspaper to use the news item sent by one news agency or that sent by another news agency, or use the report prepared by its own reporter. In fact, at times, a newspaper may even prepare an item quoting some paragraphs from one agency, and some from another agency.

The choice of what item to use will depend on which agency sends its copy faster and which agency has sent a better written copy. Thus, there is a constant flow of news from the news agency 24 hours a day, whereas a newspaper 'goes to sleep'

the printing process after midnight every night. There are two other significant differences. Every news agency report has to be attributed to a source, unlike a newspaper story. Furthermore, there will be no comments, editorializing or interpretation in a news agency report and it will be purely a factual report.

3.2.2. Ownership pattern of News Agency

The main agencies like the- **Press Trust of India PTI** and the **United News of India UNI** are trusts, registered under the Registration of Societies Act. They are owned by group of newspapers that have bought shares to run them. These newspapers have established Boards of Directors, each headed by a Chairman, to make the policies of the respective news agencies. The Boards have representatives of prominent newspapers as well as public figures.

The same newspapers may be on the Boards of both **PTI** and **UNI.** But there is a constant professional competition between the two agencies and, therefore, the Boards may take decisions on how to keep ahead of the other agency. Naturally, it would not be appropriate to have the same person sitting on both Boards. Therefore, the newspapers assign different representatives on the Boards. Apart from meeting four or five times in a year to decide on policy matters, the Boards do not interfere in the day-to-day functioning of the agencies.

3.2.3. Financial Structure

Various newspapers and the electronic media, apart from government departments and private entrepreneurs, buy the news from agencies. For this purpose, a teleprinter/computer is installed at the office of the subscriber. This is maintained by the agency, just like the telephone department maintains the telephone in our houses. Thus, the technicians of the agency concerned carry out any repairs.

The newspapers and other subscribers pay a monthly subscription fee, plus rental charges for the computer/teleprinter, apart from the installation charges paid when the subscription was first taken. The rate of subscription is determined by specific criteria like circulation of a newspaper, and it remains the same, irrespective of whether the newspaper uses the news items sent out by the agency or not. The Government does not own the agencies, but like other subscribers, the Government- All India Radio, Doordarshan, various Ministries, Ministerial offices and other government departments-is also a subscriber. Ultimately, the Government is the largest subscriber.

3.2.4. Organizational Structure

The Board does not interfere in the day-to-day functioning of the agency. A General-cum-Chief Editor, who is assisted by Deputy General Managers or Deputy Editors, runs the agency.

The Editorial Desk, which we loosely refer to as the Desk, is under the charge of a news Editor, while the reporting section is under the charge of a Chief of Bureau. The reporting staff is divided into two groups: the Reporters who deal with day-to-day reporting and under a Chief Reporter and the Correspondents who deal with Ministerial or Legislative reporting and under the Chief of Bureau. Thus, the Chief Reporter is also answerable to the Chief of Bureau.

Apart for this, there are the transmission, technical, administration and account, from where it is immediately sent to the subscribers. Meanwhile, one or two reporters rush to the scene, and collect whatever facts they can get from eyewitnesses and police, and then either file the story by telephone or rush back to give their stories. All reporters are expected to know how to type). Thus, within two or three minutes of the phone call by the caller, the first report would go out to the world. The other reports may also be on the wire within hours.

The agencies have offices in all the state capitals, and full-time or part-time **stringers** reporters in almost all the districts. They also have correspondents in many world capitals and at the United Nations. News agencies do not generally accept contribution from freelancers unless commissioned by the agency for particular event.

The news agencies are generally the first to get wind of a newsbreak, be it disaster, announcement, or election result. Each agency takes pride in being the first to break the news to its subscribers, thus beating the other agency. For example, PTI was the first to break the news of former Prime Minister, Rajiv Gandhi's assassination. UNI reported the magnitude of the earthquake of September 30, 1993, to the world about an hour before PTI.

3.3. Growth of News Agency in India

There are two main English news agencies operating in the country-the United News of India and the Press Trust of India- and they have established their language wings. There are a few other smaller English and Hindi news agencies too.

: Organization and Management

The government of independent India, under Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, had begun encouraging Indians to start their own Indian news agencies, so that these would give a more balances picture of the developmental activities going on at the time. Encouraged by the government, some major newspapers joined together to form a trust, and then set up independent India's first news agency, the Press Trust of India PTI) in 1949. It took over the business of the Associated Press of India, which was in the process of winding up. The API had been a subsidiary of the Reuters. The PTI functioned as the only agency for the next eleven years. Although both PTI and the United News of India UNI) are professional rivals, the UNI owes its birth to PTI. Since PTI has little competition, its working was not considered well enough for the standard of a news agency. The PTI board of Directors felt that something needed to be done to pull it out of its lethargy. One immediate solution was that another Indian Agency should be set up to compete with the PTI.

Thus the United News of India was formed in 1961 and registered under the Societies Act. The PTI had headquarters in Mumbai, though the main administration continued to be in Delhi, while UNI has its head office in Delhi. In 1948, a Hindi news agency had come into being called the Hindustan Samachar; some political and private groups backed it. Later, another Hindi agency, the Samachar Bharti, came into being. With the two existing Hindi agencies not being able to work efficiently to meet the demands of the newspapers, the UNI in 1982 launched the **UNIVARTA,** its Hindi Wing. A couple of years later, the PTI also started its Hindi wing, called PTI Bhasha. Today, both the Hindi wings are serving the majority of language newspapers in the country, and the Hindustan Samachar and Samachar Bharti, are virtually shut down, though they continue to work in pockets in the country.

3.4. Difference in Operation of News Agency and Newspaper

A news agency works for newspapers, collecting news on their behalf. It is in fact, financed by newspapers. Unlike newspapers, which may be owned by an individual or a company, a news agency is owned by a trust jointly formed by newspapers. A news agency, further more does not publish any newspaper of its own.

Some basic differences in their working are:

1. The news agencies work round-the-clock. Whereas, a newspaper may **'go to sleep'** go for printing after midnight or soon afterwards, the news agencies

are sending and receiving news twenty-four hours a day. Thus, its sub-editors, and reporters, have to be alert all the time.

2. For the news agencies, it is **deadline** every minute. Since a newspaper goes to the press after midnight, a reporter knows that he has plenty of time to file his report. But a news agency reporter must file his report immediately, since he may have to catch a newspaper deadline, in India or abroad, a radio or television bulletin. And, since there is keen competition, each agency tries to outdo the other.

3. **Accuracy** and **speed** being very essential for a news agency, it becomes important that a news agency report should be crisp, precise, and to the point. In fact, news agencies apply the 'inverted triangle' principle,. This means that the first paragraph gives the crux-the main gist-of a news story. The second paragraph will add more details and the third and subsequent paragraph will give details in order of diminishing importance. The aim is to answer the five Ws and the one H-what, where, when, who and why, and how in the first two or three paragraphs.

4. Since there is no time for a news agency reporter to **confirm** or re-confirm facts, it is important that there is an eye on accuracy. The newspaper reporter gives a report in the morning, but has the whole day to correct any mistake. But a news agency reporter will not get another chance.

5. Because a news agency's news is considered the last word, it is necessary that every news item be **attributed** to a source. In other words, every news item has to be quoted from someone, unlike in a newspaper where a reporter can give his/her own version. Proper sourcing generally results in truthful reporting.

6. A news agency is not serving the city in which it works, but the whole nation and beyond. Therefore, its news will not be purely from a local perspective. What is more, it will often ignore a purely localized event and will prefer to report something which will be of interest to readers elsewhere. However, every newspaper devotes lots of space to local news stories, reporting the events in great detail.

7. A news agency generally avoids **publicity** of commercial units. Of course, this is only a general guideline, and the decision is taken on the merit of each situation. A newspaper of course may not mind publicizing an individual.

8. A news agency always gives its news without any comment or personal opinion. This is unlike a newspaper, which may be permitted not only to give news item without a source, but also to put in reasonable comments. Objectivity is the buzzword for news agencies.

3.4.1. Some Foreign News Agencies in India

Reuters is a private British news agency named after its founder, Paul Julius Von Reuter. It was founded in 1851.

Associated Press AP is a news agency that was established in New York n 1848.

Agence France Presse AFP was established in 1944.

United Press International UPI was founded in the United States in 1907. it has been facing financial problems and so has restricted its operations.

Other agencies working in India include **Tass** of Russia, **DPA** of Germany, and the Italian **ANSA.**

3.5 FEATURE AGENCIES

A Feature is something that finds its impact outside or beyond the realm of the straight news story. It is, thus, not bound by restrictions of time, though it must be topical. There are numerous feature agencies operating in the country today. The oldest and best known among them is the Indian News and **Feature Alliance INFA** . Others include **Indian Press Agency IPA,** Compass Features, Gemini Features, National News Services, Newsmen's Features and UFO Features.

These agencies depend solely on free-lance writers. The writers may be aligned to some of them on a regular basis or work on a piece-to-piece basis. The agencies then mail these features to all their clients, thus leaving the clients free to choose. Thus, it may happen that the same feature may be published by more than one newspaper or magazine. However, most feature agencies try to avoid selling the same feature to more than one journal in a city.

Some of the senior most journalists in the country today are so popular that there is a demand for them from many newspapers. The result is that most newspapers do not mind publishing the same article provided it could add to their prestige by including the name of the well-known journalist in their columns. Such journalists become the **syndicated columnists**.

3.6. GOVERNMENT PRINT & RELATED MEDIA ORGANIZATIONS

Press Information Bureau

3.6.1. The Press Information Bureau PIB)

The Press Information Bureau **PIB)** is the central agency of the government of India for the dissemination of information on government policies, decisions, programmes, initiatives and activities. It puts out this information to daily newspapers, periodicals, news agencies and All India Radio and Doordarshan. The PIB has its headquarters in Delhi. The Bureau in Delhi consists of information officers attached to different ministries and departments of the government of India. A publicity officer liaises with newspaper correspondents on behalf of the particular ministry or department by providing background information on official decisions and announcements.

The same officer provides feedback to the ministry or department of the government of India regarding press relations and nature and extent of publicity measures to be adopted. In addition, the PIB evaluates public reaction and accordingly renders advice to the Government of India on its information policy. The PIB is specifically concerned with the **accreditation** to the government of correspondents, camerapersons, technicians and other media personnel. The PIB also organizes **conducted tour**s of pres personal to places currently in the news. It facilitates the exchange of delegations of journalists through **Cultural Exchange Programmes**. Besides, the PIB provides a **pictorial service,** which makes possible photo coverage of government activities. The PIB operates from its 37 field units. Two of these field units are information centers, eight are regional offices and 27 are branch offices, some attached with information centers.

3.6.2. Publication Divisions

The Publication Division is the largest publishing house in the public sector. It is the media unit of Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. From 1941 to 1943 the present Publication Division was part of the Home Department and was known as the Foreign Branch of the Bureau of Public Information. In 1943, it was transferred to the Department of Information and Broadcasting and renamed the Publications Division in December 1944.

The Publication Division has various wings to oversee the production of print material. These are the Editorial Wing, Production and Art Wing, Business Wing,

Administration Wing and Employment News Wing. The last mentioned Employment News Wing brings out the weekly **Employment News** in English and **Rozgar Samachar** in Hindi. The Publication Division seeks to provide information on every subject of national importance through the journals, books and albums that it publishes. It also acts as an agency that facilitates national integration and stimulates widespread interest in Indian culture. The Publication Division publishes some twenty journals; 'Kurukshetra' a monthly journal published in Hindi and English, has its focus on the areas of rural reconstruction and cooperation. Other notable publication includes Aajkal, Bal Bharti, Yojana, India Reference Annual, Mass Media in India. The quarterly newsletter of the Publications Division is called **Samachar.**

3.6.3. RNI Office of the Registrar of Newspapers for India

The office of the Registrar of Newspapers for India was started on 1st July 1956. The Registrar of Newspapers for India **RNI** , popularly known as the Press Registrar, heads this office. The office of the RNI maintains a record of the registered newspapers and periodicals in all languages of the country. It publishes annually the Press of India, volumes of which contain detailed information about the press, including circulation figures of the various newspapers and magazines, language-wise. The RNI decides the Newsprint Allocation Policy and revises it whenever necessary.

3.6.4.Research and Reference Division

Research and Reference Division is an agency that conducts research and provides reference information on a variety of subjects. The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting and its constituent media units utilize the information services of the Research and Reference Division.

The documentation and catalogue section of the library carries out compilation work. There is a separate wing that specifically collects and maintains newspaper clippings. Accredited media personal have access to the library maintained by the Research and Reference Division. India: A Reference Annual is published every year by the division. The National Documentation Center on Mass Communication set up as a part of the Division in 1976, documents and indexes news items and information about the mass media. It also compiles and edits the book Mass Media in India annually, which is an update on events and progress made by the government media in the previous year.

3.6.5.Photo Division

The Photo Division comes under the administration purview of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. It documents the socio-economic progress and cultural activities of the country through photographs. It houses an entire range of photographic negatives that have immense archive value. The positive photographic prints of major events in the news are distributed to the media through the Press Information Bureau. Periodic advanced training in photography is conducted for photographers of the state governments and for those from commonwealth countries. With the head office in New Delhi, the Photo Division maintains three regional offices at Mumbai, Kolkata, and Chennai.

3.6.6.Press Council of India

The Press Council of India is a quasi-judicial body, constituted by an Act of Parliament. It has 28 members headed by a Chairman. The Chairman of the Council has traditionally been a sitting or retired judge of the Supreme Court. While twenty members are press personnel, five are members of Parliament and one each nominated by the **University Grants Commission**, **Sahitya Academy** and **Bar Council of India.** It hears complaints by the press and against the press regarding freedom of the press. It suggests guidelines on the ethical standards to be maintained by the press.

3.6.7.National Library

The National Library was established in 1948 under the Imperial Library Act, 1848.it is situated in Belverdere Estate, Kolkata. It has more than twenty lakh volumes in its custody. This number excludes the maps, manuscripts, Official documents and books received as gifts or in exchange scheme. The national Library is a subordinate department under the Ministry of Human Resources Development, Department of Culture, and Government of India. The special feature of this Library is that it organizes exhibitions, lectures and seminars at the national and international levels. A Director in addition to a Librarian heads it.

3.7.GOVERNMENT-RUN FILM MEDIUM ORGANIZATIONS

3.7.1.Film Division

The film Division was established in 1948. It produces and distributes documentaries, news magazines, 16 mm features, cartoon films and educational films for the different departments of the Government of India. These films are

produced in each of the major regional languages. The Film Division has its headquarters in New Delhi, and regional production centers in Bangalore and Kolkata. The Division has its branch offices in various regions of India. The films produced by Films Division are released for viewing in cinema halls across the country.

3.7.2.Central Board of Film Certification

The Central Board of Film Certification was established in 1952 under the Cinematograph Act, 1952. The Board has its headquarters at Mumbai, besides a regional office there. Its other regional offices are located at Bangalore, Kolkata, Hyderabad, Chennai, New Delhi and Thiruvananthapuram. The Board certifies all Indian and foreign films-features, short and long films-prior to their exhibition. Advisory panels assist the regional offices in the examination of films for their certification. Some of the most eminent people from various walks of life are invited to be on these panels. The Board, constituted by the government, is headed by a chairperson who is assisted by non-official members numbering anywhere between 12 and 25. The principles enshrined in the Cinematograph Act, 1952 and Cinematograph certification rule, 1983, serve to guide the members of the Board in their work. Provision has been made to allow a change of decision of the Board. For this, one needs to file an appeal with the Film Certification Appellate Tribunal **FCAT** . The **FCAT** has been functioning from March 1984. The Tribunal has its headquarters in New Delhi.

3.7.3. National Film Archive of India

The National Film Archive of India **NFAI** was established in 1964.it has its headquarters in Pune with three regional offices at Bangalore, Kolkata and Thiruvananthapuram. The archive is a media unit of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. It is the work of the **NFAI** to preserve films, audio and video footage. This is done in addition to documentation and research on films in Indian and even some foreign languages. The archive plays a pivotal role in sensitizing the films viewing for the public, to the nuances of filmmaking. It organizes short courses on filmmaking. It also organizes screening of films to audiences in selected cities.

3.7.4. National Film Development Corporation

The National Film Development Corporation **NFDC** was established in 1980 with the stated objective of promoting good cinema. It produces and finances

films, oversees matters concerning export to Indian films, import of foreign films and their distribution, import of relevant technology and the production and distribution of recorded video cassettes. The **NFDC** provides financial support for the construction of cinema halls under its Theatre Financing Scheme. The **NFDC** has made inroads into the programming of small screen. The metro and other channels on Doordarshan telecast several serials produces or finances by the **NFDC**.

3.7.5.Directorate of Film Festivals

The Directorate of Film Festivals was set up in 1973 under the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. Its stated objective is to promote good cinema and Indian films. It organizes national and international film festivals in India. The Directorate gives away the National film Awards. Under the Cultural Exchange Programme **CEP**, the Directorate arranges film weeks for the people in India. Similarly, it holds Indian film weeks abroad. The Directorate ceased to be an agency of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting in July 1981, when it was transferred to the National Film Development Corporation. But in July 1988, the Directorate of Film Festivals was shifted back to the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting.

3.7.6..National Centre of Films for Children and Young People

Earlier called the **Children's Film Society**, India CFSI), was established in 1955.it produces and distributes films, which essentially provide 'clean and healthy entertainment' for children and young people. Befitting this objective, the center finances films for children. The animation films produces by the Centre and Foreign cartoon films dubbed by it in Indian languages, usually Hindi, are popular on Doordarshan.

3.8. GOVERNMENT-OWNED ELECTRONIC MEDIA ORGANIZATIONS

3.8.1.All India Radio AIR

Broadcasting came under the control of the government of India, in 1930 after the liquidation of the Indian Broadcasting Company. It was called the Indian Broadcasting Service. The same Network was renamed '**All India Radio**' in 1936 and came to be known as '**Akashwani**' from 1957. **AIR**'s present network comprises 151 stations excluding the national channel, the integrated North-East Service and the External Service. Of these, 28 stations have a separate channel for

commercial broadcasting, apart from the primary channel broadcasting in regional languages. In addition, there are three commercial broadcasting centers.

The News Services Division, located at AIR headquarters in Delhi, compiles and broadcasts news bulletin in English and all major Indian languages. The Division also undertakes preparation of newsreels, talks and various kinds of informational programmes, which are broadcast on the national network.

The Audience Research Unit carries out extensive listener research on AIR programmes. The data so collected is made available to AIR programme planners. The Planning and Development Unit oversees the planning of the programmes. The Transcription and Programme Exchange Service facilitates exchange of prgrammes between radio stations. It also transcribes speeches of important personages from different walks of life. The recorded speeches are preserved in the Archives maintained by the Transcription and Programme Exchange Service. The Central Monitoring Services of **AIR** monitor broadcasts of foreign radio stations in various languages.

The External Services Division offers the General Oversees Services and the Urdu Service. The output of the External Services Division's broadcasts goes on the short wave. The Division brings out the programme journal called 'India Calling'. The commercial Broadcasting Service of AIR was introduces in November 1967 on experimental basis from Vivid Bharati centers of Mumbai, Pune and Nagpur. Later, it was extended to other Vivid Bharati Centres. Vivid Bharati is very popular with the listeners.

3.8.2.Doordarshan

Doordarshan as on 25 February 1993 reached to 82% of the population through a network of 542 transmitters-66 high power transmitters and others low power transmitters. There are 22 programme production centers. In addition, Central Production Center CPC), with two large studios equipped with modern and sophisticated facilities, is in operation in Delhi since 1988. CPC undertakes production of ballets, telefilms, serials and various special programmes.

The Director General of Doordarshan heads the administration set up. The Director General is assisted by Deputy Director Generals. Then there are programme producers and others. Doordarshan has a national service and a regional service. There are also morning and afternoon transmissions. Doordarshan introduced the

second channel in Delhi in September 1985, and in course of time Mumbai, Kolkata and Chennai got the second channel.

The Audience Research Unit of Doordarshan conducts surveys to assess the needs and the reactions of the audience. It evaluates the data so collected and makes suggestions to improve the programming on Doordarshan. The Doordarshan Audience Research Television Ratings DARTR) is made public from time to time.

3.9. GOVERNMENT PUBLICITY ORGANIZATIONS

3.9.1.Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity

The Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity came into being in 1955 and is an important agency under the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting for providing publicity to the Government of India. It has its headquarters in Delhi and Regional offices in Bangalore and Guwahati. Its work is further facilitated by two regional distribution centers at Kolkata and Chennai with assistance from some 35-field exhibition units. The Directorate includes an Exhibition Wing, Mass Mailing Wing, Outdoor Publicity Wing, Research Wing, Distribution Wing and Language Wing in addition to the Audio Visual Publicity Cell. Each of these sections contributes in the preparation and distribution of the multi-media campaigns, print publicity, press advertising, exhibitions and audio-visual publicity.

3.9.2.Directorate of Field Publicity

The Directorate of Field Publicity was established in 1953 under the title '**Five Year Plans Publicity Organization**'. This unit was renamed Directorate of Field Publicity in 1959. It has been constituted under the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. The Directorate carries out its work through Field Publicity Units and Regional Offices. The Directorate organizes contests, exhibitions and programmes that invite public participation even as they publicize information for and about the government. These activities are then evaluated by the Directorate of Field Publicity and suggestions places before the government for necessary follow up. The Directorate, therefore, may be said to be an interactive medium for the government.

3.9.3.Song and Drama Division

At the time of its inception in 1954, this Division was attached to **AIR**. From 1960, this Division is a separate unit of the Information and Broadcasting Ministry. It has

its headquarters in Delhi and eight regional centers and nine sub-centres. The sub-centers are at various district headquarters. This Division functions with 44 departmental troops, besides 700 registered parties of performers on its panel. The Sound and Light Wing of the Division was established in 1976 in Delhi. A similar unit was installed in Bangalore by 1981. The Armed Forces Entertainment Wing came into being earlier in 1967. The performances of the Border Publicity Schemes of the Wing are popular among the villagers staying near India's international boundaries.

3.10. GOVERNMENT-FUNDED CENTERS FOR MEDIA LEARNING

3.10.1. Indian Institute of Mass Communication

The Institute was established in 1965 in New Delhi. It is an autonomous center for advanced study in mass communication. It offers Post Graduate Diplomas in Journalism, Advertising and Public Relations. It also conducts specific orientation courses for select cadres of the Indian Information Service, besides training programmes for in-house employees of AIR and Doordarshan. The Institute publishes two quarterly journals called Communicator and Sanchar Madhyam. The Institute has been organizing seminars and conferences on communication and related areas. The Library at the Institute deserves a special mention as it has a comprehensive collection of journals, periodicals and newspapers. The library is the largest specialized library in mass communication in India and owns nearly 22,000 volumes.

3.10.2. Film and Television Institute of India

Film and Television Institute of India, Pune offers diplomas in Film Direction, Photography, Sound Recording and Film Editing. Besides, the Institute conducts technical training courses of short duration for Doordarshan employees in the various facets of TV programme production. The **FTII** has done immense service to the general public by making available to them short-duration Film Appreciation courses.

3.11 Structure of Media Ownership

Who owns the media clearly has an enormous bearing on the way in which they will cover elections - or any other political issue. State-owned media are often under direct government control and will therefore tend to favour the ruling party. Privately owned media may also serve the political interests of their proprietors,

while in some countries, the political parties themselves may own significant media outlets.

The structure of ownership is also likely to have a bearing on questions such as how far political advertising is permitted during elections. It is well known that the United States, with media that are almost exclusively in private hands, organizes direct access by political parties to the media by means of paid advertising. But that is not an isolated example. For example, Finland, where commercial broadcasting developed rather earlier than in most of Europe, has a far freer approach to paid political advertising than most European countries. Countries like Britain and Denmark, with a stronger tradition of public ownership of the media, do not allow paid political advertising at all, but instead have a system of free direct access broadcasts.

Media ownership is sometimes seen as a simple reflection of political conditions: dictatorships or authoritarian regimes control the media directly, while democracies allow pluralism of ownership. There is a grain of truth in this, but it is clear that the reality is much more complex. Most Western European democracies, for example, had a state monopoly of broadcasting until relatively recently. Britain legalized private commercial broadcasting in the 1950s, but France, Germany, and Denmark did not do so until the 1980s. Britain and France are particularly important examples because of their extensive colonial legacy that influenced the organization of broadcasting and media in scores of countries.

In Britain and France, there was historically a strong distinction between broadcasting, with its strong public element, and the privately owned print media. The argument for the involvement of the state in broadcasting - or at least in the allocation of broadcasting licenses has been that the frequency spectrum is a finite public resource. Access should therefore be allocated impartially. However, in some long-standing democracies for example in Scandinavia there is a tradition of public funding of the print media, usually as a means of ensuring pluralism.

Conversely, the private media in Latin America were often closely identified with the military dictatorships of the 1960s and 1970s. Far from facilitating pluralism, these media houses advocated its suppression. Indeed, many would argue that the large corporations dominating the US media are not conducive to the expression of alternative political viewpoints. Whatever the truth of such contentions, it is clear that there is not a direct correlation between private ownership and pluralism.

Economics also play an important part in determining the structure of media ownership. The size of the advertising "cake" varies according to economic conditions, but there is generally not much that individual media organs can do about it. **All private - and some public - media are dependent upon advertising to make their business sustainable**. One reason for the great weight of the public sector in the media of poorer countries is the small size of this cake - and in particular the fact that government advertising comprises a large proportion of it.

In African countries, for example, as well as parts of Asia and Latin America, this explains why national radio stations, broadcasting on medium and long-wave frequencies, are almost entirely a publicly owned phenomenon. **Private advertisers are primarily interested in reaching an urban audience with disposable income** - the type of audience served by private FM stations most of which primarily broadcast music). Even when broadcasting regulations permit - and often they do not - neither private broadcasters nor advertisers have much interest in broadcasting to the entire nation. In this context, developing a clear public service mandate for the state media can only ensure pluralism over the airwaves.

The emergence of media such as satellite and cable television complicates this picture but contrary to some of its most fervent advocates, does not change it fundamentally. Obviously, those who can afford to subscribe to a pay channel will not be among the poorest - television owners seldom fall into that category anyway. Local cable and satellite providers are subject to the same political and economic constraints as those broadcasting on terrestrial channels. **Multinational broadcasters such as Cable News Network CNN and the British Broadcasting Corporation BBC can play an important role in breaching broadcasting monopolies.** That is why many countries, especially in the Middle East, have prohibited ownership of satellite dishes. The Middle East has been fertile soil for satellite viewing because it shares a single language, Arabic. Few other regions of the world have a common language, with the result that English-language broadcasts from Atlanta or London will have only limited impact.

For the sake of simplicity, the different types of media ownership can be summarized thus:

- Public or state-owned media, primarily in the area of broadcasting.
- Private broadcasters.
- Predominantly privately owned print media.
- Community media.

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- Media directly owned by political parties.

Concentration of media ownership also known as **media consolidation** is a commonly used term among those who are concerned that the majority of the media outlets are owned by a small number of conglomerates and corporations — especially those who view such consolidation as detrimental, dangerous, or otherwise worrying — to characterize ownership structure of mass media industries. These individual media industries are often referred to as a **'Media Institution'. Media ownership may refer to states of oligopoly or monopoly in a given media industry, or to the importance of a low number of media conglomerates.** Large media conglomerates include Disney, National Amusements, Time Warner, Viacom, News Corp, Bertelsmann AG, Sony, General Electric, Vivendi SA and Lagardère Group.

For example, **movie production is known to be dominated by major studios since the early 20th Century; before that, there was a period in which Edison's *Trust* monopolized the industry.** The music and television industries recently witnessed cases of media consolidation, with Sony Music Entertainment's parent company merging their music division with Bertelsmann AG's BMG to form Sony BMG and Time Warner's The WB and CBS Corp.'s UPN merging to form The CW. In the case of Sony BMG, there existed a "Big Five" now " Big Four" of major record companies, while The CW's creation was an attempt to consolidate ratings and stand up to the "Big Four" of American network terrestr ial television . There may also be some large-scale owners in an industry that are not the causes of monopoly or oligopoly.

UNIT 4. HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING & PROCESS

Human resources is a term with which many organizations describe the combination of traditionally administrative personnel functions with performance management, employee relations and resource planning. The field draws upon concepts developed in Industrial/Organizational Psychology. Human resources has at least two related interpretations depending on context. The original usage derives from political economy and economics, where it was traditionally called labor, one of four factors of production. The more common usage within corporations and businesses refers to the individuals within the firm, and to the portion of the firm's organization that deals with hiring, firing, training, and other personnel issues.

The objective of Human Resources is to maximize the return on investment from the organization's human capital and minimize financial risk. It is the responsibility of human resource managers to conduct these activities in an effective, legal, fair, and consistent manner. Human resource management serves these key functions:

1. Recruitment Strategy Planning
2. Hiring Processes recruitment
3. Performance Evaluation and Management
4. Promotions
5. Redundancy
6. Industrial and Employee Relations
7. Record keeping of all personal data
8. Compensation, pensions, bonuses etc in liaison with Payroll
9. Confidential advice to internal 'customers' in relation to problems at work

Modern analysis emphasizes that human beings are not "commodities" or "resources", but are creative and social beings that make class contributions beyond 'labor' to a society and to civilization. The broad term human capital has evolved to contain some of this complexity, and in micro-economics the term "firm-specific human capital" has come to represent a meaning of the term "human resources."

Advocating the central role of "human resources" or human capital in enterprises and societies has been a traditional role of Human Resource socialist parties, who claim that value is primarily created by their activity, and accordingly justify a larger claim of profits or relief from these enterprises or societies. Critics say this is

just a bargaining tactic which grew out of various practices of medieval European guilds into the modern trade union and collective bargaining unit.

A contrary view, common to capitalist parties, is that it is the infrastructural capital and what they call intellectual capital owned and fused by "management" that provides most value in financial capital terms. This likewise justifies a bargaining position and a general view that "human resources" are interchangeable.

A significant sign of consensus on this latter point is the ISO 9000 series of standards which requires a "job description" of every participant in a productive enterprise. In general, heavily unionized nations such as France and Germany have adopted and encouraged such descriptions especially within trade unions. One view of this trend is that a strong social consensus on political economy and a good social welfare system facilitates labor mobility and tends to make the entire economy more productive, as labor can move from one enterprise to another with little controversy or difficulty in adapting.

An important controversy regarding labor mobility illustrates the broader philosophical issue with usage of the phrase "human resources": governments of developing nations often regard developed nations that encourage immigration or "guest workers" as appropriating human capital that is rightfully part of the developing nation and required to further its growth as a civilization. They argue that this appropriation is similar to colonial commodity fiat wherein a colonizing European power would define an arbitrary price for natural resources, extracting which diminished national natural capital.

The debate regarding "human resources" versus human capital thus in many ways echoes the debate regarding natural resources versus natural capital. Over time the United Nations have come to more generally support the developing nations' point of view, and have requested significant offsetting "foreign aid" contributions so that a developing nation losing human capital does not lose the capacity to continue to train new people in trades, professions, and the arts.

An extreme version of this view is that historical inequities such as African slavery must be compensated by current developed nations, which benefited from stolen "human resources" as they were developing. This is an extremely controversial view, but it echoes the general theme of converting human capital to "human resources" and thus greatly diminishing its value to the host society, i.e. "Africa", as it is put to narrow imitative use as "labor" in the using society.

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Human resource planning is the term used to describe how companies ensure that their staffs are the right staff to do the jobs.

4.1. Manpower planning

The penalties for not being correctly staffed are **costly**.

- Understaffing loses the business economies of scale and specialization, orders, customers and profits.
- Overstaffing is wasteful and expensive, if sustained, and it is costly to eliminate because of modern legislation in respect of redundancy payments, consultation, minimum periods of notice, etc. Very importantly, overstaffing reduces the competitive efficiency of the business.

Planning staff levels requires that **an assessment of present and future needs of the organization be compared with present resources and future predicted resources.** Appropriate steps then be planned to bring demand and supply into balance.

Thus the first step is to take a **'satellite picture'** of the existing workforce profile numbers, skills, ages, flexibility, gender, experience, forecast capabilities, character, potential, etc. of existing employees and then to adjust this for 1, 3 and 10 years ahead by amendments for normal turnover, planned staff movements, retirements, etc, in line with the business plan for the corresponding time frames.

The result should be a series of crude supply situations as would be the outcome of present planning if left unmodified. What future demands will be is only influenced in part by the forecast of the personnel manager, whose main task may well, be to scrutinize and modify the crude predictions of other managers.

Future staffing needs will derive from:

- Sales and production forecasts
- The effects of technological change on task needs
- Variations in the efficiency, productivity, flexibility of labor as a result of training, work study, organizational change, new motivations, etc.
- Changes in employment practices
- Variations, which respond to new legislation, e.g. payroll taxes or their abolition, new health and safety requirements

- Changes in Government policies investment incentives, regional or trade grants, etc.

What should emerge from this **'blue sky gazing'** is a **'thought out'** and logical staffing demand schedule for varying dates in the future which can then be compared with the crude supply schedules. The comparisons will then indicate what steps must be taken to achieve a balance.

That, in turn, will involve the further planning of such recruitment, training, retraining, labor reductions early retirement/redundancy or changes in workforce utilization as will bring supply and demand into equilibrium, not just as a one–off but as a continuing workforce planning exercise the inputs to which will need constant varying to reflect **'actual'** as against predicted experience on the supply side and changes in production actually achieved as against forecast on the demand side.

4.2. Recruitment and selection of employees

Recruitment of staff should be preceded by:

An analysis of the job to be done i.e. an analytical study of the tasks to be performed to determine their essential factors written into a job description so that the selectors know what physical and mental characteristics applicants must possess, what qualities and attitudes are desirable and what characteristics are a decided disadvantage;

- In the case of replacement staff a critical questioning of the need to recruit at all replacement should rarely be an automatic process.
- Effectively, selection is **'buying'** an employee the price being the wage or salary multiplied by probable years of service) hence bad buys can be very expensive. For that reason some firms and some firms for particular jobs use external expert consultants for recruitment and selection.
- Equally some small organizations exist to **'head hunt'**, i.e. to attract staff with high reputations from existing employers to the recruiting employer. However, the **'cost'** of poor selection is such that, even for the mundane day-to-day jobs, those who recruit and select should be well trained to judge the suitability of applicants.

The main sources of recruitment are:

- Internal promotion and internal introductions at times desirable for morale purposes
- Careers officers and careers masters at schools
- University appointment boards
- Agencies for the unemployed
- Advertising often via agents for specialist posts or the use of other local media e.g. commercial radio

Where the organization does its own printed advertising it is useful if it has some identifying logo as its trade mark for rapid attraction and it must take care not to offend the sex, race, etc. anti discrimination legislation either directly or indirectly. The form on which the applicant is to apply personal appearance, letter of application, completion of a form will vary according to the posts vacant and numbers to be recruited.

It is very desirable in many jobs that claim about experience and statements about qualifications are thoroughly checked and that applicants unfailingly complete a health questionnaire the latter is not necessarily injurious to the applicants chance of being appointed as firms are required to employ a percentage of disabled people).

Before letters of appointment are sent any doubts about medical fitness or capacity in employments where hygiene considerations are dominant should be resolved by requiring applicants to attend a medical examination. This is especially so where, as for example in the case of apprentices, the recruitment is for a contractual period or involves the firm in training costs.

Interviewing can be carried out by individuals e.g. supervisor or departmental manager, by panels of interviewers or in the form of sequential interviews by different experts and can vary from a five minute 'chat' to a process of several days. Ultimately personal skills in judgment are probably the most important, but techniques to aid judgment include selection testing for:

- Aptitudes particularly useful for school leavers
- Attainments
- General intelligence

All of these need skilled testing and assessment. In more senior posts other techniques are:

- Leaderless groups
- Command exercises
- Group problem solving

These are some common techniques - professional selection organizations often use other techniques to aid in selection.

Training in interviewing and in appraising candidates is clearly essential to good recruitment. Largely the former consists of teaching interviewers how to draw out the interviewee and the latter how to **rate** the candidates. For consistency and as an aid to checking that rating often consists of scoring candidates for experience, knowledge, physical/mental capabilities, intellectual levels, motivation, prospective potential, leadership abilities etc. according to the needs of the post. Application of the normal curve of distribution to scoring eliminates freak judgments.

4.3. Employee Motivation

To retain good staff and to encourage them to give of their best while at work requires attention to the financial and psychological and even physiological rewards offered by the organization as a continuous exercise.

Basic financial rewards and conditions of service e.g. working hours per week are determined externally by national bargaining or government minimum wa ge legislation in many occupations but as much as 50 per cent of the gross pay of manual workers is often the result of local negotiations and details e.g. which particular hours shall be worked of conditions of service are often more important than the basics. Hence there is scope for financial and other motivations to be used at local levels.

As staffing needs will vary with the productivity of the workforce and the industrial peace achieved **so good personnel policies are desirable**. The latter can depend upon other factors like environment, welfare, employee benefits, etc. but unless the wage packet is accepted as 'fair and just' there will be no motivation.

Hence while the technicalities of payment and other systems may be the concern of others, the outcome of them is a matter of great concern to human resource management.

Increasingly the influence of behavioral science discoveries is becoming important not merely because of the widely-acknowledged limitations of money as a motivator, but because of the changing mix and nature of tasks e.g. more service and professional jobs and far fewer unskilled and repetitive production jobs.

The former demand better-educated, mobile and multi-skilled employees much more likely to be influenced by things like job satisfaction, involvement, participation, etc. than the economically dependent employees of yesteryear.

Hence, **human resource management must act as a source of information about and a source of inspiration for the application of the findings of behavioral science**. It may be a matter of drawing the attention of senior managers to what is being achieved elsewhere and the gradual education of middle managers to new points of view on job design, work organization and worker autonomy.

4.4. Employee Evaluation

An organization needs constantly to take stock of its workforce and to assess its performance in existing jobs for three reasons:

- To improve organizational performance via improving the performance of individual contributors should be an automatic proc ess in the case of good managers, but about annually two key questions should be posed:
  - What has been done to improve the performance of a person last year?
  - And what can be done to improve his or her performance in the year to come?.
- To identify potential, i.e. to recognize existing talent and to use that to fill vacancies higher in the organization or to transfer individuals into jobs where better use can be made of their abilities or developing skills.
- To provide an equitable method of linking payment to performance where there are no numerical criteria often this salary performance review takes place about three months later and is kept quite separate from 1. and 2. but is based on the same assessment.

On-the-spot managers and supervisors, not HR staffs, carry out evaluations. The personnel role is usually that of:

- Advising top management of the principles and objectives of an evaluation system and designing it for particular organizations and environments.

- Developing systems appropriately in consultation with managers, supervisors and staff representatives. Securing the involvement and cooperation of appraisers and those to be appraised.
- Assistance in the setting of objective standards of evaluation / assessment, for example:
    - Defining targets for achievement;
    - Explaining how to quantify and agree objectives;
    - Introducing self-assessment;
    - Eliminating complexity and duplication.
- Publicizing the purposes of the exercise and explaining to staff how the system will be used.
- Organizing and establishing the necessary training of managers and supervisors who will carry out the actual evaluations/ appraisals. Not only training in principles and procedures but also in the human relations skills necessary. Lack of confidence in their own ability to handle situations of poor performance is the main weakness of assessors.
- Monitoring the scheme - ensuring it does not fall into disuse, following up on training/job exchange etc. recommendations, reminding managers of their responsibilities.

Full-scale periodic reviews should be a standard feature of schemes since resistance to **evaluation / appraisal schemes** is common and the temptation to water down or render schemes ineffectual is ever present managers resent the time taken if nothing else).

Basically an evaluation / appraisal scheme is a formalization of what is done in a more casual manner anyway e.g. if there is a vacancy, discussion about internal moves and internal attempts to put square pegs into 'squarer holes' are both the results of casual evaluation. Most managers approve merit payment and that too calls for evaluation. Made a standard routine task, it aids the development of talent, warns the inefficient or uncaring and can be an effective form of motivation.

4.5. Practical Benefits

When it concerns human resources, there are the more specific criticisms that it is over-quantitative and neglects the qualitative aspects of contribution. The issue has become not how many people should be employed, but ensuring that all members of staff are making an effective contribution. And for the future, the questions are what are the skills that will be required, and how will they be acquired.

There are others, though, that still regard the quantitative planning of resources as important. They do not see its value in trying to predict events, be they wars or takeovers. Rather, they believe there is a benefit from using planning to challenge assumptions about the future, to stimulate thinking. For some there is, moreover, an implicit or explicit wish to get better integration of decision making and resourcing across the whole organization, or greater influence by the centre over devolved operating units.

Cynics would say this is all very well, but the assertion of corporate control has been tried and rejected. And is it not the talk of the process benefits to be derived self-indulgent nonsense? Can we really afford this kind of intellectual dilettantism? Whether these criticisms are fair or not, supporters of human resource planning point to its practical benefits in optimizing the use of resources and identifying ways of making them more flexible. For some organizations, the need to acquire and grow skills, which take time to develop, is paramount. If they fail to identify the business demand, both numerically and in the skills required, and secure the appropriate supply, then the capacity of the organization to fulfill its function will be endangered.

4.6. Why Human Resource Planning?
- What is human resource planning?
- How do organizations undertake this sort of exercise?
- What specific uses does it have?

In dealing with the last point we need to be able to say to hard pressed managers: why spend time on this activity rather than the other issues bulging you in tray? The report tries to meet this need by illustrating how human resource planning techniques can be applied to four key problems. It then concludes by considering the circumstances are which human resourcing can be used.

1. Determining the numbers to be employed at a new location

If organizations overdo the size of their workforce it will carry surplus or underutilized staff. Alternatively, if the opposite misjudgment is made, staff may be overstretched, making it hard or impossible to meet production or service deadlines at the quality level expected. So the questions we ask are:

- How can output be improved your through understanding the interrelation between productivity, work organization and technological development? What does this mean for staff numbers?

- What techniques can be used to establish workforce requirements?
- Have more flexible work arrangements been considered?
- How are the staffs you need to be acquired?

The principles can be applied to any exercise to define workforce requirements, whether it is a business start-up, relocation, or the opening of new factory or office.

2. Retaining your highly skilled staff

Issues about retention may not have been to the fore in recent years, but all it needs is for organizations to lose key staff to realize that an understanding of the pattern of resignation is needed.

Thus organizations should:

- Monitor the extent of resignation
- Discover the reasons for it
- Establish what it is costing the organization
- Compare loss rates with other similar organizations.

Without this understanding, management may be unaware of how many good quality staff is being lost. This will cost the organization directly through the bill for separation, recruitment and induction, but also through a loss of long-term capability.

Having understood the nature and extent of resignation steps can be taken to rectify the situation. These may be relatively cheap and simple solutions once the reasons for the departure of employees have been identified. But it will depend on whether the problem is peculiar to your own organization, and whether it is concentrated in particular groups e.g. by age, gender, grade or skill.

3. Managing an effective downsizing programme

This is an all too common issue for managers. How is the workforce to be cut painlessly, while at the same time protecting the long-term interests of the organization? A question made all the harder by the time pressures management is under, both because of business necessities and employee anxieties. HRP helps by considering:

- The sort of workforce envisaged at the end of the exercise

- The pros and cons of the different routes to get there
- How the nature and extent of wastage will change during the run-down
- The utility of retraining, redeployment and transfers
- What the appropriate recruitment levels might be.

Such an analysis can be presented to senior managers so that the cost benefit of various methods of reduction can be assessed, and the time taken to meet targets established.

If instead the CEO announces on day one that there will be no compulsory redundancies and voluntary severance is open to all staff, the danger is that an unbalanced workforce will result, reflecting the take-up of the severance offer. **It is often difficult and expensive to replace lost quality and experience**.

4. Where will the next generation of managers come from?

This issue troubles many senior managers. They have seen traditional career paths disappear. They have had to bring in senior staff from elsewhere. But they recognize that while this may have dealt with a short-term skills shortage, it has not solved the longer-term question of managerial supply: what sort, how many, and where will they come from?

To address these questions you need to understand:

- The present career system including patterns of promotion and movement, of recruitment and wastage
- The characteristics of those who currently occupy senior positions
- The organization's future supply of talent.

This then can be compared with future **requirements, in number and type**. These will of course be affected by internal structural changes and external business or political changes. Comparing your current supply to this revised demand will show surpluses and shortages, which will allow you to take corrective action such as:

- Recruiting to meet a shortage of those with senior management potential
- Allowing faster promotion to fill immediate gaps
- Developing cross functional transfers for high fliers
- Hiring on fixed-term contracts to meet short-term skills/experience deficits
- Reducing staff numbers to remove blockages or forthcoming surpluses.

Thus, **appropriate recruitment; deployment and severance policies can be pursued to meet business needs.** Otherwise processes are likely to be haphazard and inconsistent. The wrong sort of staff is engaged at the wrong time on the wrong contract. It is expensive and embarrassing to put such matters right.

4.7. How can HRP be applied?

The report details the sort of approach companies might wish to take. Most organizations are likely to want HRP systems:

- Which are responsive to change
- Where assumptions can easily be modified
- That recognize organizational fluidity around skills
- That allow flexibility in supply to be included
- That are simple to understand and use
- Which are not too time demanding.

To operate such systems organizations need:

- Appropriate demand models
- Good monitoring and corrective action processes
- Comprehensive data about current employees and the external labour market
- An understanding how resourcing works in the organization.

4.8. CONTROL TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES

Internal control

In accounting and organizational theory, Internal control is defined as a process, effected by an organization's people and information technology IT systems, designed to help the organization accomplish specific goals or objectives. It is a means by which an organization's resources are directed, monitored, and measured. It plays an important role in preventing and detecting fraud and protecting the organization's resources, both physical e.g., machinery and property and intangible e.g., reputation or intellectual property such as trademarks. At the organizational level, internal control objectives relate to the reliability of financial reporting, timely feedback on the achievement of operational or strategic goals, and compliance with laws and regulations. At the specific transaction level,

internal control refers to the actions taken to achieve a specific objective e.g., how to ensure the organization's payments to third parties are for valid services rendered. Internal control procedures reduce process variation, leading to more predictable outcomes.

4.8.1.Management

The Chief Executive Officer the top manager) of the organization has overall responsibility for designing and implementing effective internal control. More than any other individual, the chief executive sets the "tone at the top" that affects integrity and ethics and other factors of a positive control environment. In a large company, the chief executive fulfills this duty by providing leadership and direction to senior managers and reviewing the way they're controlling the business. Senior managers, in turn, assign responsibility for establishment of more specific internal control policies and procedures to personnel responsible for the unit's functions. In a smaller entity, the influence of the chief executive, often an owner-manager is usually more direct. In any event, in a cascading responsibility, a manager is effectively a chief executive of his or her sphere of responsibility. Of particular significance are financial officers and their staffs, whose control activities cut across, as well as up and down, the operating and other units of an enterprise.

4.8.2. Board of Directors

Management is accountable to the Board of Directors, which provides governance, guidance and oversight. Effective board members are objective, capable and inquisitive. They also have knowledge of the entity's activities and environment, and commit the time necessary to fulfill their board responsibilities. Management may be in a position to override controls and ignore or stifle communications from subordinates, enabling a dishonest management which intentionally misrepresents results to cover its tracks. A strong, active board, particularly when coupled with effective upward communications channels and capable financial, legal and internal audit functions, is often best able to identify and correct such a problem.

4.8.3. Auditors

The internal auditors and external auditors of the organization also measure the effectiveness of internal control through their efforts. They assess whether the controls are properly designed, implemented and working effectively, and make recommendations on how to improve internal control. They may also review

Information technology controls, which relate to the IT systems of the organization. There are laws and regulations on internal control related to financial reporting in a number of jurisdictions.

Internal control can provide reasonable, not absolute, assurance that the objectives of an organization will be met. The concept of reasonable assurance implies a high degree of assurance, constrained by the costs and benefits of establishing incremental control procedures.

Effective internal control implies the organization generates reliable financial reporting and substantially complies with the laws and regulations that apply to it. However, whether an organization achieves operational and strategic objectives may depend on factors outside the enterprise, such as competition or technological innovation. These factors are outside the scope of internal control; therefore, effective internal control provides only timely information or feedback on progress towards the achievement of operational and strategic objectives, but cannot guarantee their achievement.

4.8.4. Financial Planner

A Financial Planner or Financial Planner is a practicing professional who helps people to deal with various personal financial issues through proper planning, which includes but is not limited to these major areas: cash flow management, education planning, retirement planning, investment planning, risk management and insurance planning, tax planning, estate planning and business succession planning for business ow ners. The work engaged in by this professional is commonly known as personal financial planning. In carrying out the planning function, he is guided by the financial planning process to create a detailed strategy tailored to a client's specific situation, for meeting a client's specific goals.

People enlist the help of a financial planner because of the complexity of knowing how to perform the following:

- Providing direction and meaning to financial decisions;

- Allowing the person to understand how each financial decision affects the other areas of finance; and

- Allowing the person to adapt more easily to life changes in order to feel more secure.

Financial planning is broadly defined as a process of determining an individual's financial goals, purposes in life and life's priorities, and after considering his resources, risk profile and current lifestyle, to detail a balanced and realistic plan to meet those goals. The individual's goals are used as guideposts to map a course of action on 'what needs to be done' to reach those goals.

Alongside the data gathering exercise, the purpose of each goal is determined to ensure that the goal is meaningful in the context of the individual's situation. Through a process of careful analysis, these goals are subjected to a reality check by considering the individual's current and future resources available to achieve them. In the process, the constraints and obstacles to these goals are noted. The information will be used later to determine if there are sufficient resources available to get to these goals, and what other things need to be considered in the process. If the resources are insufficient or absent to meet any of the goals, the particular goal will be adjusted to a more realistic level or will be replaced with a new goal.

Planning often requires consideration of self-constraints in postponing some enjoyment today for the sake of the future. To be effective, the plan should consider the individual's current lifestyle so that the 'pain' in postponing current pleasures is bearable over the term of the plan. In times where current sacrifices are involved, the plan should help ensure that the pursuit of the goal will continue. A plan should consider the importance of each goal and should prioritize each goal. Many financial plans fail because these practical points were not sufficiently considered.

4.8.5. Basic Skills in Financial Management

New business leaders and managers have to develop at least basic skills in financial management. Expecting others in the organization to manage finances is clearly asking for trouble. Basic skills in financial management start in the critical areas of cash management and bookkeeping, which should be done according to certain financial controls to ensure integrity in the bookkeeping process. Financial analysis shows the "reality" of the situation of a business seen as such; financial management is one of the most important practices in management.

In the case of a corporation, the board has final responsibility for the overall financial health of the organization. Therefore, it's critical that new corporations quickly build up the roles of the board treasurer and board finance committee. The treasurer and finance committee can be wonderful assets to the chief executive when managing the finances of the organization however; **the chief executive should never completely ignore the finances by leaving them for the treasurer and other board members to manage.** The board's role in ongoing governance of finances can include ongoing review of financial reports during board meetings, approving yearly budgets and financial statements, approving a set of fiscal policies, reviewing results of a yearly audit conducted by an outside auditor, co-signing checks that are over certain limits, approving contracts, etc.

At first, when learning financial management, many people might react that the learning experience seems mostly like filling one's head with strange concepts and processes. Typically, the learning process starts with this experience -- it probably isn't until the learner actually enters an accounting transaction and analyzes a financial statement that learning about financial management seems more "**real**". But the learning process almost always starts by reviewing concepts and processes. Financial management always tells the truth about the situation of a business so the learning process is well worth the effort.

4.9. Organizational Behavior

Organizational Behavior OB) is the study and application of knowledge about how people, individuals, and groups act in organizations. It does this by taking a system approach. That is, it interprets people-organization relationships in terms of the whole person, whole group, whole organization, and whole social system. Its purpose is to build better relationships by achieving human objectives, organizational objectives, and social objectives.

Organizational behavior encompasses a wide range of topics, such as human behavior, change, leadership, teams, etc.

4.9.1. Elements of Organizational Behavior

The organization's base rests on management's philosophy, values, vision and goals. This in turn drives the organizational culture, which is composed of the formal organization, informal organization, and the social environment. The culture determines the type of leadership, communication, and group dynamics within the organization. The workers perceive this as the quality of work life,

which directs their degree of motivation. The final outcomes are performance, individual satisfaction, and personal growth and development. All these elements combine to build the model or framework that the organization operates from.

4.10. Models of Organizational Behavior

There are four major models or frameworks that organizations operate out of:

- o **Autocratic** - The basis of this model is power with a managerial orientation of authority. The employees in turn are oriented towards obedience and dependence on the boss. The employee need that is met is subsistence. The performance result is minimal.

- o **Custodial** - The basis of this model is economic resources with a managerial orientation of money. The employees in turn are oriented towards security and benefits and dependence on the organization. The employee need that is met is security. The performance result is passive cooperation.

- o **Supportive -** The basis of this model is leadership with a managerial orientation of support. The employees in turn are oriented towards job performance and participation. The employee need that is met is status and recognition. The performance result is awakened drives.

- o **Collegial -** The basis of this model is partnership with a managerial orientation of teamwork. The employees in turn are oriented towards responsible behavior and self-discipline. The employee need that is met is self-actualization. The performance result is moderate enthusiasm.

Although there are four separate models, almost no organization operates exclusively in one. There will usually be a predominate one, with one or more areas over-lapping in the other models. The first model, autocratic, has its roots in the industrial revolution. They have each evolved over a period of time and there is no one "best" model.

4.11. Organization Development

Organization Development OD is the systematic application of behavioral science knowledge at various levels, such as group, inter-group, organization, etc., to bring about planned change. Its objectives are **a higher quality of work-life, productivity, adaptability, and effectiveness.** It accomplishes this by changing attitudes, behaviors, values, strategies, procedures, and structures so that the organization can adapt to competitive actions, technological advances, and the fast pace of change within the environment.

4.11.1. There are seven characteristics of OD:

1. **Humanistic Values**: Positive beliefs about the potential of employees.
2. **Systems Orientation**: All parts of the organization, to include structure, technology, and people, must work together.
3. **Experiential Learning**: The learners' experiences in the training environment should be the kind of human problems they encounter at work. **The training should not be all theory and lecture**.
4. **Problem Solving**: Problems are identified, data is gathered, corrective action is taken, progress is assessed, and adjustments in the problem solving process are made as needed. This process is known as Action Research.
5. **Contingency Orientation**: Actions are selected and adapted to fit the need.
6. **Change Agent**: Stimulate, facilitate, and coordinate change.
7. **Levels of Interventions**: Problems can occur at one or more level in the organization so the strategy will require one or more interventions.

4.12. Media Management Skills

In today's intense business environment, companies are increasingly the target of unfavorable press reports. **Modern managers therefore must add media management skills to their resumes**. It is tempting to downplay the risks involved, but the reality is that media crises hit good companies as well as bad ones, and the risks are getting greater over time.

Many factors contribute to the rising threat.
1. First, journalists are putting companies under closer observation than ever before. As China opens up to foreign media companies and local journalists adopt more aggressive investigative techniques, that scrutiny will get even more intense.
2. Second, today's consumers are aware of their rights, and are increasingly willing to use the press to voice their grievances.
3. Third, workers feel increasing pressure from the pace of competition and the uncertainties of business transformation. It is not unusual for them to blame the employer for their anger and frustrations. As with all human hardships, a worker's tale of sorrow makes a good headline.
4. Fourth, firms are expanding in size and geographic scope, which makes it increasingly difficult to maintain control of internal risk factors. A single mistake in the realm of workplace safety, employee welfare, or product testing and quality assurance will rapidly attract media attention.

5. Finally, and making matters worse, technological advances have created new communication outlets e.g., email, blogs, short messages that rapidly transmit news of even the smallest company problems around the world.

So what can a company do to prepare for a media crisis, and minimize the damages if one strikes? The best solution is to set up a systematic process designed to

1 **Scan the environment,**

2 **Evaluate the risks of emerging problems, and**

3 **Formulate a strategic response.**

4.13. Environmental Scanning

Effective media management begins with continuous monitoring of press reports about the firm and/or its employees. This can be done internally, or by hiring an external news clipping service. In addition to reporting to the firm the extent of its positive reputation, regular media scans help it to evaluate threats. Media managers should use the scans to build an accurate picture of how the firm and its competitors are viewed by the public and the press.

Trends in public opinion and disruptions to those trends should be identified. If the environment is generally friendly and supportive, the firm has a cushion of good will that will soften the blow of any attacks. If the environment is generally hostile, the firm's actions will be viewed with skepticism. In that case it might be necessary to seek outside support for the firm's actions and statements.

Scans should also be used to identify journalists or media firms that typically support or attack the firm and its industry. Additional research should be done to determine the size of the audience and the extent of influence of each journalist and media firm. All of this information is valuable in assessing the risk of any particular to the story's influence and should reflect the likely counter-response of the public and the media.

4.14. Evaluating risks

Before trying to correct or counter an unfavorable news report, managers must have an objective assessment of the threat that is posed. Over-reacting to a minor attack can cause more harm than good. An evaluative review should first consider the current level of public awareness about the negative story and the potential for the story to spread. Many minor news attacks should be ignored because a response will only spread the news further.

More importantly, it might have drawn the attention of the international press. The local companies are tracked and covered by local news media but are largely ignored by the foreign press. If they had responded to local competitive attacks, those attacks might have appeared in international news stories. The second aspect of the evaluative review should be a consideration of the credibility or believability of the negative story. **Today's audience members are sophisticated, and they know when a story is exaggerated.** So a story about a single customer's bad reaction to a pharmaceutical product would probably fail to attract attention because it is well known that drugs have side effects experienced by some individuals. But when the problem is widespread, and knowledgeable people criticize the firm, the threat is far more serious.

The final step of the evaluative review is to assess the likely implications if a story is widely known and believed. Not all unfavorable stories have negative consequences. A Hong Kong mobile phone service provider named Sunday was criticized for using themes of sex and fear in its early advertising campaigns. News stories contained details about citizen complaints to the government regulator, and Sunday's subsequent withdrawal of the offending ads. Despite the clear evidence of official disapproval, these news stories raised the brand's visibility at a time when it was struggling to establish an image. Moreover, the young and innovative customers in Sunday's target market segment were attracted by the idea of a naughty, risk- taking service provider. In this case, the negative news supported the firm's overall brand strategy.

4.15. Forming a strategic response

When a firm does face a credible threat that is likely to cause damage to its reputation or block its ability to serve its mission, a rapid strategic response is essential. The underlying goals should be to minimize collateral damage from the story and support the firm's image during difficult times. During a crisis the public wants to see the firm take charge of the situation, particularly by moving rapidly to eliminate any risks to health or safety. They want the firm to be open and honest, and to show that it can learn from mistakes. People realize that firms themselves fall victim to the bad behavior of a few individuals, that accidents happen, and that firms cannot always predict the future outcomes of their current actions. But an inappropriate response to the crisis can quickly eliminate that basic goodwill. The worst thing a company can do in a crisis situation is to avoid the press. Many people present themselves as experts at times of crisis; include competitors, academics, former employees, government officials and members of the media

itself. Unless the company speaks up and adds its own voice to the public debate, journalists will consult other sources for input.

It is better for the company to represent itself than to let others grab control of the situation. It often helps if the attacked firm can gain the support of independent experts such as government officials, academics, or other industry officials. This adds credibility to the firm's own statements and might even redirect the focus of media attention.

UNIT 5 . FOUNDATIONS OF BEHAVIOR

5.1. Communication Skills Training Objectives
- Raising Awareness
- Understanding Communication Dynamics
- Working with Body Language
- Dealing with Assumptions
- Working with Differing Points of View
- Understanding Patterns, Habits and Beliefs
- Developing Great Listening and Responding Skills
- Developing Individual Strengths and Qualities
- Understanding Active v/s Passive Choosing
- Using Positive Reinforcement
- Managing Conflict
- Being More in Charge
- Gaining Confidence

5.2. Communication Skills

Companies talk about needing better communication skills, but often don't know exactly what that means or they don't know how to go about making   it   happen. And without doubt, unless you are a company of one, at some point or another, communication will go awry through no one's fault or intention - it's just the way it happens.

These communication skills have to be developed, honed and added to on an on-going basis. They are at the heart of interpersonal skills and the greater your awareness of how it all works, the more effective your communication will be.

Most people in business think they communicate pretty well, but mostly it is

untrue. However, even the best communicators can have their communication skills undermined when they get wrong-footed, face potential humiliation, feel misunderstood or get really surprised by someone else's behaviour.

Being a good communicator is often about feeling confident in those situations where you don't always feel comfortable. Being an effective communicator means that other people take you seriously, listen to what you have to say and engage in dialogue.

5.3. Leadership Development - Leadership Skills and Training

5.3.1. Leadership Training Objectives

- Understanding good Leadership Behaviors
- Learning the difference between Leadership and Management
- Gaining insight into your Patterns, Beliefs and Rules
- Defining Qualities and Strengths
- Determining how well you Perceive what's going on around you
- Polishing Interpersonal Skills and Communication Skills
- Learning about Commitment and How to Move Things Forward
- Making Key Decisions
- Handling Your and Other People's Stress
- Empowering, Motivating and Inspiring Others
- Leading by Example

5.3.2. Leadership Development

Leadership is one of those things that are often awfully hard to define but you know when you see it, and you definitely know when it's missing.

Indeed Leadership is one of those areas about which a huge amount is said while at the same time leaving big questions hanging in the air unanswered. And can you take someone who isn't a natural leader and turn them into one? Our approach is to run programmes where natural leaders can develop the skill and insight to become great ones.

5.4. Good Communication:

- Being Articulate

- The Ability to Think On Your Feet
- Humour
- Flexibility
- Integrity
- Compelling Presence
- Empathy

You may have some people who now have to 'step up to the plate' and take on far more of a leadership role than previously. You may need them to demonstrate the kind of leadership behaviors that others aspire to. There may be managers who have to take the next step and go beyond being good or even excellent managers, to become inspirational leaders within the business. Your company may be planning or undergoing big changes and need people to ensure those changes are made as smoothly and as anxiety free as is possible.

5.5. Good leaders can   help do this!

Today we recognize that punishment is not effective in promoting desirable behavior. We reserve it to deter illegal or otherwise undesirable actions. We may replace "**punishment**" with "**absence of reward**." The idea is to reward merit and not mediocrity. Organizations often get into real trouble when they define "merit." The performance measurement system interacts with the reward system. It determines who gets promotions, raises, and bonuses. The performance measurement system is management's magic lamp. Subordinates are the genies or djinns that grant the masters' wishes.

There is an ancient proverb that says, **"Be careful what you wish. You might get it."** Various folk tales and horror stories use this theme. The entity granting the wish always fulfills the wish's exact wording. However, the genie or magical item or whatever perverts the request so the result is harmful.

Managing change is among the most difficult parts of leadership. The dynamic, turbulent competitive environment makes organizational change more important than ever. However, many factors combine to resist change.

We must bear in mind, then, that there is nothing more difficult and dangerous, or more doubtful of success, than an attempt to introduce a new order of things in any state. For the innovator has for enemies all those who derived advantages from the old order of things while those who expect to be benefited by the new institutions will be but lukewarm defenders.

5.5.1. Factors that resist change include the following.

1 Social norms and exp ectations
2 Group cohesiveness
3 Fear of the unknown
4 Vested interests in the status quo
5 Status uncertainty; perception of threats to one's current skills, status, and autonomy
6 Networks of alliances
7 Ingrained habits
8 Perception of a threat to people's careers

5.5.2. The following forces support change.

1 Magnitude of the problem
2 Significance of the problem
3 Importance of the people who perceive the problem
4 Number of people perceiving the problem
5 Credibilit y of data identifying the problem

Leadership Empowerment Principles

1. Let go of things others can do.
2. Encourage initiative, Ideas, and risk taking.
3. Ensure that people have goals and know how they're doing.
4. Delegate to challenge, develop, and empower.
5. Coach to ensure success.
6. Reinforce good work and good attempts.
7. Share information, knowledge, and skills.
8. Value, trust, and respect each individual.
9. Provide support without taking over.
10. Practice what you preach.

5.6. Empowerment: Leadership in practice

Successful leaders are able to motivate, to energize and to empower others. When people are excited and empowered in this sense, it affects both their task initiation and task persistence. That is, empowered people get more involved, take on more difficult situations, and act more confidently. **Empowered people expend more effort on a given task and are more persistent in their efforts.**

We know that people gain confidence when they take on a new and complex task, receive training if necessary, and complete a task successfully. Therefore, one important set of leadership skills relates to coaching and counseling wherein we are concerned with providing employees with the necessary direction, information, skills and support necessary for task mastery.

We also know that when people feel more capable, they are empowered intellectually. There is a wealth of evidence that what we believe we are capable of doing is shaped by what others believe us to be capable of. If we expect people to succeed they will be more likely to do so than if we expect them to fail. Therefore, another critical set of leadership skills **is related to oral persuasion and motivation.**

A third process for activating people is to provide a successful role model from which to observe and learn. This modeling and role-model effect is not as powerful as actually experiencing mastery; however, it does have positive effects. Therefore, a third set of leadership skills is powerful-people skills, related to how you as an individual can feel and behave more powerfully, and can act as a positive leadership role model.

5.7. Coaching and counseling

The first source of empowerment comes from the information someone receives as they actually master a job-related task. **When people perform complex tasks or are given more responsibility in their jobs they have the chance to test themselves.** Successful experiences make one feel more capable and confident and, therefore, **empowered.** Therefore, a critical set of skills is related to coaching and counseling.

When acting as a coach or a counselor, **leaders are providing direction, knowledge, training, skills, resources, support and a listening and caring ear, all of which are necessary for successful task completion.** In these roles leaders can directly assist subordinates to take on, successfully complete and master, new and complex tasks.

5.8. Choosing between coaching and counseling

When a performance or attitude problem is identified, it is important to determine if the cause is due primarily to a personal problem of the employee, in which case it may be necessary to act as a counselor, or if it is more related to work motivation

or a lack of knowledge or skills, in which case the role of the coach may be more beneficial. Although these two roles overlap in many ways, it is important to have this basic distinction clearly in mind.

When counseling someone, you may have to deal more with feelings and emotions. If someone has experienced a significant re-organization, missed out on a promotion or a salary rise, feels stressed or unhappy with a peer, a superior, or a work assignment, or has personal problems that are affecting his or her work performance, the counseling option should be considered. **Good counseling does not mean giving good advice. In fact, it is better to avoid giving any advice at all**. Good counseling is not good talking; **it is good listening, real empathy, and good communication.** Effective coaching, on the other hand, is concerned with self-confidence building, skills acquisition, teamwork and motivation. If you are teaching a new job skill, orienting a new employee, or attempting to energize someone, a coaching role is more appropriate.

Many of us feel uncomfortable considering taking on the role of a counselor. Some of us may be thinking, "I am a manager, not a therapist." However, taking on the role of counselor is not the same as trying to become a therapist. Many of the skills required by the counseling role are also the skills involved in providing effective feedback, being a good communicator and a good coach.

5.9. The Coaching role

Within the coaching role, there are a number of different sub-roles or skills that are necessary.

1. **Providing direction and knowledge**. One important role is that of information gatekeeper. Leaders can provide knowledge and information regarding job responsibilities, goal expectations and plans. Another key role is to provide direction to help people to set goals and to plan.

Effective goals are specific and challenging. Goals such as wanting to 'do a good job' or to 'do better next time' are ambiguous. Goals such as 'I want to sell five new units' or 'I plan to have the first draft complete by next Friday' are more specific. In terms of challenge, **goals that are a 'stretch' for people are considered best.** That is, an easy goal provides little incentive; providing unrealistically difficult goals is also not motivating.

Providing goals that are specific and challenging are more likely to result in success. When providing direction and setting goals, the key job tasks must be clarified and time limits must be set.

However, one more critical piece of information is necessary sometimes. You need to know where you are in relation to the goal. This is an essential piece of information, sometimes overlooked. Once you know where you are, where you want to go and by when, you have all of the necessary information to begin planning how you will get from where you are to where you want to be. There are frequently a number of reasonable alternatives from which to choose at this point. You should allow people to choose their own means for goal achievement when possible. Alternatively, you should encourage active participation in the process, or at least gain agreement after discussion of the means. This facilitates ownership and involvement.

The next tasks involve establishing specific and challenging goals for each key task planned. **Also deadlines for each goal must be specified, feedback mechanisms to assess goal progress must be built in, and any coordination requirements** e.g., is the cooperation and contribution of others necessary? must be considered. In other words, the specific requirements for success must be delineated. Frequently, the person delegating or acting as the superior, has not sufficiently thought through the activities and may not have a specific and realistic expectation regarding outcomes. Finally, if appropriate, it is important to commit specific rewards contingent on goal attainment.

5.10. The key questions to ask regarding direction and goal setting are:

- Where are we now?
- Where do we want to go?
- How can we get there?
- How do we agree we will get there?
- How will we know we are going in the right direction?
- How will we know we are there?
- What will we receive when we get there?

2. **Provide resources, training and skills.** Another element of coaching is to provide the training, tools, materials, facilities, money, time, etc. necessary for people to get their jobs done. Leaders help others grow by providing information regarding opportunities for training and skills development, and the necessary resources to take advantage of those opportunities. This can be done indirectly, by

making time and/or money available. It can be done directly by actively teaching skills in certain situations.

Take a moment to think of the last time you learned or taught a new skill or technique. Perhaps you took a course related to computers or a new piece of software. Maybe you were teaching one of your children a game or sporting skill.

- Was the experience positive and successful or not?
- What were the steps involved in the process?
- Was the purpose and importance of the skill discussed?
- Was there some time taken for setting the context and the goals?
- Was the learning process explained?
- Were the skills illustrated or modeled in some way?
- Did you have a chance to practice the skills?
- Was feedback given?
- Were positive expressions of confidence and encouragement provided?

If you answered **'NO'** to too many of these questions, the experience was not very positive and was not as successful as it could have been.

When directly trying to teach someone a skill, it is important to:

- Explain the purpose and importance of what you are trying to teach;
- Explain the process to be used;
- Show how it is done;
- Observe while the person practices the process;
- Provide immediate and specific feedback;
- Express confidence in the person's ability to succeed; and
- Agree on follow-up actions if necessary.

3. **Providing support**. A critical coaching role is to provide approval, feedback, encouragement and protection where necessary. The supportive role is becoming increasingly important as individuals and teams at operational levels in organizations take on more responsibility. It may be helpful to think about you working for your subordinates, or at least to consider what services you can and do provide for them. **Coaching in this sense is true motivational power. It is the essence of true leadership.**

5.11. The Counseling role

A **counseling session** requires significant preparation. You must consider the number of sessions you estimate will be necessary, the degree of trust and rapport you have with the employee, and the employees' confidence level. For example, if you think that the situation is serious and will require your meeting with the individual once a month for the next six months, you should let the individual know that. If the employee is very self-confident and you have a good rapport established with the individual, you can be more direct and action oriented in your session. If, however, the individual is not self-confident and you do not know them very well, you will have to invest more time in gaining trust and establishing a relationship.

You should also pay attention to the physical arrangements involved making sure to remove distractions e.g., ringing telephones and physical barriers between you and the employee such as desks. If you sit behind a desk in a large chair and the employee is five meters away in a small chair next to your secretary, these arrangements are not contributing to an atmosphere of trust in which you can have a private conversation about personal issues and feelings. Because many people are anxious about counseling sessions at first, you should be quite clear about the nature of the meeting, as well as the time, the place, and duration of the session.

5.11.1. Issues for Counseling Sessions

1. **Do not judge**. Having a preconceived notion of what the real problem is, is a good way to ensure failure of the session. Being judgmental and expressing opinions regarding the employee's choices and decisions are not effective counseling behaviors. You will be more successful if you avoid words such as should, must, and ought. Once again, listening is a key.

2. **Do not give advice**. It is very tempting to make suggestions and to try and solve problems for people once you think you know what the issues are. Telling the employee what to do is giving advice. Counselors cannot solve problems for anyone except themselves. Good counseling managers listen, reflect, and try to get the employee to suggest potential solutions. Of course in your leadership role it is appropriate to provide resources and information. However, try not to fall into the trap of taking the problems on as if they were yours. The individual will benefit much more if you consider ways to empower them to handle the situation.

3. **Stay within your limits**. When taking on the role of a counselor at work you must be aware of your limitations. If the problem is beyond your scope and expertise, say so, and then refer the individual to the Human Resources department or to a professional therapist.

4. **Feelings are serious**. It is critical that counselors take a person's problem seriously and treat them in the strictest confidence. Down-playing someone's problems by saying 'cheer up' or 'don't worry' is not usually as effective as real listening and attempts to direct the person toward finding their own solutions. Of course, counselors must assure the individual involved that everything discussed will be kept confidential. This promise must be kept.

5. **Remember that emotions are difficult to express**. In many cases, it is important to address feelings and emotions at work, in addition to all that we do usually. If we do not, we are neglecting an important part of our beings, of our humanity. By addressing grief, fears, hatred or the sense of something missing, the wholeness of human expression is acknowledged. Emotional flow leads to emotional, physical and mental health for individuals and organizations. When people are afraid of feelings and emotions, or when their expression is seen as a problem, it is because they have been cut off for so long and are so far out of balance, that when the inner emotions and feelings come up and out, they explode from a distorted state of 'out-of-balance'. This is what leads to problems.

5.12. Oral Persuasion and Motivation

Verbal persuasion is perhaps the most obvious of the leadership behaviors. Leaders are expected to make inspiring speeches. Words of encouragement, positive verbal feedback and other forms of social persuasion may be used to empower people. If someone is convinced that they have the ability to master a given task, they are likely to work harder than if they harbor self-doubts or concentrate on problems when they arise. Clearly, the effect that persuasion and motivational communications have on people is likely to be weaker than the effect from one's own accomplishments; it is considerable, nonetheless.

You probably have good people working with you and for you, but they may not know it yet. For them to know it, you must be able to provide words of encouragement and positive persuasion. **Personal praise and highly visible rewards build confidence and identify role models.** If someone expects that you will do well and if they use positive oral persuasion i.e., pep talks, motivational

speeches, expressions of positive emotions, this can have a positive effect on an individual's motivation.

Oral persuasion, however, is not always talking. In order to persuade someone, you must also be an excellent listener. Some people would suggest that the only thing to consider when discussing oral persuasion is the sending part of the communication i.e., the message). Clearly, if you are trying to persuade someone of something, what you say is critical. Good persuaders, however, are first and foremost excellent listeners. When trying to persuade someone, listening is important because it is critical to be able to empathize with the other, to understand and appreciate their point of view, and to identify their objections and concerns. **The best leaders are excellent listeners**.

5.12.1. Below are some guidelines for good oral persuasion.

Establish credibility. People who like, trust and have confidence in you are more likely to be persuaded by you. If you are considered to be competent and expert, to have worthy intentions and can be trusted, to have an ethical, dependable character, and to have a friendly, enthusiastic personality, you will be more persuasive.

Use a positive, tactful tone. A negative, aggressive or condescending tone of voice may put people off, close them down, make them defensive or irritate them. If any of these things happen, your chances of persuasion have been reduced. While a respectful, direct, tactful approach may not always persuade the other person, it will at least not harm your credibility and your relationship, and it will increase your chances of successful persuasion in the future.

Present few ideas, logically, one at a time. Most people respond to reason. Straightforward, logical arguments, clearly stated, well explained and justified are more likely to convince people than those that are not. There is a tendency for us to think that five arguments or reasons are better than two. Providing too many reasons, however, allows people to grab onto the weakest of them and undermine your entire argument. It is best to present only a few of the most persuasive arguments, and to do this one at a time, to avoid the 'weakest link' problem.

Use emotion. Reason and logic are enhanced by emotional appeals. We are all motivated by our fears, our loves and our expectations. It is useful, especially when trying to motivate and excite people, to go directly to the emotional level. Using words that are active can help. However, people respond to emotion, emotionally. That is, if you interact with an enthusiastic, emotional person, their words form

only part of that impression. The rest of the impression comes from their body, their movements, their voice, etc. Therefore, if you want people to be enthusiastic about something, you must be enthusiastic about it as well and you must model that enthusiasm for them.

Listen, listen, and listen. In order to persuade someone, you have to know what motivates them. You have to have a sense of what is going on inside of them. A simple, effective way to persuade someone is to appeal to the person's self-interest. If you know what makes them tick, you can more easily persuade by illustrating how they will benefit from your proposal. This is a form of the more general tactic of tailoring your argument to the other person. If you can hear their objections, their fears or their reasoning, you have a better chance of positioning your argument and addressing relevant points.

5.13. Powerful people skills

One of the most subtle, yet effective ways to lead and empower people is to be a model of successful, assertive behavior from which others can learn. People feel empowered by watching and then modeling the behavior of others who perform successfully on the job. Quite frequently people in organizational settings look upward for cues and norms regarding expected and acceptable forms of behavior.

Being a positive role model at work means we have to stand up for ourselves, humanely and positively. When we let ourselves be known to others we gain both self-respect and respect from other people. When we act powerfully, that is, when we express our honest feelings and thoughts in direct and appropriate ways, everyone involved usually benefits in the long run. However, when we sacrifice our integrity or deny our personal thoughts and feelings, we detract from ourselves and our relationships with others, that is, we all lose confidence. Our self-esteem and our relationships suffer when we try to control others through hostility, intimidation or guilt.

Remember that **becoming a more powerful, assertive individual and role model does not guarantee that you will always get what you want**. Nor does it imply that leaders must become some sort of perfect, super-humans. These attitudes and skills are not the solutions to all of your personal and organizational problems.

However, working towards becoming a more empowering and powerful person does have the   following   potential   benefits:

1. It provides personal satisfaction because you are actively attempting to influence and be effective in situations in which you are involved.
2. It reinforces your self-confidence and self-worth.
3. It increases your personal power and value to others.
4. It provides you with more of an ability to choose for yourself when and how you respond in a given situation, rather than being at the mercy of old patterns, habits and unconscious reactions.
5. It increases your willingness to accept the consequences of your chosen actions because you are more likely to be operating from a place of personal power and a sense of conviction and confidence.

5.14. Gender Leadership

Women do have different leadership styles from men. Women run a company according to feminine principles – principles of caring, making intuitive decisions, not getting hung up on hierarchy, having a sense of work as being part of your life, not separate from it; putting your labour where your love is, being responsible to the world in how you use your profits; recognizing the bottom line should stay at the bottom.

The problem with actually mapping these differences is that the successful male managerial stereotype is so strongly embedded in organizational life that female managers are pressured to conform to it, thereby confusing research results.

One study shows-Successful managers were overwhelmingly identified exclusively with male traits. Many similar studies have been carried out since that time and all have demonstrated that the successful managerial stereotype remains male.

Many managers, both male and female, agree that sex differences in management style do exist. Interestingly both describe women's differences in positive terms. Yet when researchers ask managers to describe their own management styles they usually find no significant differences between genders. Does this mean no difference exists? No. What these findings reveal is the extent to which individuals characterize themselves in terms of dominant managerial values, in this case masculine behavior. At the same time managers describe themselves in terms that fit with the prevailing rhetoric of good management practice, now strongly associated with a consultative style and a high level of interpersonal skills.

Our research shows that many female managers are uncomfortable with the imposed leadership style and this, in turn, can lead to severe stress. Most senior

female managers have no children, believing that the combination of a career and a family is untenable. This is in stark contrast to the majority of senior male managers who have children and a wife at home to support them. Today's culture of long working hours is exacerbating the problem.

5.15. Style matters

Time after time in management development programmes, women managers demonstrate their different working styles. **Female managers emerge as significantly more 'intuitive', combined with either 'thinking' as visionaries or 'feeling' as catalysts.** The natural strength of the visionary is being strategic, while that of the catalyst is fostering higher productivity by personally motivating people. The problem with letting males dominate organizations, as we do, is that leadership style is narrowly defined.

Whilst women constitute 41% of the European workforce, they occupy only 10% of management positions and represent a mere 1% of executive board members. Yet a recent survey on the most admired boards of Britain's top 100 companies showed that they have larger boards, more women, more executive directors, their directors have more international experience and are better educated. This is a powerful business argument for greater diversity in leadership.

There is a myth about gender and leadership capabilities. This holds that women are better team players than men; more open and mature in the way they handle sensitive issues; and more conscious of their impact on others and hence better people managers than men. But the myth is false. An international survey comparing top male and female managers in the private and public sector clearly showed that women are no better or worse than men in the practice of management and leadership. It all depends on the man or woman in question, and the organization for which they work.

5.16. Factors affecting performance

Gender is a red herring. The factors that do significantly influence people's performance, however, are the length of tenure in the job and organization, the age of the manager and their attitude. In essence, the longer the manager has been in the job and been held to account for their performance, the more positive, outward-looking and mature they are both in attitude and years; and the more responsive they are to the demands of customers, the better they are as a manager.

Countless studies of men and women at work have highlighted the differences they display. The question remains, what is the relevance of such differences to managerial and leadership performance? Gender is but one demographic and, according to our survey, not a significant differentiator of performance.

However, context - the culture of the company, the leadership style of the boss and the attitudes in the office – does play a powerful role. Men and women occupying comparable jobs but in different organizations are likely to react differently, not because of differences of personality, or gender, but because of contextual pressures.

Women are now regarded as a special case, requiring particular attention in order to be treated on merit, with the recognition that 'feminine qualities and styles' neither hinder nor help performance. However, differentiating women from men in order to appoint the most promising candidate does not mean that, once appointed, similar attention will enhance performance.
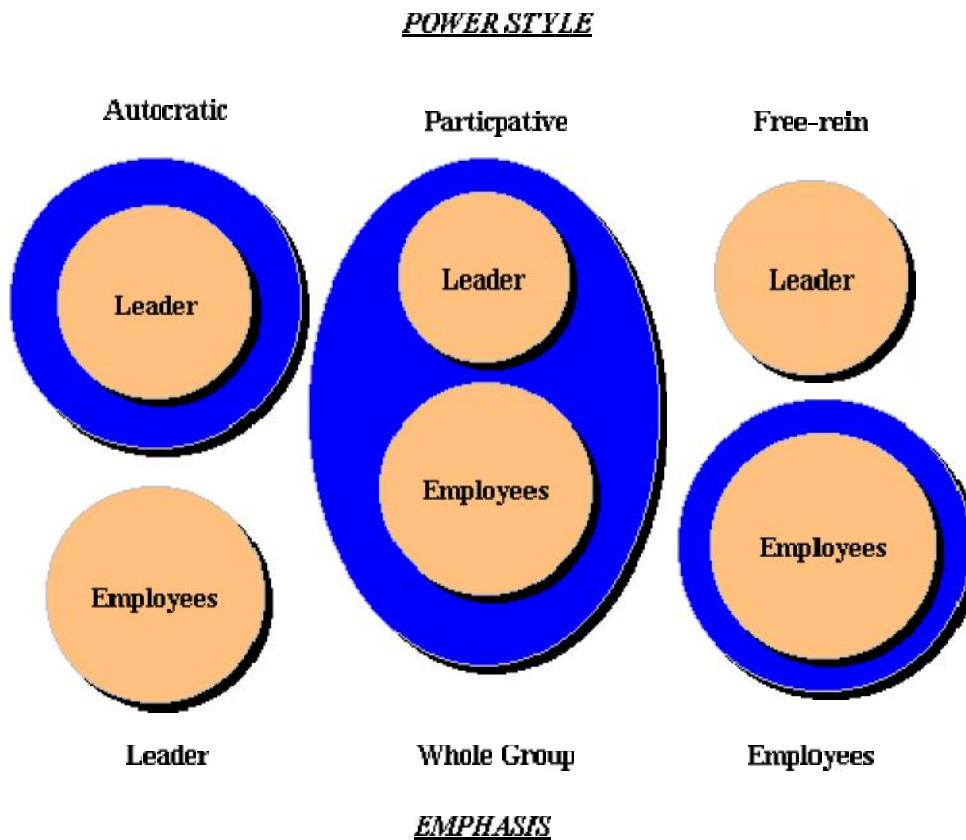
The peculiarities of the job and the organization require individuals to fit in and yet contribute. The capacity to balance these paradoxical demands rests with each individual, irrespective of their gender. Both women and men can act as 'bulls in china shops', as well as sophisticated managers.

5.17. Leadership Styles

Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. There are normally three styles of leadership.

- o **Authoritarian or autocratic**
- o **Participative or democratic**
- o **Delegative or Free Reign**

POWER STYLE

Autocratic   Particpative   Free-rein

Leader   Leader   Leader

Employees   Employees

Leader   Whole Group   Employees

EMPHASIS

Although good leaders use all three styles, with one of them normally dominate, bad leaders tend to stick with one style.

Authoritarian autocratic)

This style is used when the leader tells her employees what she wants done and how she wants it done, without getting the advice of her followers. Some of the appropriate conditions to use it is when you have all the information to solve the problem, you are short on time, and your employees are well motivated.

Some people tend to think of this style as a vehicle for yelling, using demeaning language, and leading by threats and abusing their power. This is not the authoritarian style...rather it is an abusive, unprofessional style called **bossing people around**.

The authoritarian style should normally only be used on rare occasions. If you have the time and want to gain more commitment and motivation from your employees, then you should use the participative style.

Participative democratic)

This type of style involves the leader including one or more employees in on the decision making process determining what to do and how to do it). However, the leader maintains the final decision making authority. Using this style is not a sign of weakness; rather it is a sign of strength that your employees will respect.

This is normally used when you have part of the information, and your employees have other parts. Note that a leader is not expected to know everything -- this is why you employ **knowledgeable** and **skillful** employees. Using this style is of mutual benefit -- it allows them to become part of the team and allows you to make better decisions.

Delegative free reign)

In this style, the leader allows the employees to make the decision. However, the leader is still responsible for the decisions that are made. **This is used when employees are able to analyze the situation and determine what needs to be done and how to do it. You cannot do everything! You must set priorities and delegate certain tasks.**

This is not a style to use so that you can blame others when things go wrong, rather this is a style to be used when you have the full trust and confidence in the people below you. Do not be afraid to use it, however, use it **wisely!**

A good leader uses all three styles, depending on what forces are involved between the followers, the leader, and the situation.

Some examples include:
  o Using an **authoritarian** style on a new employee who is just learning the job. The leader is competent and a good coach. The employee is motivated to learn a new skill. The situation is a new environment for the employee.
  o Using a **participative** style with a team of workers who know their job. The leader knows the problem, but does not have all the information. The employees know their jobs and want to become part of the team.
  o Using a **delegative** style with a worker who knows more about the job than you. You cannot do everything! The employee needs to take ownership of her job. Also, the situation might call for you to be at other places, doing other things.

o **Using all three**: Telling your employees that a procedure is not working correctly and a new one must be established authoritarian. Asking for their ideas and input on creating a new procedure participative). Delegating tasks in order to implement the new procedure delegative).

Forces that influence the style to be used included:
- How much time is available?
- Are relationships based on respect and trust or on disrespect?
- Who has the information - you, your employees, or both?
- How well your employees are trained and how well you know the task.
- Internal conflicts.
- Stress levels.
- Type of task. Is it structured, unstructured, complicated, or simple?
- Laws or established procedures such or training plans.

Positive and Negative Approaches

There is a difference in ways leaders approach their employee. Positive leaders use rewards, such as education, independence, etc. to motivate employees, while negative employees emphasize penalties. While the negative approach has a place in a leader's repertoire of tools, it must be used carefully due to its high cost on the human spirit.

Negative leaders act domineering and superior with people. They believe the only way to get things done is through penalties, such as loss of job, days off without pay, reprimand employees in front of others, etc. They believe freighting everyone into higher level of productivity increases their authority. Yet what always happens when this approach is used wrongly is that morale falls; which of course leads to lower productivity.

Also note that most leaders do not strictly use one or another, but are somewhere on a continuum ranging from extremely positive to extremely negative. People who continuously work out of the negative are bosses while those who primarily work out of the positive are considered real leaders.

5.18. Motivating Employees

Motivating employees is a never-ending challenge for managers. Here are some basic principles to follow to foster better employee motivation and performance.

The basic principle of employee motivation is simple: people do what gets them what they want. You could ask your employees what they want but the old saying: 'actions speak louder than words' is a better guide, so you need to be a keen observer. There are some general principles of employee motivation that apply to nearly eve ryone. Then there is the question of what motivates particular team members.

5.19. General Principles:

- **Don't de-motivate people**. Taking away benefits or downgrading working conditions is turn offs. So is rudeness, harsh treatment or a lack of fairness.
- **Make rewards** contingent on the behavior you want. Regular salary is not as motivating as pay for performance although if your employees value security and think that performance related pay is too much pressure, this tactic can backfire.
- **Show that you value people**'s contributions. Employees are motivated when they feel appreciated. Patting people on the back for a job well done is a good first step, but asking them for their input is even more powerful. Involve employees in making important decisions.
- Employees are motivated when they feel **appreciated.** Patting people on the back for a job well done is a good first step, but asking them for their input is even more powerful. Give employees new and interesting challenges to keep them stimulated and learning.
- **Don't take moaning at face value**. Sometimes employees complain about workload or long hours and mean it but other times they complain because they don't feel appreciated.
- **Motivating individual employees**. Spend time with each team member regularly, at least once a quarter if not every month. Ask questions like: 'What do you most/least enjoy doing?' What would you like to do more/less of in future?'' What would you like to get exposure to or learn about?'' ''How do you like to spend your time at work? What really gives you a buzz?''

5.20. Motivational Factors

Different things motivate people. Here is a list of some prominent factors:
- Recognition
- New challenges
- Opportunities to meet new people
- A chance to learn and develop new skills
- Autonomy,
- Being given extra responsibility
- Clear goals;
- A chance to achieve tangible outcomes
- Feeling involved
- Status – a new title or privileges
- Inspirational appeals, emotionally expressed vision.

The key to success in motivating employees is to avoid the **'one size fits all'** mentality. Beware of assuming that the same things that drive you motivate all employees. If an employee is just coming to work and putting in minimum effort before dashing home, then it is not this person's fault. It may be that nothing you have offered really excites this person. It's imperative to avoid a blame approach. You need to think harder about what it will take to engage this person.

In today's turbulent, often chaotic, environment, commercial success depends on employees using their full talents. Yet in spite of the myriad of available theories and practices, managers often view motivation as something of a mystery. In part this is because individuals are motivated by different things and in different ways.

In addition, these are times when de-layering and the flattening of hierarchies can create insecurity and lower staff morale. Moreover, more staff than ever before are working part time or on limited-term contracts, and these employees are often especially hard to motivate.

The heart of motivation is to give people what they really want most from work.

The more you are able to provide what they want, the more you should expect what you really want, namely: productivity, quality, and service.

A positive motivation philosophy and practice should improve **productivity, quality, and service.**

Motivation helps people:

- Achieve goals;
- Gain a positive perspective;
- Create the power to change;
- Build self-esteem and capability,
- Manage their own development and help others with theirs.

5.21. ESTABLISHING A MEDIA ORGANIZATION

What are the characteristics that define an effective nonprofit organization?

Establishing an organization requires a full understanding of the key characteristics. They include **a vital mission, clear lines of accountability, adequate facilities, reliable and diverse revenue streams, and high-quality programs and services.**

Tasks you will need to accomplish as part of the process of establishing an organization:

- File the certificate of incorporation
- Select individuals to serve on the board of directors
- Develop vision and mission statements
- Establish bylaws and board policies
- Obtain an employer identification number
- Open a bank account and establish check signing procedures
- File for federal tax exemption
- Follow state and local nonprofit regulations
- Find office space and obtain office equipment
- Recruit staff and prepare a personnel manual
- Establish a payroll system and procure necessary insurance coverage
- Develop an overall fundraising plan

5.21.1. File the Certificate of Incorporation

The first step in becoming a corporation is drafting the legal incorporation document the "certificate" or "articles" of incorporation--and filing the document

with the appropriate office within your state government, usually the office of the Secretary of State or Attorney General. In some states, approval must first be obtained from any state agency that will be regulating the proposed programs of the nonprofit organization. State incorporation usually can be accomplished within a matter of weeks, although multiple or complex state agency reviews can considerably extend that period.

As you prepare the articles of incorporation, you will need to determine the **name of the organization, where the organization will be headquartered, and its overall purpose.** When preparing the "**purposes clause**," remember to state the goals of the organization broadly in order to provide program flexibility in the future, and do not include purposes that will trigger state agency reviews of the proposed incorporation unless your organization in fact plans to conduct those programs.

Prior to the incorporation process, you also will need to make a decision whether or not your nonprofit will be a membership organization. Members may have significant rights with respect to internal governance, such as the right to elect and remove directors, vote upon changes in the structure of the organization and amend bylaws. Becoming a membership organization can be beneficial.

Select individuals to serve on the board of directors

The **board of directors** is the governing body of an organization. The responsibilities of the board include **discussing and voting on the highest priority issues, setting organizational policies, and hiring and evaluating key staff.** Board members are not required to know everything about management, but they are expected to act prudently and in the best interests of the organization. They approve operating budgets, establish long-term plans, and carry out fundraising activities.

Finding desirable board members can be a difficult task. **A good board member is someone who is interested in the organization's purpose, willing to work within a group, and be in a position to make financial contributions to the organization, or to find others who will.** Inviting prominent members of the community to join your board can attract interest, excitement and prestige to the organization. It is also desirable if board members are well known in the field in which the organization functions and it can be extremely beneficial if they have expertise in areas such as real estate, nonprofit law and accounting. For example, having someone on your board that is savvy on real estate matters can be quite

helpful when complex issues arise down the road, such as negotiating leases or purchase contracts.

Important points during this process:

- It is essential that prospective board members be told what is expected of them before they are proposed for election. Asking people to join the board without providing a "job description" is sure to create an ineffective board.
- Build a board slowly. Proceeding carefully can provide the necessary time for learning why an individual wants to become a board member, and deciding whether his or her agenda is compatible with the organization.

- **When building the board, it is important to recruit beyond your immediate circle of friends and acquaintances**. Often, there is an assumption that professionals and businesspeople will not be sympathetic to the pursuits of a new grassroots organization.

5.21.2. Develop vision and mission statements

Vision and mission statements should articulate the essence of your organization's beliefs and values and define its place in the world. They establish the long-term direction that guides every aspect of an organization's daily operations.

To distinguish between the two, **a vision statement expresses an organization's optimal goal and reason for existence, while a mission statement provides an overview of the group's plans to realize that vision by identifying the service areas, target audience, and values and goals of the organization.**

The following statements highlight the difference between vision and mission:

In drafting appropriate statements for your organization, you might think about answers to the following questions to guide you:

Vision

- What are the values or beliefs that inform your work?
- What would you ultimately hope to accomplish as a result of your efforts?

Mission

- How do you plan to work toward this broad vision?

- For whose specific benefit does the organization exist?

5.21.3. Establish bylaws and board policies

Bylaws define how an organization will be managed and how it will run. They determine which staff and board members have authority and decision-making responsibilities and how those responsibilities should be carried out. They create a **framework** for the organization, and aid in resolving internal disputes. They also describe the rules for calling board meetings, and how and when board members are elected.

In addition to bylaws, it is advisable to have something at a lower level of formality, such as board policies.

5.21.4. Obtain an employer identification number

To open one or more bank accounts in the name of the organization, you will need to obtain an employer identification number also called a federal tax identification number.

Open a bank account and establish check-signing procedures. **It is important to establish a prudent system of checks and balances when dealing with the finances of an organization.** It is advisable to allocate finance work among several people so that no one person is in charge of handling all of the transactions related to money. For example, when dealing with the receipt of cash, there should be one staff member who receives and tallies the funds, but a different staff member who then is responsible for taking the money to the bank and making the deposit. You should arrange for bank statements to be sent directly to the executive director, in order to ensure that each transaction can be accounted for.

By proceeding in such a prudent fashion, the potential for misappropriation of funds is minimized. Such sound fiscal procedures will please auditors, as well as future donors.

5.21.5. File for federal tax exemption

You will need to file with the Internal Revenue Service for tax-exempt status. Within three to six months of submitting your paperwork, you ordinarily will receive a letter, granting tax-exempt status to your organization.

Organizations that achieve this status are exempt from federal taxes, and contributions given to them are deductible by donors for income tax purposes. Success in securing both state incorporation and federal tax-exempt status usually requires the assistance of an **attorney**, and competent **legal counsel** often helps the process move along smoothly.

5.21.6. Follow state and local regulations

Once you receive tax-exempt status from the government, it is likely that you will need to file separately for state and local tax exemptions. If your organization plans to fundraise actively in several states, you may need to register in each state in which you will be soliciting from the public. Check with your State Department of Finance or Taxation to secure the necessary forms. For property tax exemption, apply to your local county, town, or city tax a ssessor's office.

5.21.7. Find office space and obtain office equipment

Finding office space can be a challenge, and there are many complex challenges involved with negotiating a lease. These often include the cost of utilities, renovations and charges for building maintenance. The process often runs quite smoothly, however, if you have a board member with experience negotiating leases.

As you obtain office equipment, you will need to consider whether you should rent or buy. If you buy, there will be significant up-front costs or financing costs. Regardless of whether you rent or buy, you will need to evaluate the quality of the equipment, as well as the service contract and associated cost.

5.21.8. Recruit staff and prepare a personnel manual

It is essential for your organization to have solid staff in place to carry out programs and administrative functions. Finding competent staff is extremely important, and in some ways it is even more challenging than recruiting board members. Initially, your staff will be smaller than the board, and the staff is going to need to encompass all of the qualities that you seek for the board as a whole. You will want senior staff **to be charismatic, articulate, well connected, and organized.** They also will need to be good managers, experienced fundraisers, and have a solid understanding of the organization's goals, and effective ways in which they can be implemented.

As you build up your staff, you will need to prepare a personnel manual, which outlines policies related to overtime, annual and sick leave, health insurance and retirement benefits.

Establish a payroll system and procure necessary insurance coverage

You will need to make payroll arrangements to compensate your full time and part time staff, as well as independent contractors. It is important to distinguish the role of independent contractors from that of part time staff. Independent contractors are hired to perform very specialized, short-term projects for the organization i.e. accountants, lawyers, consultants, whereas part time staffs are permanent or long - term employees of the organization. In addition to salary, benefits are an important part of the compensation package, and your state government will insist that you have certain coverage. These ordinarily include workers' compensation and disability insurance.

5.21.9. Develop an overall plan

There are many different ways to maintain a viable, financially stable organization. It is important to develop funding from a mix of individual and institutional sources, as well as earned income generated from special events, products, services and membership fees.

Individuals extend their support in a variety of ways: they make contributions and pledges in response to direct mail requests, advertising on the Internet, door-to-door advertising, and face-to-face solicitations. Institutions that provide both financial and in-kind support include foundations; businesses and corporations; local, state and federal governments; and other such institutions.

Today, diversification of support is vital, and no organization can hope to finance its work successfully from any one source.

As you begin the process of establishing your organization, it is important to remember that before you begin the process, your organization must be able to demonstrate the key characteristics of a successful organization: a vital mission, clear lines of accountability, high-quality programs and services, and reliable and diverse revenue streams.

5.22. Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is the practice of starting new organizations or revitalizing mature organizations, particularly new businesses generally in response to identified opportunities. Entrepreneurship is often a difficult undertaking, as a vast majority of new businesses fail. **Entrepreneurial activities are substantially different depending on the type of organization that is being started.** Entrepreneurship ranges in scale from solo projects even involving the entrepreneur only part-time) to major undertakings creating many job opportunities. Many "high-profile" entrepreneurial ventures seek venture capital or angel fundingAn **angel investor** or **angel**, is an affluent individual who provides capital for a business start-up, usually in exchange for convertible debt or ownership equity. A small but increasing number of angel investors organize themselves into **angel networks** or **angel groups** to share research and pool their investment capital in order to raise capital to build the business. Angel investors generally seek returns of 20-30% and more extensive involvement in the business. Many kinds of organizations now exist to support would-be entrepreneurs, including specialized government agencies, business incubators, and some NGOs.

5.22.1. Characteristics of Entrepreneurship

- The entrepreneur has an enthusiastic vision, the driving force of an enterprise.
- The entrepreneur's vision is usually supported by an interlocked collection of specific ideas not available to the marketplace.
- The overall blueprint to realize the vision is clear; however details may be incomplete, flexible, and evolving.
- The entrepreneur promotes the vision with enthusiastic passion.
- With persistence and determination, the entrepreneur develops strategies to change the vision into reality.
- The entrepreneur takes the initial responsibility to cause a vision to become a success.
- Risks; Entrepreneurs take prudent risks. They assess costs, market/customer needs and persuade others to join and help.
- An entrepreneur is usually a positive thinker and a decision maker.

5.22.2. Importance of Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is a key driver of our economy. Wealth and a high majority of jobs are created by small businesses started by entrepreneurially minded individuals, many of whom go on to create big businesses. People exposed to entrepreneurship frequently express that they have more opportunity to exercise creative freedoms, higher self-esteem, and an overall greater sense of control over their own lives. As a result, many experienced business people political leaders, economists, and educators believe that fostering a robust entrepreneurial culture will maximize individual and collective economic and social success on a local, national, and global scale.

QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

1. State the importance of media organization.
2. What are the forms of media organizations?
3. Define media organization.
4. Define media management.
5. What is the meant by accountability in a media management?
6. Explain the concept of centralization.
7. State the process of recruitment and selection in Human Resource planning.
8. Enumerate the types of leadership.
9. How can employees be motivated?
10. What are the techniques of financial control in an organization?
11. State the steps involved in establishing a media organization.
12. What is meant by entrepreneurship?
13. What are the various sources of finance in an organization?
14. What is the process of training in Human Resource Planning?
15. Write a note on gender leadership.
16. What are the main features of media organization? Explain its structure.
17. How do the concept so Authority and Responsibility affect a media organization.
18. Discuss the nature and management functions of an organization.
19. Define media planning. Explain its process and importance.
20. Compare between centralization and decentralization in an organization.