COURSE GUIDE

MAC 412
MEDIA MANAGEMENT

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NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

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INTRODUCTION

Media Management (MAC 412) is one-semester 3-credit unit course. It is designed to acquaint you with the knowledge, principles and skills of mass media organisation management.

The course highlights the general philosophy of management and management theories, and their practical applications in contemporary media organisation management.

This course guide is designed to equip students with the necessary information about the content of the course and the needed materials for a proper understanding of the subject matter. There is also provision for tutor-marked-assignments and students are advised to handle this with all seriousness.

COURSE AIMS

The main aim of this course is to teach the most result-oriented ways of managing mass media organisations (with their peculiarities) viz-a-viz the contemporary business environment and the Nigerian business landscape in particular. Management functions and managerial skills would be discussed. Management theories and communication lines in media organisations would be examined. Issues on handling organisational grievances, complaints and conflict management as well as ethics and social responsibility in media management would be highlighted.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the course, you should be able to:

*   state the general principles and theories of management and how they are applied in media organisation organisations
*   administer media organisations especially in this age of media proliferations.

The course shall also acquaint you with the knowledge of the pertinent legal and ethical issues revolving around contemporary media organisation management.

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

To effectively harness and retain the rich information in this course, you are expected to read the recommended texts and other materials provided by the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN).

The self- assessment exercise spelt out in each unit must be taken seriously. You are expected from time to time to submit assignments for assessment. There will be an examination at the end of this course. Stated below are the components of the course and what you ought to do.

COURSE MATERIALS

The major components of the course are:

1.   Course Guide
2.   Study Units
3.   Textbooks
4.   Assignment File
5.   Presentation

In addition, you must obtain your copy of the materials. They are provided by NOUN. In some cases, you may be required to obtain your copy from the bookshop. In case you have any problem in obtaining your materials, you may contact your tutor.

STUDY UNITS

Module 1   Understanding the Concept of Management in Media Organisations

Unit 1   Meaning and Types of Media Management
Unit 2   Functions and Characteristics of Management in Media Organisations
Unit 3   Purpose of Media Management/Managerial Skills
Unit 4   Qualities/Duties of a Media Manager

Module 2   Theoretical Perspectives to Media Management

Unit 1   Management Theories: Meaning and Relevance in Media Organisation Management
Unit 2   Classical Management Theories
Unit 3   Behaviour and Human Relations Theories
Unit 4   Systems/Contingency Theories

Unit 5   Quantitative Management Theories and Total Quality
               Management (TQM)

Module 3   Media Organisation and its Environment

Unit 1   Meaning and Types of Organisation
Unit 2   Nature and Features of Media Organisations Environment
Unit 3   Media Organisational Structures
Unit 4   Departments in Media Organisations
Unit 5   Sources of Revenue for Media Organisations

Module 4   Administration of Media Organisations

Unit 1   Communication Process in Media Organisation
Unit 2   Performance Appraisal and Management by Objectives
               (MBO)
Unit 3   Motivation in Media Organisations
Unit 4   Managing Conflict in Media Organisations

Module 5   Issues in Media Ownership and Management

Unit 1   Media Ownership and Control
Unit 2   Leadership Process in Media Organisations
Unit 3   Media Management in the Age of Media Proliferations
Unit 4   Ethics and Social Responsibilities in Media Management

Each unit is accompanied by a number of self-tests which are drawn
from the materials you have already gone through. The tests are
designed to keep you abreast of what you have studied from the course
materials. If properly utilised, the excellent combination of self-tests
with tutor-marked-assignments will in no small measure lead to the
achievement of the overall objectives of the course.

TEXTBOOKS AND REFERENCES

Aina, S. (2002). *Modern Media Management*. Nigeria: Ebensun
       Publishers.

Eze, F.C. (2006). *Human Resource Management in Nigeria*. (2nd ed.).
       Enugu: De-Verge Agencies Publication.

Nwodu, L.C. (2006). *Journalism Practice: News Aesthetics, Ethics and
       Laws.* Enugu:Rhyce Kerex Publishers.

Nworgu, K.O. (2011). *Understanding Mass Communication Concepts
       and Applications*. Owerri: Ultimate Books.

Nwosu, I.E. (2004). "Conflict Management, Communication and Mass Media: A Conceptual, Theoretical and Introductory Analysis". In: Nwosu & Des Wilson (Eds.). *Communication, Media and Conflict Management in Nigeria*. Enugu: Prime Targets Ltd.

Obeleagu, C.G, Emejulu G. & Onubogu, A. O. (1997). *Contemporary Business Management.* Onitsha: Baset Printing & Publishing Ltd.

Ogbuoshi, L.I. (2010). *Understanding Newspaper Management and Production*. Enugu: Linco Enterprises Ltd.

Ogunsiji, M.A. (1989). *Introduction to Print Journalism*. Lagos: Nelson Publishers.

Okafor, L.C. & Udu, A. U. (2005). *Essentials of Business Management*. Enugu: Rhyce Kerex Publishers.

Okafor, L.C. *et al* (2011). *Elements of Management*. Enugu: Rhyce Kerex Publishers.

ASSIGNMENT FILE

In the assignment file, you will get the details of the work you are expected to submit to your tutor for marking. The marks you obtain from these assignments will count towards the final mark you obtain in this course.

Further information on the assignment will be found in the assignment file itself and later in this course guide in the section on assessment.

ASSESSMENT

There are two aspects to the assessment of the course. First is the tutor-marked-assignment; second, there is a written examination.

In tackling the assignments, you are expected to apply information and knowledge acquired during this course.

The assignments must be submitted to your tutor for formal assessment in accordance with the deadlines stated in the assignment file. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30 percent of your total course mark.

At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final three-hour examination. This will count for 70 percent of your total course mark.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

There are twenty two tutor-marked-assignments in this course. You need to submit all the assignments. Assignment questions for the units in this course are contained in the assignment file. You should be able to complete your assignments from the information and materials contained in your textbooks, reading and study units. However, you are advised to use other references to broaden your viewpoint and provide a deeper understanding of the subject.

When you have completed each assignment, send it, together with the tutor-marked-assignment form to your tutor. Make sure that each assignment reaches your tutor on or before the deadline given to the assignment file. If, however, you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutor before the assignment is done to discuss the possibility of an extension.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination of MAC 412 will be for three hours and has a value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions which reflect the type of self-testing, practice exercises and tutor-marked assignments you have come across. All areas of the course will be assessed.

You are advised to revise the entire course after studying the last unit before you sit for the examination. You will find it useful to review your tutor-marked-assignments and the comments of your tutor on them before the final examination.

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The presentation schedule included in your course materials gives you the important dates for the completion of tutor-marked-assignments and attending tutorials. Remember, you are required to submit all your assignments by the due dates. You should guard against falling behind in your work.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

This table shows how the actual course is broken down.

Assessment	Marks
Assignment 1-22	22 assignments, best four marks of fifteen count at 7.5% (on the averages) = 30% of course marks
Final Examination	70% of overall course marks 100% of course marks

COURSE OVERVIEW

This table brings together the units, the number of weeks you should take to complete them, and the assignments that follow them.

Unit	Title of work	Week's Activity	Assessment (End of Unit)
	Course Guide		
	Module 1		
1	Meaning and Types of Media Management	1	Assignment 1
2	Functions and Characteristics of Media Management	2	Assignment 2
3	Purpose of Media Management/Managerial Skills	3	Assignment 3
4	Qualities/Duties of Media Managers	4	Assignment 4
	Module 2		
1	Management Theories: Meaning and Relevance in Media Management	5	Assignment 5
2	Classical Management Theories	6	Assignment 6
3	Behaviour and Human Relations Theories	7	Assignment 7
4	Systems/Contingency Theory	8	Assignment 8
5	Quantitative Management Theories and TQM	9	Assignment 9
	Module 3		
1	Meaning and Types of Organisations	10	Assignment 10
2	Nature/Features of Media Organisation Environment	11	Assignment 11
3	Media Organisational Structures	12	Assignment 12
4	Departments in Media Organisations	13	Assignment 13
5	Sources of Revenue for Media Organisations	14	Assignment 14

	Module 4		
1	Communication Process in Media Organisations	15	Assignment 15
2	Performance Appraisal and Management by Objectives	16	Assignment 16
3	Motivations in Media Organisations	17	Assignment 17
4	Handling Grievances, Complaints and Conflicts in Media Organisations	18	Assignment 18
	Module 5		
1	Media Ownership and Control	19	Assignment 19
2	Leadership Process in Media Organisations	20	Assignment 20
3	Media Management in the Age of Media Proliferation	21	Assignment 21
4	Ethics and Social Responsibility in Media Management	22	Assignment 22
	Revision	23	
	Examination	24	

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning, the study units replace the lecturer. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suit you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to a lecturer. In the same way that a lecturer might set you some readings to do, the study units tell you when to read your set books or other materials, just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise, your study units provide exercises for you to do at appropriate points.

Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next is set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. You should use these objectives to guide your study. When you have finished the units, you must go back and check whether or not you have achieved the objectives. If you make a habit of doing this, you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course.

The main body of the unit guides you through the required readings from other sources. This will usually be either from your set books or from other materials.

READING SECTION

Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. So, when you need help, don't hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.

1.   Read this Course Guide thoroughly.

2.   Organise a study schedule. Refer to the 'Course Overview' for more details. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Whatever method you chose to use, you should fashion out your own convenient schedule for working on each unit.

3.   Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything you can to stick to it. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind with their course work. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your tutor know before it is too late for help.

4.   Turn to unit 1 and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.

5.   Assemble the study materials. Information about what you need for a unit is given in the 'Overview' at the beginning of each unit. You will almost always need both the study unit you are working on and one of your set books on your desk at the same time.

6.   Work through the unit. The content of the unit itself has been arranged to provide a sequence for you to follow. As you work through the unit you will be instructed to read sections from your set books or other articles. Use the unit to guide your reading.

7.   Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study material or consult your tutor.

8.   When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can then start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to pace your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.

9.   When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, both on the tutor-marked assignment form and also on what is written on the

assignment. Consult your tutor as soon as possible if you have any questions or problems.

10.   After completing the unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in this Course Guide).

FACILITATORS, TUTOR AND TUTORIALS

There are 12 hours of tutorials in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of these tutorials, together with the name and phone number of your tutor, as soon as you are allocated to a tutorial group.

Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and on any difficulties you might encounter and provide assistance to you during the course. You must mail your tutor-marked-assignments to your tutor well before the due date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not hesitate to contact your tutor by telephone, e-mail, or discussion board if you need help. The following might be circumstances in which you would find help necessary. Contact your tutor if:

-       you do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings,
-       you have difficulty with the self-tests or exercises,
-       you have a question or problem with an assignment, with your tutor's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

You should try your best to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face to face contact with tutor and to ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study. To gain the maximum benefit from course tutorials, prepare a question list before attending them, you will learn a lot from participating in discussions actively.

SUMMARY

MAC 412 is designed to equip you with the principles and practice of media management.

Upon completion of the course, you should be able to answer the following questions among others:

- what is management?
- what are the types of management?
- what are the functions of media management?
- what are the characteristics of media management?
- what are the qualities/duties of a good media?
- what management theories are relevant in today's media organisations?
- what do you understand by media organisational structures?
- identify the departments in media organisation and the kind of jobs they do.
- what are the sources of revenue open to a media manager?
- what is MBO?
- what are the strategies for managing conflicts in media organisations?
- what are the types of media ownership and control?
- what are the challenges of media management in this era of media proliferations?
- what ethical challenges confront today media managers?

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MODULE 1   UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF MANAGEMENT IN MEDIA ORGANISATIONS

Unit 1   Meaning and Types of Media Management
Unit 2   Functions and Characteristics of Media Management
Unit 3   Purpose of Media Management/Managerial Skills
Unit 4   Qualities/Duties of a Media Manager

UNIT 1   MEANING AND TYPES OF MEDIA MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Meaning of Management
        3.2   Types of Management
4.0   Conclusions
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Management is a common activity in the human society. Virtually everyone practices management on daily basis either consciously or inadvertently. From the basic individual and family levels, to large multi-national organisations, management takes place. In media organisations, it is even a more serious matter because of the role the media play in the society. This unit examines the meaning and types of management in the context of media organisations.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define management
- identify the various types of management
- explain management in the media context.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Management

When people hear the term "management" many of them quickly take their minds to the big establishments such as universities like the National Open University of Nigeria; huge multi-national companies like Shell and Chevron; large commercial banks such as First Bank of Nigeria Plc., or the United Bank for Africa, big media organisations like Nigeria Television Authority and Africa Independent Television, etc. Be that as it may, the fact remains that virtually everyone engages in management on daily basis knowingly or unknowingly.

For instance, a student who receives his up-keep allowances every semester consisting of three to four months practices management. This is because each time his allowances come; he evaluates his present needs and makes plans for the next three to four months. His plans may include food, books, stationery, toiletries, wears, transport, etc. At the end, he makes personal assessment to see whether or not he overspent the amount he planned. Also, a civil servant who receives his monthly salary and plans on how to spend it in order to sustain him and his family till he receives another is directly or indirectly practicing management.

What is Management?

For better understanding of the meaning of management, it is necessary that we consider some definitions by some writers and experts.

1.   To manage is to forecast and plan; to organise, to command, to coordinate and to control (Fayol, H. 1949).

2.   Management is a process of planning organising, directing and controlling available resources of an organisation in order to achieve the set goals of the organisation (Okafor, *et al.* 2011: 26-27).

3.   Management is the process by which managers create, direct, maintain and operate purposeful organisations through systematic, coordinated and co-operative human efforts (McFarland 1979:6).

4.   Management is the process of working with and through others to achieved environment (Kreitner, 1992:8).

5.   Management is the manipulation of resources to achieve pre-determined objectives (Aina, 2002:1).

6.   Management is the process of utilising organisational resources to achieve specific objectives through the functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling (Williams, 1977).

The term "management" can be used as a concept, as a collective noun and as a group of people within an organisation. It could also be considered as a science, as an art, as an academic discipline (a course of study in institutions of higher learning), as a career, or as a profession.

For our purpose in this course, we shall adopt the definitions which point to management as a concept. These definitions see management as a process or a series of activities performed in order to achieve a pre-determined goal. That is, the combination of resources through the process of planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling in order to achieved clearly stated objectives.

3.2 Types of Management

The major types of management include conventional management, systematic management and scientific management. We shall now explain these management types.

a.   **Conventional Management:** This is management by trial and error. It is intuitive and unsystematic. This type of management depends wholly on the use of human skills and imaginations in planning and executing organisational goals. It tends to be subjective, non-statistical, emotional, commonsensical and behavioural. Although many organisational problems may be solved with this method, it is time consuming.

b.   **Systematic Management:** This is otherwise called historical or initiative management. It means doing something because it has always been done that way.

c.   **Scientific Management:** This is the use of scientific principles and techniques in managing organisational activities. It is statistical, empirical, analytical, researchable and quantifiable. This type of management is data-based. It identifies problems and objectives, assembles and analyses all need factors to solve the problem and draws logical conclusion at the end. It was first experimented in 1885 by Fredrick Taylor who later became known as the father of scientific management.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Management could be perceived from several perspectives – as a concept, as a discipline, as a career or profession, and as a group of people that determine organisational policies and assign responsibilities. In this course, we are more concerned with the definitions that see management as a concept, i.e. a process or series of activities planned and performed in order to achieve predetermined organisational goals.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has explained the meaning of management. We have equally identified the types of management to include: conventional management, systematic management and scientific management.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain the meaning and types of management.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aina, S. (2002). *Modern Media Management.* Nigeria: Ebensun Publishers.

Fayol, H. (1949). *General and Industrial Management.* Translated by Constance Storrs. London: Pitman.

Griffin, R.W. (1996). *Management.* New Jersey: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Kreitner, R. (1992). *Management.* Boston: Hooghton Mifflin Company.

McFarland, D. (1979). *Management Fundamentals and Practice*. New York: MacMillian Publishing Incorporated.

Okafor, L.C. *et al*. (2011). *Elements of Management*. Enugu: Rhyce Kerex Publishers.

William, S. (1977). *Management Classics.* California: Goodyear Publishing Company.

UNIT 2 FUNCTIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MEDIA MANAGEMENT

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1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
    3.1 Functions of Media Management
    3.2 Characteristics of Media Management
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Management performs some vital functions in every organisation. These functions are more or less identical in every formal organisation including media organisations. Management equally shares some characteristics that make it unique. This unit discusses the functions and characteristics of management as it concerns the media.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the functions of media management
- discuss the characteristics of media management.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Functions of Management in the Media Context

Several experts have made attempts at classifying management functions. One of the earliest scholars to do so was Henri Fayol. According to him, "to manage is to forecast and plan, to organise, to command and to control." However, it was Lather Gullick that gave the acronym 'POSDCORB' which is commonly used today for easy remembrance of the general functions of management. According to him, P stands for Planning, O for Organising, S for Staffing, D for Directing and Co for Coordinating, while R stands for Reporting and B for Budgeting.

Meanwhile, the most generally accepted definition of the functions of management was given by Koontz and O'Donnel (1982). According to them, management performs the following functions: Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, and Controlling. Management writers who support Koontz and O'Donnel, argue that every other management functions can easily be fitted into the five given by Koontz and O'Donnel. For our purpose in this unit, we shall adopt the five functions of management as given by Koontz and O'Donnel and shall now proceed to explain each of them.

1. **Planning:** This is commonly referred to as the basic management function. It has to do with the preparation for the future operations of a business activity. It precedes every other management function. Koontz *et al*. (1982: 156) see planning as "deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and who is to do it; it bridges the gap from where we are and where we want to be." Simply put, a plan is a future course of actions. It is determination of course of action to achieve desired goals. With proper planning, managers minimise confusions, risks, wastages and poor performance.

2. **Organising**: Organising may be considered as preparation for putting plans into action. It is the process of bringing together both physical, financial and human resources and developing productive relationship amongst them for the purpose of attaining organisational goals and objectives. Okafor (2011) cites Henri Fayol as saying that "to organise a business is to provide it with everything useful for its functioning (i.e. raw material, tools, capital and personnel)." Organising as a management function involves:

   • identification of activities
   • classification or grouping of the activities
   • assigning of duties
   • creating responsibilities and assigning authorities to coordinate.

3. **Staffing:** This has to do with the function of manning an organisation and keeping it manned. The main purpose is to put the right person on the right job at the right time. It entails searching, selecting, recruiting, replacing, training and developing of staff. It also includes remunerations, performance appraisal, promoting, transferring and retiring of staff.

4. **Directing:** This is the interpersonal aspect of management which has to do with influencing, guiding, supervising, instructing and

motivating subordinates for the purpose of achieving organisational goals. For a manager to direct well, he/she must ensure that subordinates understand clearly what they are expected to do in each situation. This implies that management must give precise orders and specify clearly how and when, who should do what.

5.   **Controlling:** This refers to measurement of current performance and correction of deviations (if any) to ensure achievement of organisational goals. The purpose of control is to ensure that everything work in accordance with the planned standards.

       Controlling has these steps:

       • establishment of organisational standard of performance
       • measurement of the actual performance
       • comparing the actual performance with the organisational standard to determine if there is any deviation
       • correcting deviations, if any.

3.2   Characteristics of Media Management

Management has some characteristics that make it unique. Some of them include:

i.   **Management is purposive and goal-oriented**: By this, we mean that management is specific, well planned and thought of. It is a tool for harnessing human and material resources to achieve pre-determined goals.

ii.   **Management is time-oriented:** In modern management, attainment of set objectives within the stipulated time frame is of matters in management. Simply put, time is money in management.

iii.   **Management is a group activity:** Management is much more concerned with the use of group efforts to achieve fundamental predetermined organisational goals.

iv.   **Management is all pervasive:** This means that management is required in all types of organisations whether political, social, cultural, or business. The reason is that it helps in directing various efforts towards a definite purpose. Be it in hospitals, hotels, colleges, media, small or large firms, management is required irrespective of size or type.

v.   **Management is a universal phenomenon:** Management is a very popular and widely used term all over the world. All organisations, ideologies, all cultures, races and religion are involved in management.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Management performs very important functions in every organisation. Also, management shares certain characteristics which makes it unique. These functions and characteristics are applicable in virtually every organisation including the media which is our major concern in this course.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has identified the major functions and characteristics of management. Those major functions include – planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling.

The main characteristics features as identified in this unit are: management is purposive, management is time oriented, it is a group activity, a universal phenomenon and it is all pervasive.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify and explain the functions and characteristics of media management.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Koontz, H. & O'Donnel (1982). *Management*. Auckland: McGraw Hill.

"Management Study Guide 2008-2012." www.managementguide.com. Retrieved 25/08/2012.

UNIT 3   PURPOSE   OF   MEDIA   MANAGEMENT/ MANAGERIAL SKILLS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
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        3.2   Management Skills in Media Organisations
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Why must the media be managed? What skills are required in the management of media organisations in this era of commercialisation? This unit provides answers to these questions.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

-    identify the purpose of media management
-    explain the skills needed in managing media organisations in this era of competitions.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Purpose of Media Management

There are several reasons for media management. Aina (2002:12) identifies some of them to include:

1.   making profit for the organisation by tapping the abundant opportunities in the business environment
2.   building and heading a virile team of dedicated workers that can make information available at affordable cost for public good
3.   making it possible for individuals to read (and hear) not only the word but also the world in which they live in this era of globalisation

4.   to study, predict and forecast changes in the organisations macro-environment and to adapt to such changes

5.   to set out the main objectives of the organisation and provide resources necessary for their accomplishment

6.   to plan, lead and direct the efforts of others towards the accomplishment of the organisational role

7.   to facilitate the realisation of the organisation's objectives with the least amount of input e.g. man, money, time, materials, and efforts

8.   to assist the organisation in achieving growth and reputation as information provider.

In the general term, management of media organisation aims at:

- getting maximum results with minimum efforts and resources
- increasing efficiency through proper utilisation of the various factors of production
- reducing spoilage and wastage of all kinds
- saving of time, efforts and money which are essential for the growth, success, survival and sustenance of the organisation
- enhancing smooth and coordinated functioning of the organisation and thus, providing maximum benefits to the employees in the shape of good working environment, suitable wage system, incentive plans on the one hand and higher profits for the employer on the other hand
- ensuring that the media organisation abides by the stipulations of the laws and other regulating bodies
- management is important in media organisation because it takes a colossal amount of human, material and financial resources to set up, of which no organisation would want such huge investments to go down the drain (wasted)
- adequate management of media organisations is necessary because of the high competition of the industry in recent time
- media management is particularly necessary because of the unique role the media play in the society – the watch dog and agenda-setters through constant information, education, entertainment, etc.

3.2   Managerial Skills in Media Organisations

Managerial skills are otherwise referred to effective leadership skills. They are leadership skills that successfully encourage team members to do their job effectively. They include among others:

1.   **Strategic thinking:** This is the skill of ability to scrutinise and evaluate situations and come out with a development plan for the betterment of the organisation, both in the present and in the future.
2.   **Effective communication skill:** This skill enables leaders to efficiently communicate organisational plans to members for their comprehension and to inspire and motivate them to greater performance.
3.   **Resilience:** This means being flexible. It means the ability to know how to handle different problems; knowing the kind of solution to provide to every problem in order to achieve organisational goal.
4.   **Planning skill:** Planning is another important managerial skill. It is the ability to plan ahead of time to achieve the aims of the organisation. A manager needs to have vision for his organisation for it to succeed in collaboration of the efforts of other members.
5.   **Technical skills:** This implies that managers should not only have theoretical knowledge of the job but must have the practical skills; this would enable them lead and direct by example. This skill is very important in media organisations especially the broadcast. A manager of television or radio station should know the technical aspect of the job. He should know how to operate studio and control room equipment, etc.
6.   **Public Relations skills:** This is the ability to relate effectively with both his staff and the external public.
7.   **Administrative skills:** This has to do with having good knowledge and skills to manage both human and material resources. It entails the ability to coordinate and control effectively and efficiently.
8.   Other managerial skills include the ability to listen, to learn, to discern, to predict what would work and what will not work, etc.

4.0   CONCLUSION

From our discussions in this unit, we can now see the purpose for media management as well as those managerial skills required from media managers.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has clearly identified the purpose of media management and managerial skills.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is the purpose for media management?
2.   What skills are required in media management?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4   QUALITIES/DUTIES OF A MEDIA MANAGER

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Qualities of a Media Manager
        3.2   Duties of a Media Manager
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0   INTRODUCTION

To manage media organisations in this age of competition and media proliferations is no doubt a serious business. It requires some uncommon qualities and calls for special duties. This unit takes a look at the needed qualities and the special duties of a media manager that knows his or her onions.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the requisite qualities of a media manager
- discuss the duties of a media manager.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Qualities of a Media Manager

Managerial qualities are those requisite traits or characteristics that organisational managers ought to possess in order to be effective and efficient. According to Okafor and Udu (2002:96), some of these traits or qualities are inborn while others are learnt, developed or acquired through association or otherwise. These qualities include among others:

1.   **Creativity:** A good media manager must be creative. Creativity according to Adibe (2008:10) is synonymous with being imaginative, innovative, inventive, and productive and at the same

time, being original. Creativity is doing a usual thing in unusual way.

2. **Versatility:** A good media manager must be versatile. He must have wide range of knowledge of issues involved in the media industry. He must be able to anticipate and respond speedily to emergencies.

3. **High intelligence:** A media manager should be highly intelligent. He should have the capacity to think faster than subordinates. However, extreme demonstration of this quality may make subordinates inferior to make valuable suggestions.

4. **Emotional stability:** A good media manager must be able to cope with frustrations, pressures and tight schedules which inevitably exist in modern media organisations.

5. **Maturity:** He must be able to handle both normal and abnormal situations in the most effective ways.

6. **Integrity:** People trust a good manager because they know he or she has personal integrity. Integrity entails truthfulness and trustworthiness. For a manager to command integrity and high respect from subordinates, the subordinates must see him or her as being capable to fight for them, defend them and do what her or she says her/she will do, as well as follow the rules.

7. **Dependability and reliability:** A good media manager must be dependable and reliable. It entails earning yourself the respect and belief that you can be counted on, and that people can rely on you.

8. **Optimism:** An optimistic attitude helps build employees' morale. A good media manager must look to the future with hope. He must encourage, inspire and motivate his sub-ordinates.

9. **Calmness and confidence:** A good manager of the media must be confident to himself or herself. He or she must be able to lead in decision making and show others that he/she is capable of making good decisions. He does not panic or get tensed up easily.

10. **Discipline/focus:** A good manager must be disciplined and focused. He/she must be able to exercise some sort of restraint from certain conveniences for the purpose of his organisation and sub-ordinates.

He/she must be focused, not easily deceived, drifted, confused or derailed.

Other qualities of a good media manager include:

- He/she must be educated.
- He/she must have good human relations.
- He/she must be able to adapt to changes.
- He/she must be courageous.
- Should have the ability to command respect from his sub-ordinate, peers and superiors.
- He/she must know when or where and who to delegate.
- He/she must know the basic money management principles and must be prudent
- A good media manager must know the laws and ethics of the industry.
- He/she must learn how to communicate effectively, both in writing and speaking.
- He/she must be a good listener.
- He/she must be specific when giving instructions, what he wants and the expected outcome. He must ensure that workers understand what he wants, how and when he wants it.
- He/she must have a good customer-service; i.e. must learn how to relate with customers and see things from their perspectives.
- He/she must be a good mediator.

3.2   Duties of a Media Manager

Media managers perform certain key duties in media organisations. Some of those duties include, although not limited to:

1. **Decision making:** He/she must be able to take favourable decisions on behalf of the organisation. To do this, he/she must be accommodating and willing to accept subordinates views and inculcate them in the final decisions.

2. **Policy formation:** Managers decide, formulate and implement policies considered to be in the best interests of the organisation.

3. **Staff recruitment placement:** Managers source for, recruit and place workers in organisations.

4. **Allocation of responsibilities**: It is the duty of managers to allocate responsibilities to subordinates that are best fitted for it.

5. **Staff promotion and motivation:** Managers also have the duties of motivating and promoting their workers as at when due. This is necessary as it serves as morale booster to workers, thereby, enhancing productivity.

6. **Staff training and re-training**: Media managers ensure constant or periodic training of their workers in order to keep abreast of new developments in the sector.

7. **Liaison function:** This is the function of liaising or mediating between top and lower management staff.

8. **Leadership function:** This is otherwise regarded as the directing function. It has to do with issuing others on what, when and how something must be done to achieve laid down organisation goals.

9. **The manager**: Plans, coordinates and organises his organisation.

10. **It also the duty of a manager**: To evaluate activities, job performance, level of successes and failures at the end of each stipulated period, etc.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, our effort has been to clearly identify the qualities and duties of a good media manager. These qualities and duties are very imperative in every media organisation especially in this era of competition in the industry.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has generously enumerated the requisite qualities and duties of effective media, managers of this age.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the qualities and duties of an effective media manager?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES TO MEDIA MANAGEMENT

Unit 1   Management Theories: Meaning and Relevance in Media
           Organisation Management
Unit 2   Classical Management Theories
Unit 3   Behavioural and Human Relations Theories
Unit 4   Human Relations/Systems Theories
Unit 5   Contingency/Quantitative Management Theories

UNIT 1 MANAGEMENT THEORIES: MEANING AND RELEVANCE IN MEDIA ORGANISATION MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
       3.1   Meaning of Theory
       3.2   The Relevance of Management Theories in Media
       Organisation
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The knowledge of time-tested general principles and theories is necessary for better understanding of media organisation management; this is because the principles and theories serve as beacons for the present and future actions. This unit examines the meaning of theory and the relevance of management theories in media organisation management.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define theory
- explain how the knowledge of management theories is relevant in managing media organisations.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Theory

Scholars of several ages have made attempts at defining what a theory is. According to Sevenrin and Tankard (1982), theory is "a set of systematic generalisations based on scientific observations and leading to further empirical observations." McQuail (1991) sees a theory as consisting of a set of ideas of varying status and origin, which seek to explain or interpret some phenomena.

A social psychologist, Kurt Lewin (1958) cited in Wogu (2008:13) sees theory as "the way of explaining the ordering and occurrence of various events." The same author quotes Schramm (1963) as describing theory as "a crap-detector which enables us to separate scientific statements from unscientific ones." Little John (1989:15) in his own views, defines theory as "any conceptual representation or explanation of a phenomenon."

Theory is a formulated general principle used for better understanding of ideas, issues or concepts. It relates the past with the present for the sake of the future. Those that relate to management and are applicable in management situations are referred to as management theories.

3.2   The Relevance of Management Theories in Media Organisation Management

The management of media organisation in modern times is no doubt a big business which requires huge investment of scarce human and material resources. As such, it is necessary that the media managers of today adhere to some time-tested theoretical principles in order to avoid gambling, reduce guessworks, trials and errors, risks and wastages.

Anaeto, Osifeso and Onabajo (2008) enumerate the benefits of the knowledge of theories to include:

- theories help us to manage reality
- theories help us to put facts into perspectives
- theories help us to relate the past with the present and predict the future
- theories help us to describe and explain a phenomenon
- theories help us to gain intellectual knowledge
- application of management theories enhances productivity, e.g. the principle of division of labour.

The principle of motivational and need theories (e.g. the incentive theory, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, the Vroom expectancy theory, Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor's theory X and theory Y, Henri Fayol's 14 principles, Fredrick Taylor's ideas on improving job performance, etc.) could be well-adopted for enhancing workers' performance and in the attainment of media organisational goals.

4.0   CONCLUSION

From our discussion in this unit, it is clear that theory is a formulated general principles that enable us to describe, explain and predict a given phenomenon. In order words, it is a time-tested and trusted principle which relates the past with the present for the sake of the future. Knowledge of theories is necessary in media organisations for the purpose of boosting workers moral, increasing productivity, among others.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has examined the meaning of theories and why they are needed in media organisation management.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is a theory?
2.   Does the knowledge of management theories matter in media management?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2   CLASSICAL MANAGEMENT THEORIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
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         3.1   Scientific Management Theory (Fredrick Taylor)
         3.2   Administrative Approach to Management (Henri Fayol)
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

When we talk about classical management theories, we are concerned with the management school of thought in which theorists delved into how to find the best possible ways for workers to perform their duties. The theories in this category are mainly concerned with how to maximise profit through efficient and effective work-methods. Two notable theorists stand tall in this area. They include Fredrick Taylor, who lived from 1856-1915, and Henri Fayol of 1841-1925. Thus, the classical management theories have two approaches: Fredrick Taylor's classical scientific and Henri Fayol's classical administrative theories. This unit discusses the two approaches.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss Fredrick Taylor's classical scientific management theory
- discuss Henri Fayol's classical administrative management approach.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Fredrick Taylor's Scientific Management Theory

Fredrick Winslow Taylor (1856-1915) was a native of a small German town. He made so many contributions in the area of scientific management. Little wonder he later became commonly referred to as the father of scientific management.

Scientific management primarily aims at increasing productivity by increasing efficiency and wages of works. It seeks to find out the best

methods of doing each job. It uses scientific methods or procedures in selecting employees and gives them scientific training and development.

Scientific management believes in establishing, maintaining and sustaining close co-operation and mutual understanding between management and employees. It uses division of labour and tries to produce maximum output by fixing performance standards for each job and by having a differentia *Piece-Rate System* for payment of wages.

3.3.1 Taylor's Contributions/Suggestions

1. **Establishment of performance standards:** Taylor in his study discovered that there were no scientific standards for measuring works' performance. No one knew precisely how much work a worker should do in a given period, say - one hour, one day or one week, etc. The work was fixed, assuming what was called *rate of thumb* or *the amount of work done by an average worker*. Thus, Taylor introduced *time and motion studies* to fix performance standards for time, cost and quality of work which leads to uniformity of work. This was so that efficiency of workers could be measured and compared with each other.

2. **Development of differential piece rate system**: Taylor observed that some workers do as little work as possible, and that those who do the lion's share of the job gain nothing extra. Taylor thus applied the differential piece rate system. Under the system, low wage rate was fixed for workers of low performance output. Taylor believed that through this method, the inefficient workers will try to improve their efficiency and the efficient ones will be motivated to maintain or improve their productive capability.

3. **He called for change in mental attitude or mental revolution**: Taylor brought the idea of "Mental Revolution". He said that management and workers should have positive attitude towards each other, this he believed would result in close cooperation between and among them and viz-a-viz increase productivity and profits.

4. **He advocated for time study**: Time study according to Taylor as cited by Patil, M (2012) means for record the time taken for doing each part of a job. The full job is first observed and analysed, then it is divided into different parts. Later, the time taken for doing each part of the job is recorded. This is done by using stop-watch. To him, time study helps management to know exactly the amount of time it will take to do a particular job. This

would enable management to schedule the amount of work to be done by each worker in a given time say one hour, one day, etc.

5. **Taylor called for functional foremanship or division of labour**: He observed that a foreman cannot be an expert in all functions. He therefore, separated "planning" from "doing" and advocated for specific duties for specific persons.

3.1.2   Criticisms of Taylor's Scientific Management Theory

Although Taylor made great contributions as the first person to introduce scientific principles into management, however, his principles have come under series of criticisms.

1. His principles have been criticised for treating humans like machines.
2. His principles tend to portray money as the only motivating factor for workers performance.
3 Labour unions have also criticised the principles for their tendency to restrict them from collective bargaining, asking that workers should be dealt with on individual basis.
4. His principles were also criticised for excluding employees from participating in management.

3.2   Administrative Management Approach (Henri Fayol)

The administrative management school of thought sees management as the process of getting things done through people as a group instead of as an individual. The first expert in this area was a French industrialist and a management consultant. He started the functional *approach* to management. He was referred to as the "father of modern management."

In his book entitled *Industrial and General Administration* (published in 1916). Henri Fayol gave the following 14 principles of management:

1. **Division of work:** Duties should be divided into sections, divisions and departments with a specialist handling each section. Such specialisation according to him allows the individual to build up expertise and thereby become more productive.

2. **Discipline:** Management and staff must follow a laid-down rules and procedures for the success of the organisation.

3. **Authority and responsibilities:** Managers must have the right and ability to give orders and the power to exert obedience, but must also keep in mind that with authority comes responsibility.

4**.**   **Unity of command:** Each employee should have only one direct boss or supervisor with no other conflicting lines of command.

5**.**   **Unity of direction:** Teams with the same objective should work under the direction of one manager using one plan. This will ensure that action is properly coordinated.

6.   **Subordination of individual interests to the general interest:** The interest of one employee should not be allowed to become more important than those of the group. This includes managers.

7.   **Remunerations:** Employee satisfaction depends on fair remuneration for everyone. This includes both financial and non-financial.

8.   **Centralisation:** This principle refers to the nearness of employees to the decision makers. It is necessary to aim at appropriate balance.

9.   **Scalar chain:** Employees should be aware of where they stand in the organisation's hierarchy, or chain of command.

10.   **Order:** Everything and every person should have its or his or her place in an organisation.

11.   **Equity:** Managers should be fair to staff at all times both maintaining disciples as necessary and acting with kindness where appropriate and justice.

12.   **Stability of tenure:** Managers should strive to minimise employee turnover. Personnel planning should be of priority.

13.   **Initiative:** Employees should be given the necessary autonomy or free hand to create and carry out plans, and that creative efforts should be recognised and encouraged through rewards as this would lead to greater innovations.

14.   **Espirit de corps:** Management should strive to promote the spirit of team work and unity as this would lead to greater harmony in the organisation.

Fayol's principles have been embraced by many; however, his critics accuse him of not stating in clear terms how they can be implemented.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Classic management theories as we have seen belong to the school of thought whose focus is mainly on efficient production for profit maximisation through efficient work methods. As old as these theories and theorists may seem to be, many of the principles are still very much applicable in many organisations today including the media.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has discussed the classical management theory. The major theories in this category as discussed are Fredrick Taylor's classical scientific management theory and Henri Fayol's classical administrative management theory.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the classical management theories in relation to their application in a given media organisation.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3   BEHAVIOURAL   AND   HUMAN   RELATIONS
             MANAGEMENT THEORIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Behavioural Management Theories
                3.1.1 Hugo Munstenberg (1863-1916)
                3.1.2 Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y
        3.2   Human Relations Management Approach (Elton Mayo)
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The behavioural and human relations management theories emerged in
the 1920s. While the classical theories we discussed in our previous unit
focus on the jobs, the behavioural and human relations theories as we
shall see in this unit lay more emphasis on the human aspect of an
organisation. The theories in this category are also referred to as
neoclassical theories. This is because they were initially a reaction to the
shortcomings of the classical management theories. This unit shall
discuss them in details.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   identify the behavioural management theories
•   discuss human relations management theories.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Behavioural Management Theories

These theories emerged in the early 1920s. The theories address the
human dimensions of work. Behavioural theorists believe that people
are important in an organisation and that good human relations and
liberal leadership can increase output (Aina, 2002:21). The emphasis is
that managers and management should view employees as individuals,
resources and assets to be developed and worked with, not as machines.
This is the only way to get the best out of them, increase productivity

and attain organisational goals. Notable theorists of this school include; Hugomustenberg, Douglas McGregor and Abraham Maslow. These major contributors are discussed below:

3.1.1 Hugo Munstenberg (1863-1916)

Hugo Munstenberg is widely regarded as the father of industrial psychology. He was known for his use of psychology to boost organisational productivity. His argument was that management should match individual's abilities with responsibilities. He suggested that management should be concerned with discovering the psychological conditions that would bring about greater satisfactory output from each employee.

Hugo Munstenberg's experiment gave rise to the development and popularity of aptitude tests to choose the more qualified personnel (Aina, 2001:21).

3.1.2 Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor (1906-1964) was one of the forefathers of management theories, and one of the top business thinkers of all time. He was a social psychologist who later became the president of the Antioch College. He later became a professor of management at Massachusetts Institute of Technology. In his book, *The Human Side of the Enterprise* McGregor identified two sets of assumptions by management about human behavior. He called them Theory X Theory Y. These two opposing perceptions theorised how people view human behaviour of work and organisational life.

Theory X

McGregor's theory X agrees with the classical management approach which believes that management role is to coerce and control employees. The main assumptions of theory X include:

- Man has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it whenever possible.
- Man must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment in order to achieve organisational objectives.
- Man prefers to be directed, do not want responsibilities, and have little or no ambition.
- People seek security above all else.

Theory Y

With theory Y assumptions, management role is to develop the potentials in employees and help them to release those potential towards common goals. The assumptions include:

- Work is natural as play and rest.
- Man will exercise self-direction if they are committed to the objectives (they are not lazy).
- Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
- People learn to accept and seek responsibility.
- Creativity, ingenuity, and imagination are widely distributed among the population.
- People are capable of using these abilities to solve organisational problems.
- People have potentials that are partially utilised.

A good understanding of McGregor's Theory X and Y will certainly help editors in managing and supervising the work output of sub-ordinates. Thus, a good manager or editor in a media organisation should not assume that people who fall under Theory X are bad while those under Theory Y are good. Rather, he/she should apply close-supervision where it applies, and loose supervision when necessary (Ogbeni 2011:196). This implies that managers and editors should learn to understand human nature and apply both theories where and when applicable.

3.1.3 Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow was an American clinical psychologist. He became famous through his contributions in the explanations in the area of human needs. In his paper "Theory of Human Motivation" he observed that man has innate curiosity to satisfy his needs, and that as humans meet their basic needs, they seek to successfully satisfy higher ones that occupy a set of hierarchy.

Maslow's hierarchy is often represented as a pyramid consisting of five levels as depicted on the diagram below:

Self actualisation

Self esteem needs

Social needs
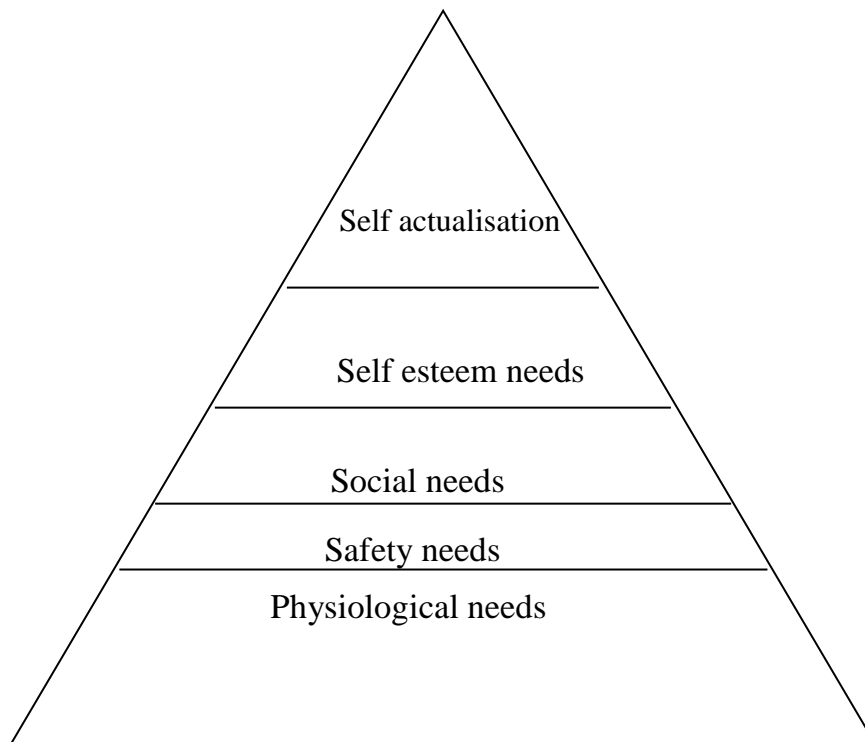
Safety needs

Physiological needs

1.   **Psychological needs:** These are otherwise called biological needs, survival needs or compulsory needs. They include: includes foods, shelter, clothing, water, sex and elimination of waste products.

2.   **Safety needs:** The need for safety and security arises as that of psychological needs is satisfied. It is the need for protection from threatening situations and dangers. It may range from physical, personal security, employment, security of revenue and resources, health, etc.

3.   **Social and affection needs**: This is otherwise called belongingness and intimacy needs. It involves emotional based relationships such as friendships, sexual intimacy, family relationships, etc. it includes need for lending and borrowing. Lack of this need makes one frustrated.

4.   **Self esteem needs:** This is self ego needs. It includes respect for others and oneself. It demands one handling authority to be accorded honour. People engage in relationships to achieve a sense of acceptance and self value. The absence of these, results in inferiority complex and deflated self importance.

5.   **Self actualisation:** This is attaining one's goal in life; good reputation, sense of fulfillment, etc. the apex of the pyramid. It is also called the fulfillment needs. It comes when one feels he/she has achieved all he wants to achieve in life.

3.2   Human Relations Management Approach (Elton Mayo)

The human relations school of thought is primarily based on Elton Mayo (1880-1949) and his Harvard University experiments. Mayo was a professor of Industrial Research at the Harvard University Graduate school of Business Administration. He was invited by the authorities of Western Electric Company to research into the effect of physical facilities on workers output.

His research showed that better physical environment or increased economic benefits in alone were not sufficient motivators in increasing productivity. In effect, the emphasis shifted to psychological and social forces, in addition to economic forces.

Mayo discovered that when workers are given special attention by management, the productivity is likely to increase irrespective of actual changes in the working conditions.

Central to this approach was an increased understanding of individual worker's emphasis on motivation, needs, interpersonal relationships and group dynamics. These experiments suggested that an office or a factory is not only a workplace, but also a social environment in which the employees interact with each other.

Okafor *et al.* (2011.42) believe that the human relations management theories opened managers' mind towards understanding that:

1.   The worker is a social being with feelings and emotions. This is in contrast with Taylor's view of the worker as a mere adjunct to a machine.
2.   Workers are not always economically minded. They are also interested in harmonies and satisfying social relations in the work place. This also contradicts Taylor's believes and assertion that money was the only means of motivating workers.

3.   Workers should not always be seen as individuals but as members of a group, and that behaviour of the workers is usually influenced by the group which he belongs.

4.   Working conditions exert considerable impact on workers performance. It must be pointed out that the human relations

theory redirected thinking on human behaviour from the classical conceptions which sees it as inert and latently dysfunctional to a more comprehensive and dynamic issue in management.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have looked at behavioural and human relations management theories. Theories in this category emphasise human aspect of organisation than the job. Proper understanding of these theories will certainly help media managers and editors in managing and supervising the work output of their subordinates.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we examined behavioural and human relations management theories. We identified some of the theories/theorists under this category to include - Hugo Munstenberg, Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Need and Elton Mayo's human relations approach.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the behavioural and human relations management theories.
2. Is the knowledge of these theories necessary in contemporary media management?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4   SYSTEMS AND CONTINGENCY THEORIES

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Apart from the classical, behavioural and human relations management theories discussed in the previous units, there are other closely related theories which mangers of media organisations could adopt their principles in the day to day administration of their media outfits. Such theories include - the systems theory, the socio-technical systems theory and the contingency theory. This unit discusses these three management theories.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   explain the basic assumptions of the systems theory
•   discuss the socio-technical systems theory
•   explain the contingency management theory.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Systems Theories

The systems management theory sees an organisation as a structure with many parts that function together to form a whole. The theory emphasises that one part of a system enables us to know something about another part, and that a change in one part of the system will affect other components of the system and its environment, Anaeto, Onabajo and Osifeso (2008:147).

Scholars of this school of thought content that the whole is more than the sum total of all the parts. (see http://.www/schoolinfo/framing/).

Aina (2002:25) gave the basic assumptions of the systems theory as follows:

a.   An organisation of many inter-related parts which function for the attainment of organisational goals.

b.   Co-operation between separated departments ensures increased output, unlike what would have happened if each had functioned in isolation.

c.   There are continuous interactions between organisations and their environment for input - output department. Organisations that do not interact with their environment operate closed system and those that do otherwise operate open system.

d.   The element of feedback is necessary for effective functioning of an organisation as a system. Through feedback mechanisms, managements get vital information for self assessment and correction. This enables them to adjust to changes or become adaptive. This adaptive nature is called "homeostatic equilibrium".

Applied to media organisation management, the systems theory will go a long way towards avoiding unnecessary duplication of duties. This is perhaps the reason for departmentalisation of media organisations even though each department depends on the other to function. For instance, a live studio of a typical television station needs the assistance of the control room to function. The news and current affairs unit depends on the engineering department, production department, administrative unit, programming unit, marketing/commercial or adverts unit, finance unit, security department, clerical officers, cleaners, etc. All these units function as a system to achieve the organisation's objectives.

3.2   The Socio-Technical Systems Theories

Closely related to the systems theory is the socio-technical systems theory. This theory explains the relationship between organisational strictures and technologies. Advocates of this school such as Joan Woodward, and Eric Trist believe that employee's job in an organisation is determined by the technology in use because the technologies determine the work methods.

Those in this school anchor their arguments on the fact that technologies determine and even impose the work methods.

3.3   Contingency Theories

This is one of the contemporary theories of management. It is otherwise referred to as situational approach to management. Contingency theory basically believes that when managers take decisions, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are key to the situation at hand. This approach believes that whatever management decision taken depends on the situation at hand. That is, "different horses for different courses".

The theory argues that every management decision at a point in time should be determined by the circumstances surrounding the manager. It presupposes that the best thing to do at a time depends on the situation. This is in contrast with the scientific management ideas of Fredrick Taylor that sees management principles as universal. Aina (2002:27) quotes C.B. Handy as enumerating other factors that could determine variations in management principles to includes size, history, ownership pattern of organisation, technology adopted, goals and objectives, the environment of the organisation and the people.

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit has discussed both the systems and the contingency management theories. While the systems theory believes that an organisation is made up of several component units, believers of the contingency theory on the other hand are of the view that management situations are not the same and are not universal, but should be approached based on the circumstances surrounding it. However, both theories are still very relevant in contemporary media management.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined the systems, the socio-technical systems and the contingency theories. Knowledge of such theories is no doubt very essential in today's media management.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain the systems theories in media management context.
2.   Distinguish between socio-technical systems theories and the contingency theories.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aina, S. (2002). *Modern Media Management.* Nigeria: Ebensun Publishers.

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UNIT 5   QUANTITATIVE MANAGEMENT AND TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM)

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
      3.1   Quantitative Management Theories
      3.2   Total Quality Management (TQM)
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit examines quantitative management which is a more precise, factual and data-based method of managing the affairs of an organisation. It also takes a look at the concept of total quality management (TQM).

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss quantitative management theories
- explain the concept of total quality management.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Quantitative Management Theories

The quantitative management theories came into focus during and after World War II. The exigencies of the war necessitated the search for a more empirical, factual and data-based solutions to both military and logistic problems resulting from the challenges of the war.

The theories emphasise the use of mathematical and statistical techniques in management and focuses on finding right answers to managerial problems and in decision making.

The quantitative management theories are also referred as mathematical approach, decision theory approach, operations research approach or management science approach.

The theory stresses the importance of diverse decision situations and the means of perfecting them. It precludes thumb rules or acting through intuition, but strongly recommends the process of optimal decision-making, assembling accurate and reliable data with greater quantitative, precision and perfection.

These theories see management as basically an exercise using the mathematical processes and symbols such as linear programming and non-linear programming. The theories in this category received a boost following the advent of information and communication technologies (ICTs), especially the computer, the Internet, the cell-phone, among others.

3.2   Total Quality Management (TQM)

Many scholars have argued that Total Quality Management (TQM) originated from Japan where continuous search for quality products has continued to yield the desired results. The concept describes a comprehensive and structured approach to organisational management which primarily aims at improving the quality of products and services through continuous refinements in response to feedback from consumers Rouse, M. (2005) categorises TQM processes into four sequential categories: plan, do, check, and act (the *PDCA cycle*). According to her, in the *planning* phase, people define the problem to be addressed, collect relevant data, and ascertain the problem's root cause; in the *doing* phase, people develop and implement a solution, and decide upon a measurement to gauge its effectiveness; in the *checking* phase, people confirm the results through before-and-after data comparison; and in the *acting* phase, people document their results, inform others about process changes, and make recommendations for the problem to be addressed in the next PDCA cycle.

TQM is a general business management philosophy which involves the combination of quality management principles and practices and techniques to ensure quality. Aina (2002:28) sees TQM as the production of goods and services with zero-defects by avoiding mistakes and also adopting preventive measures at the beginning. He notes that TQM aims at:

- defining and meeting the customer's requirements
- continuous improvements on products and services
- prevention not cure
- zero defects, and
- contribution to organisational profits.

TQM can be applied in any type of organisation, including schools, hotel management, media, churches, etc.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Our discussion in this unit has shown that quantitative management is the management practice that makes use of mathematical, empirical and statistical data in order to achieve greater precision and accuracy. Total Quality Management (TQM) on the other hand is a general business management philosophy which aims at continuous improvement on products and services until quality becomes a way of life.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has explained the quantitative management theory and the concept of Total Quality Management (TQM). These approaches could be adopted and applied in any type of organisation, including media management.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Discuss the quantitative management theories.
2.   What do you understand by TQM? Explain and relate it to the media in Nigeria.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aina, S. (2002). *Modern Media Management.* Nigeria: Ebensun Publishers.

Ogbuoshi, L.I. (2010). Understanding Newspaper Management and Production. Enugu: Linco Enterprises Ltd.

Okafor, *et al.* (2011). *Elements of Management A Book of Reading*. Enugu: Rhyce Kerex Publishers.

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MODULE 3   MEDIA ORGANISATION AND ITS ENVIRONMENT

Unit 1   Meaning and Types of Media Organisation
Unit 2   Nature and Features of Media Organisations Environment
Unit 3   Media Organisation Structures
Unit 4   Departments in Media Organisations
Unit 5   Sources of Revenue for Media Organisations

UNIT 1   MEANING AND TYPES OF MEDIA ORGANISATION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
            3.1   Meaning of Organisation
            3.2   Types of Media Organisation
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Several management scholars have attempted to define and classify organisation in several ways. This unit highlights some of the definitions and classification of organisations as it concerns media management.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

• explain the meaning of organisation in the media contest
• identify the various types of media organisation.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Organisation

The term 'organisation' is derived from the Greek word "organon" or "ergon" which means organ - a compartment for a particular task. The *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary*, 7th edition defines an

organisation as "a group of people who form a business, club, etc, together in order to achieve a particular aim."

The term "organisation" has been defined variously by different scholars. These definitions are applicable to mass media organisations. One of such definitions is the one which see an organisation as "a group of people working together towards attaining a common objective."

The Business Dictionary.com refers to it as "a social unit of people systematically structured and managed to meet a need or to pursue collective goals on a collective basis". This definition agrees with that put up by Koontz, M., O'Donnell, C., & Weihrich, H. (1980) which sees an organisation as "a group of persons collectively working together as a unit for the primary purpose of achieving their desired objectives". Luthans, F. (1986) defines it as "a specific configuration of structure, people, task and techniques." While Edgar S cited in Aina (2002:35), simply puts it this way:

> an organisation as the relational coordination of the activates of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal through division of labour and functions, and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility.

These definitions all point to the fact that an organisation is made up of a group of people who work together to achieve a common goal or a set of objectives. This applies to every organisation and the mass media are not in any way exempted.

3.2   Types of Organisation

Several writers agree that the best way to classify business organisations is by taking a look at the type of ownership pattern. From this perspective, there are two basic types of organisations: private and public. Private ownership exists when individuals exercise the right and responsibility of ownership, while public ownership exists when the general public or political bodies such as the state, federal or local government creates, exercises and enjoys these rights (Okafor and Ama, 2005:28).

Another type of ownership is the mixed type. This is where individuals and public bodies share ownership right of an organisation.
.

Generally, private organisations are usually organised as a sole proprietorship or as a partnership. Public organisations or corporations on the other hand are also organised either as limited liability or as unlimited liability corporations. In this case, the corporation decides the sharing formula of profits; responsibility for debts, responsibility for illegal activities and every other issue that concerns the organisation.

3.2.1 Sole Proprietorship

This is a business organisation owned and managed by one man. The one man is responsible for the raising of fund for the business and if the organisation runs into any financial difficulty, he is solely liable.

Advantages

We can discern a number of advantages from one one-man business. These include:

- it requires small capital to set up, and legal requirements are also minimal
- the sole proprietor owns all profits made. He does not share it with any other person
- the proprietor decides his own convenient times of doing business
- he can take decision quickly without having to consult any other person, e.g., change in price or expansion of his business
- he has very personal and close contact with his customers and employees
- he often has experience or good knowledge of the business he is going into
- apart from ease of formation, there is also the ease of dissolution, etc.

Disadvantages

Despite the identified advantages, some disadvantages exist in one-man business. These among others include:

- He has unlimited liability and in the event of debts or losses, he can have his personal properties sold to pay the creditor.
- The future of one-man business is not certain as many die with the owners.
- He can make mistakes in the decisions he takes since he is the only person taking the decisions. Two good heads are better than one, the saying goes. He thus, does not enjoy division of labour or specialisation in decision taking; and

- He works longer hours and often cannot take time off without closing his business since he has no partner.

3.2.2   Partnerships

According to the Partnership Act (1890: Section 1(1), a partnerships business is "the relation which subsists between persons carrying on a business in common with a view of profit." In other words, it is the association or union of two or more persons who share common objectives of doing business and making profit. That is to say that they contributed money or capital with which the organisation was set up and is run. Partnerships represent an attempt at making the better of two worlds in the sense that it seeks to eliminate the problems of one-man business while securing the advantage of large capital.

A partnership must have a minimum number of two people and a maximum of twenty, as stated by the Partnership Act of 1890 and the Companies and Allied Matters Act (CAMA) of 1990, Section 19 (1). A partnership of professionals such as Medical Doctors, Lawyers, Accountants, (Media Professionals) or Engineers, are however, exempted from the restriction and can have members exceeding twenty as provided by Section 19(26) of Companies and Allied Matters Act of 1990. Every partner can commit the company into contracts or any business agreement. The partnership also bears full liability for the acts of any one partner except where stated otherwise, and known to the other party in the contract. Partners commence the business, share profits or losses equally unless otherwise stated.

Characteristics of partnerships

Okafor and Ama (2005) identified the following as the major characteristics of partnership business organisations:

a.   Membership here in Nigeria and in some countries is between two and twenty persons except in the case of professionals.
b.   The partners contribute their resources (capital or skill) and share profits and risks;
c.   The liability of the members is unlimited, except in case of limited partnerships, where one member must be unlimited.
d.   The partnership business is one and the same entity as the members. It does not possess a separate entity and cannot sue or be sued separately.
e.   Management of the partnership is shared among members.
f.   A partner may be an active partner, dormant or sleeping partner, limited partner, normal partner, etc; and

g.   A partnership does not have board of directors but is normally governed by a written agreement by the partners known as a Partnership Agreement or Articles of Partnership or Deeds of Partnership. This states details of the partnership and how the partnership should be run in terms of rights and obligations of partners.

Kinds of partners

There are different types of partners, and this depends on their extent of liability, participation in management, share of profits or knowledge as partners of the partnership by the public; thus, we have the following:

a.   **General partner:** A general partner has unlimited liability for any debts incurred by the firm and usually takes active part in the management of the firm.

b.   **Limited partner:** This type of partner bears limited liability equal to the amount he invested in the company. He does not take active part in the management of the business but contributes capital to the partnership.

c.   **Silent partner:** This is a partner who may be known to the public as a partner but does not play active role in the management of the partnership.

d.   **Secret partner:** This type of partner is active in the management of the firm but may not be known to the public as a partner of the business.

e.   **Dormant or sleeping partner:** This partner as the name connotes is not active in the management of the business and may also not be known to the public. He however, contributes capital and receives from the profits.

f.   **Normal partner:** This partner neither contributes capital to the business nor shares from the profits. He is not actually a partner but is allowed to be known as a partner by the public. He is paid on commission basis. Such a partner is normally found in contract business where he is allowed to seek for influential citizens whose names and influence are used in securing business. Such people allow their names to be used or listed as partners to the firm (Okafor and Ama 2005).

Advantages of partnerships

The following advantages of partnership:

a.   More capital is available compared to a sole proprietorship. This is because each partner, except the normal partner, contributes capital. Also, the partnership has more access to loans thus, facilitating expansion.

b.   More ideas and skills are contributed by the partners unlike in sole proprietorship. This makes for better decisions since partners may be experts' in different fields.

c.   Partnership business has the advantage of privacy since it is not required by law to publicise its accounts.

d.   The partners share the liabilities from the business making it less cumbersome to bear unlike the sole proprietorship.

e.   Partnerships have personal contact with customers, and employees of the firm thus offering better understanding and focused products and services.

f.   Partners can take time off for rest without having to close down the business totally since other partners are available; and

g.   Partnerships are easier to form than limited liability companies.

Disadvantages of partnerships

a.   Liability is still unlimited (except for limited partners), thus, partners still put their personal resources at risk in event of loss.

b.   Death, retirement or even disagreement among partners can result in the dissolution of the partnership.

c.   Resources are still too limited for expansion or for large scale production when compared to limited liability companies.

d.   Delay in decision-making is greater due to the number of partners who may consent before a decision is taken.

3.2.3 Incorporated Organisations

Incorporated business enterprises or joint-stock companies are business organisations that are registered with share capital or by guarantee. Section 21(1) of Companies and Allied Matters Acts CAMA, 1990 identifies three types of incorporated companies as:

a.   A company limited by share. These are companies that have the liability of its members limited by the memorandum to the amount, if any unpaid on the shares respectively held by them.
b.   A company limited by guarantee. These are companies that have the liability of its members limited by the memorandum to such amount as the members may respectively undertake to contribute to the assets of the company in the event of its being wound up; and
c.   An unlimited company. These are companies that do not have any limit on the liability of its members.

Generally, when a company is registered as a limited liability company, it means that in the event of the company liquidating, the liability of its owners is limited to the amount of capital that they have undertaken to subscribe to the company. The members of such a company are not personally liable for its losses or other obligations beyond the value of the capital they have undertaken to contribute. The personal wealth or assists of the owners of the company cannot be encumbered with the company's debts, beyond the unpaid value of their shares in the company. To be a limited liability company also means that the business has owners. It can, therefore, sue and be sued.

Procedures for Incorporation of Companies

The Companies and Allied Matters Act, 1990 empowers the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) to register, incorporate, manage, regulate and supervise the formation of companies. Any person who desires to incorporate a company shall deliver the following documents to the Corporate Affairs Commission.

(a)   Memorandum of Association

This is the basic constitution of the company. The company owns its identity to the memorandum, which defines the power and duties of the company as a legal entity. The contents of the Memorandum of Association are as follows:

i.   The name of the company.
ii.   The objects and nature of the business.
iii.   The amount and type of nominal and authorised capital and the kinds of shares.
iv.   A declaration that the liabilities of members are limited, unlimited or limited by guarantee.
v.   Conditions for the alteration of the memorandum. Such alteration must be to the advantage of the company; and
vi.   The registered office of the company.

(b)   Articles of Association

Articles of Association are the bye laws of the company and they spell out the internal regulations for the management of the affairs of the company. The following are usually constituents of the Articles of Association:

i.   Voting powers and rights of shareholders;
ii.   The issue, allotment and transfers of share;
iii.   Appointment and duties of directors;
iv.   Borrowing powers of the directors;
v.   Indemnity to protect the directors, secretary and other officers of the company; and
vi.   Procedure for winding up the company.
vii.   Notice of Situation of Registered Office of the Company
viii.   Particulars of Directors together with the consent of those of them who are to be the first directors.
ix.   A statement of the authorised share capital signed by, at least, one director.
x.   A Statutory Declaration with the requirements of the Act. This declaration can only be made by a legal practitioner.
xi.   Any other document required by the Commission any law of the land.

Upon delivery of the documents enumerated above and payment of the prescribed fees thereof, the Commission shall register the memorandum and articles unless in the opinion of the Commission, the provisions of the Act has not been compiled with or it is an illegal business and/or that the proposed name conflicts with an existing trademark or business name registered in Nigeria.

A company is not deemed duly registered until the Commission certifies under its seal that:

a.   The company is incorporated;
b.   The liability of the members is limited by shares or by guarantee in the case of limited company;
c.   The liability of its members are unlimited if it is an unlimited company; and
d.   The company is either a private or public company.

The Commission issues a certificate of incorporation when it is satisfied that all the requirements of the Act in respect of registration and of matters precedent and incidental to it have been compiled with. The receipt of the certificate of incorporation makes a company body corporate and authorises it to exercise all the powers and functions of an

incorporated company including the power to hold land and having perpetual succession and a common seal, but with such liability on the part of the members to contribute money to the assets of the company in the event of its being wound up.

An incorporated company may either be a private company or a public company.

3.2.4 Private Company

The Companies and Allied Matters Act (CAMA) 1990, Section 22(1) defines a private company as one which is stated in its memorandum to be a private company. Section 29(1) of CAMA 1990 states that the name of a private company limited by shares shall end with the word "Limited" (abbreviated as "Ltd."). A private company may be formed by members of a family, group of friends, school mates, sole proprietors, formal business associated and the like. The number of persons forming a private company does not exceed 50. The 50 persons or less exclude persons who are bona-fide in the employment of the company or were while in that employment and have contribute after the determination of that employment to be, members of the company. In effect, employees of the company are excluded. In situations where two or more persons jointly subscribe for a share, they are counted as one person.

Shares of private companies are legally not transferable. Private companies are not authorised to invite the public to subscribe for any shares or debentures of the company or deposit money for fixed periods or payable at all, whether interest bearing or not. Their shares are not quoted on stock exchange markets.

The owners of private companies are known as shareholders. For effective running of private companies, the shareholders usually elect a board of directors who subsequently appoint executive directors for the day-to-day running of the company. The shareholders have no hand in the day-to-day running of the company. The powers of the shareholders are limited to their voting power which is normally determined by, the number of shares held by a member. This implies that management is divorced from ownership. At the end of the financial year, the company sends its audited account to the shareholders. Private companies may either be limited by share, unlimited or limited by guarantee. Examples include ABC Transport Ltd., Vanguard Media Ltd., Newswatch Communications Ltd., Diamond Bank Ltd., Zenith Bank Ltd. etc.

3.2.5 Public Company

CAMA 1990, Section 24, states that any company other than a private company shall be a public company and its memorandum shall provide that it is public company. In other words, any company that states in its memorandum of association that it is a public company becomes a public company. The Act also says that the name of public company limited by shares shall end with the words "Public Limited Company or shortened as "PLC".

The number of persons that can form public companies ranges from 7 persons through infinity. In essence, it has no maximum number of shareholders. Shares of public companies are transferable and are also quoted on the stock exchange markets. They are required to publish their audited accounts annually. However, other features of private limited liability companies are also features of public limited liability companies. e.g. Daar Communication PLC, Nigeria Breweries PLC, First Bank PLC, Daily Times of Nigeria PLC, etc.

3.2.6 Unlimited Companies

Unlimited companies are companies registered with a share capital but the liabilities of its members are unlimited. In other words, the personal property of the individual member is not separated from the property of the enterprise. Section 29(4) of CAMA, 1990 states that the name of an unlimited company, shall end with the word "Unlimited" (abbreviated as "Ultd."). Example is Mobil oil producing Ultd, Eket.

Advantages

a.   Public limited liability companies can raise very large capital;
b.   Shareholders liabilities are limited to their investment;
c.   Shareholders can easily sell or transfer their shares without restriction;
d.   More talents and expertise can be employed due to greater resources, making specialisation in management possible;
e.   Only the shareholders or court order can terminate this type of company and not by the death of a shareholder;
f.   Large economics of scale resulting in cheaper costs of production are experienced in areas of purchase in inputs, transportation/storage, increased output due to efficient and modern machinery, division of labour/specialisation, etc. This increased profits and society benefits in form of lower prices; and
g.   Fraud by directors, management or employees is minimised by the publication of annual accounts of the company. Also external auditors who are independent of company management must

audit annually the company's account before presentation to shareholders and the Registrar of Company.

Disadvantages

a.   Formation of this type of company requires large expenses in preparing Articles of Association, Memorandum of Association and Registration;

b.   The largeness of this type of company generates impersonal relationship between management, employees and customers. This can make for feelings of non-commitment by workers or below average satisfaction to customer's need;

c.   Decisions take a longer time to make and execute, leads to waste of time and problems getting out of hand, e.g. strikes, etc;

d.   Problem of double taxation. Owners of this type of Company pay tax twice since the company pays tax on profit and shareholders pay tax again on dividends; and

e.   Lack of privacy: Accounts and affairs of company are made public by law exposing it to competitors.

3.2.7 Public/Statutory Corporations

Public corporations are business organisations established by Acts of Parliament to provide certain services and carry out specific activities. They consist of government parastatals and public utilities. They are financed with public funds and managed by Boards set up by the government. They are normally established to carry out certain activities for the benefits of the general public. They can also be called Authorities.

Examples include the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria (FRCN), the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA), Nigerian Airways, Nigeria Railway Corporation and State Water Corporations). They are also established where the government feels such activities should not be left in the hands of private individuals.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Our discussion in this unit has shown that an organisation is a group of persons, working together to attain a definite goal which cannot be achieved by an individual in isolation of others. We have equally identified severed types of organisations, their features, characteristics, advantages and disadvantages.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, effort has been made to explain the meaning and types of organisation in the media context. Such knowledge is important to media managers and future media managers as no man can give what he does not have.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain what you understand by an organisation.
2.   Identified and explain the various types of organisations open to one who wants to establish a media organisation.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aina, S. (2002). *Modern Media Management.* Nigeria: Ebensun Publishers.

Koontz, M., O'Donnell, C., & Weihrich, H. 1980. *Management.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Luthans, F. (1986). *Organisational Behaviour.* Singapore: McGraw-Hill.

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The Companies and Allied Matters Act (1990).

**UNIT 2   NATURE   AND   FEATURES   OF   MEDIA
                ORGANISATIONS**

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Media organisations come in various forms and share some features
which in some cases are similar to those of other organisations and
sometimes peculiar to the media. This unit examines the nature and
features of organisations in the media context.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the nature of media organisations
- identify and explain the features of media organisations.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Nature of Media Organisations

Generally, organisations could be formal or informal.

1.   Formal organisation

A formal organisation is a system of well-defined jobs each bearing a
definite measure of authority, responsibility and accountability (Herbert
G. and C. Gullet, R. (1981). It is a system of consciously coordinated
activities of two or more persons towards the attainment of a common
objective (Baran, S. (1999). A formal organisation has the following
characteristics:

- It is deliberately designed by the top management.

- It places more emphasis on work to be performed than interpersonal relationships among the employees.
- It specifies the relationships among various job positions and the nature of their inter-relationships.
- It lays down rules and procedures essential for achievement of objectives. Efforts of various departments are coordinated, interlinked and integrated through the formal organisation.
- Formal organisation has some advantages which among others, include:-
- It is easier to fix responsibilities
- There is no ambiguity in role specification
- Advantage 3 above helps in avoiding duplication of efforts.
- Employees behaviour are easily predicted in formal organisations
- There is unity of command; this is attained through an established chain of command.
- Formal organisations bring about more organisational stability. The limitations include, but not limited to:
- It does not provide adequate recognition to creative talents.
- It places more emphasis on structure and work, etc.

2.   Informal organisation

Many people are aware of the existence of formal organisations, but not so many know of the existence of informal organisations. Informal organisations originate from formal organisations as a result of personal interactions among employees. This type of organisation emerges spontaneously and not deliberately created by management. This is to say that they are not reliant on a hierarchical structure, as we have it in large-scale formal organisations. They have very loose structures. People can become members freely and sometimes spontaneously; relationships are undefined and the sharing of responsibility and involvement of members vary considerably. It could be a small "gossip group", a lunch break, fellowship members, or associations formed by workers of an organisation in the name of thrifts, loans or savings societies.

A better example is an organisation's football team where we might find a managing director, a manager and a casual worker, or even a cleaner all in the same team. The coach or team captain may even be the least employee of the organisation. Here, the relationships among them would definitely differ from what is obtainable in the office place. Another good example is demonstrated in a situation where important decisions of an organisation are concluded in a beer palour before a general meeting is called to fulfill all righteousness.

Gray and Starke cited in Aina (2002:39) believe that any behaviour that occurs above and beyond that prescribed by the formal organisation is as a result of informal organisation. *(See also: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/informal_organisation, http://www. businessdictionary.com/definition/informal-organisation.html.)*

Advantages of informal organisation

- informal organisation creates strong relationships among members
- there is no theoretical "boss" and this makes all members feel like a larger part of the organisation as a whole
- it helps to fulfill the social needs and sense of belongingness in an organisation
- it enhances faster spread of information as well as quick feedback
- it contributes towards fulfillment of organisational objectives, for example, employees reactions towards plans and policies can be tested through the informal network.

Disadvantages

- the absence of clear structure can result in a reduction in professionalism
- it spreads rumours which may work against the interest of the formal organisation
- it pressurises members to conform to group expectations, etc.

Despite the observed weaknesses of informal organisations, a wise media manager can exploit the strengths to realise organisational goals.

3.2   Features of Media Organisations

Every organisation including media outfits share some characteristics features ingrained in their corporate culture. Recognising and understanding such features can help to detect problems in your own media organisation and take corrective measures to operate a successful media business.

Such features among others include:

- It must have purpose or objectives that justify its existence and guide its operations
- An organisation must have a particular task or activity it does to achieve its objectives

- There must be line of authority, and hierarchy of responsibility which shows how duties are shared in the organisation
- Similarly, organisation engage in division of labour as this creates more efficiency and job specialisation.
- An organisation must have good relationship with the environment it operates. This brings into play the essence of corporate social responsibilities.
- Unity of purpose: This implies that all departments and units in an organisation must work together to achieve a predefined goal, etc.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we identified and explained the nature and features of organisations in the media context. A good knowledge of this would go a long way in equipping the present and future media managers.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has discussed both formal and informal organisations. It has also explained that both types exist in every organisation. This unit also identified the unique features that make the organisations stand.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Compare and contrast formal and informal media organisation.
2. What are the features of a healthy media organisation?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aina, S. (2002). *Modern Media Management.* Nigeria: Ebensun Publishers.

Baran, S. (1999). *Introduction to Mass Communication; Media Literacy and Culture.* California: Mayfield Publishing.

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UNIT 3   MEDIA ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

CONTENTS

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4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Every organisation has a structural pattern or arrangement that governs the relationships that exist among members of the organisation. This arrangement indicates control system, decision making authorities and information sharing routes. This is otherwise known as organisational structure. This unit examines the concept of organisational structure in media context. It identifies and explains the various types.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss media organisational structures
- identify and explain the types of media organisational structures.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Media Organisational Structure

Organisational structure refers to the institutional arrangements and mechanisms for mobilising human, physical, financial and information resources at all levels of the system (Sachdeva, 1990). It is an organisational design that specifies predictable patterns of authority and responsibility/relationships existing among members of an organisation. It shows the formal control system in an organisation, the locations of decision-making authorities, and the information distribution channels (Aina, 2002:52).

Organisational structures are in most cases demonstrated in diagrams that show levels of authority. It is often referred to as organogram or organisational chart. It is a visual diagram that shows the various units

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and departments in an organisation and how they relate with each other. Organisational structure is therefore very important in media, organisations as it determines and influences workers behaviours and efficiency as well as determines and improves communication lines, between management and employees.

3.2   Types of Media Organisational Structure

There are different types of organisational structures. Notable among them include:

a.   **Mechanistic structure:** This is a highly formalised and centralised organisational structure. Under this structure, a vertical relationship exists between superior officers and their subordinates. The structures clearly indicate job specification and responsibilities for each staff. The mechanical structure is easy and cheap to operate; this is because, it encourages centralisation of power and strict control of affairs of the organisation. Most media organisations in Nigeria fashion their media outfits after this structure.

b.   **Adhocratic organisational structure:** Adhocratic structures are also referred to as 'free form' or organic organisation structures. They stress managerial styles which do not necessarily depend on formal structures. Unlike the mechanistic organisational structure, the organic or adhocratic structure has less number of hierarchical levels with many subordinates under one boss. It is flexible, more consultative and democratic. It is adaptive and organised around special problems to be solved by a group consisting of experts with diverse professional skills (Robbins, 1989).
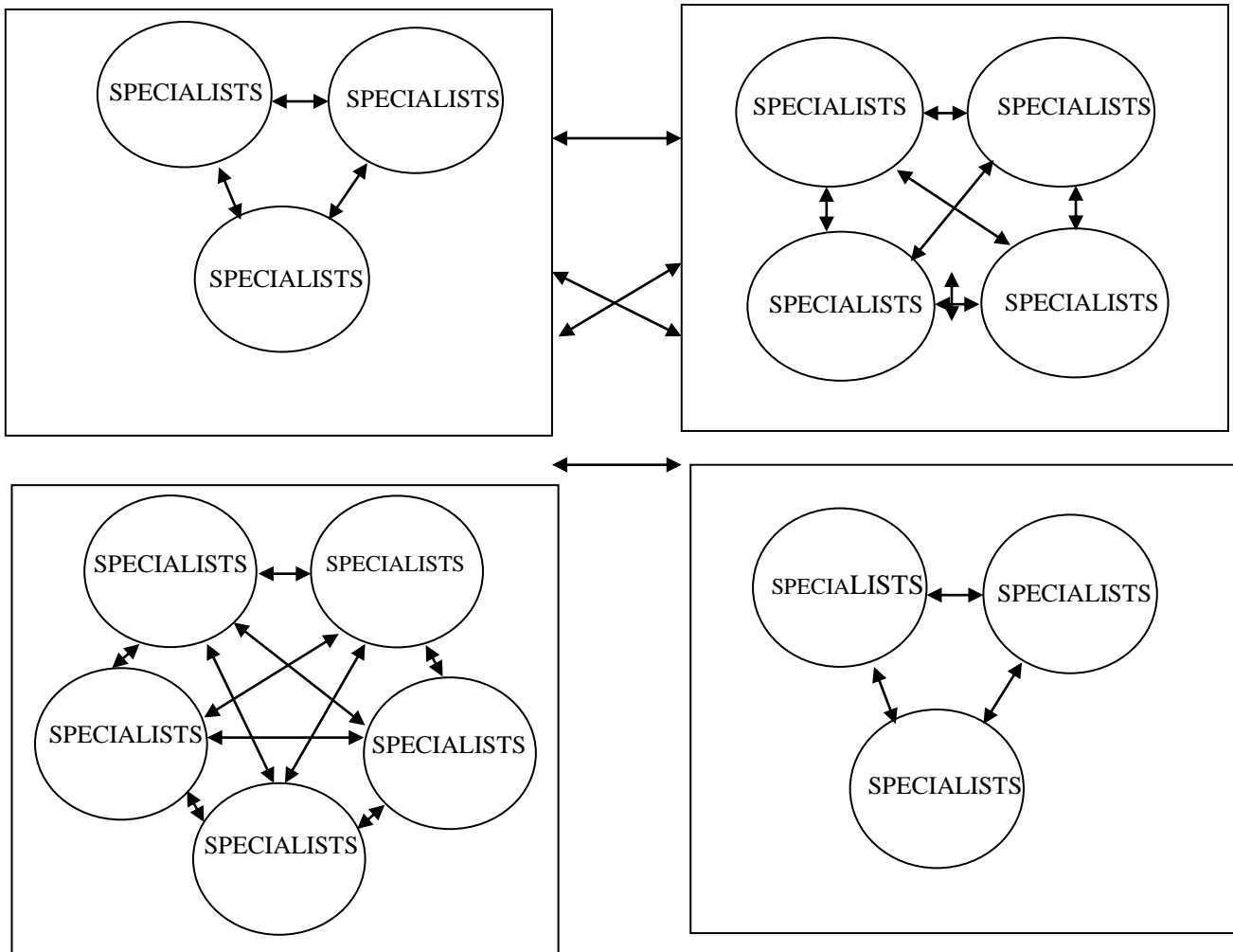
Fig. 3.1: An Adhocratic Organisational Structure

c.   **Classical organisational structure:** This is a simple centralised organisational structure where the power and responsibility for decision-making and goal-setting are concentrated on one person at the top. The classical organisational structure is commonly found in one-man business organisations. One common feature of this type of structure is that it has only a few persons who specialise in performing critical functions; the manager is usually an expert in every aspects of the job.

d.   **Matrix structure:** This is a mixture of divisional and functional organisational structures. It is typically used in large multinational companies. The matrix structure allows for the benefits of functional and divisional structures to exist in one organisation. The major disadvantage is that it can create power struggles because most areas of the company will have a dual management - a functional manager and a product or divisional

manager working at the same level of the same managerial territory.

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┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│           Top Management             │
├─────────────────────────────────────┤
│  -  Designs purpose and philosophy   │
│  -  Strategic planning               │
│  -  Determines policies and practices│
│                                      │
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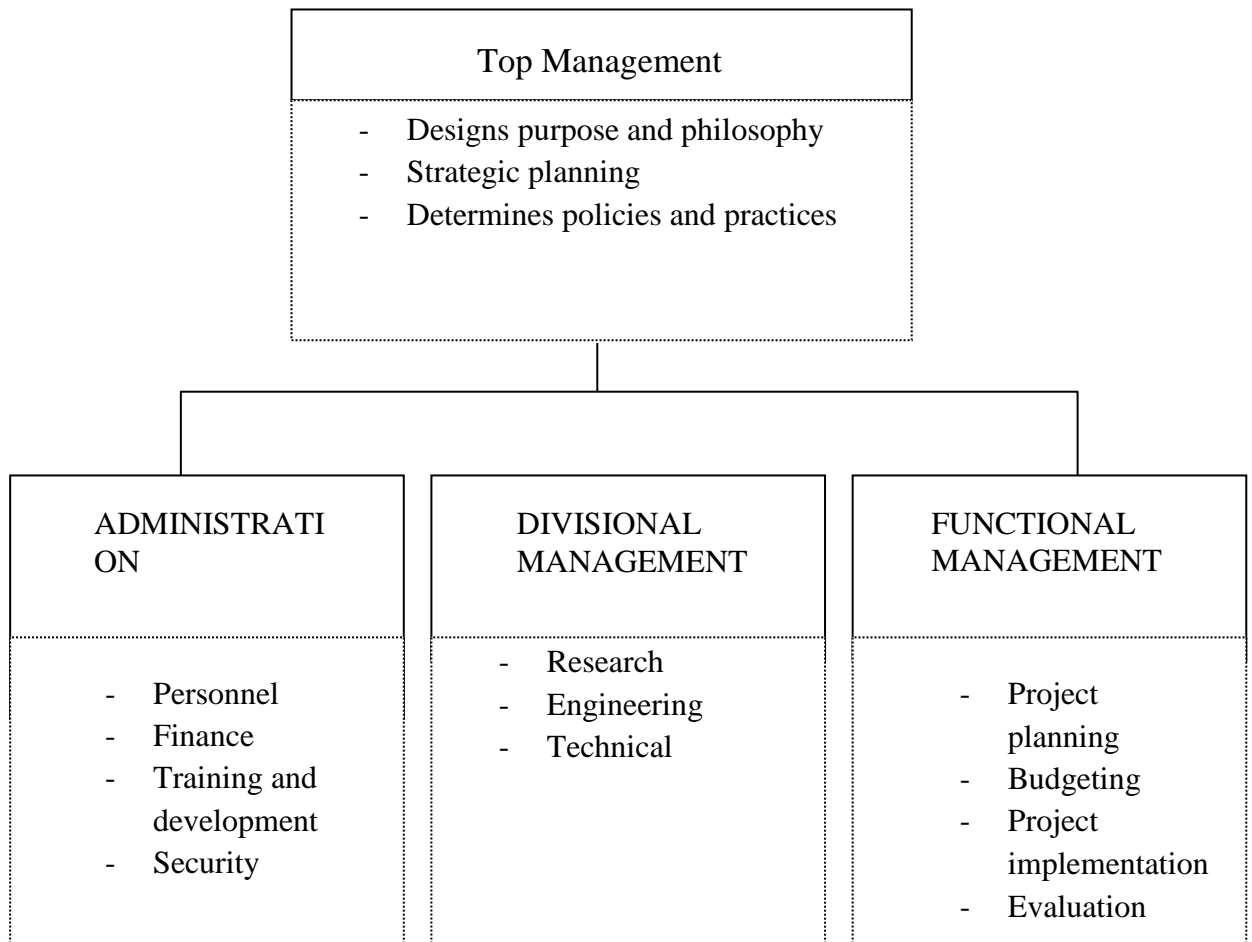
ADMINISTRATION	DIVISIONAL MANAGEMENT	FUNCTIONAL MANAGEMENT
- Personnel - Finance - Training and development - Security	- Research - Engineering - Technical	- Project planning - Budgeting - Project implementation - Evaluation

Fig.3. 2: A Matrix Organisational Structure

e.   **Bureaucratic organisation**: Bureaucratic structures are commonly found in large organisations. They use standard methods and well-known procedures in their routine job. They are highly formalised, less consultative and less democratic. It requires a high level of specialised skills in their daily routine.

e.   **Divisionalised organisation:** This refers to a single organisation that produces many products or renders multiple services under different divisions. This type of organisational design is favoured when they produce or render different kinds of products or services respectively, which require different kinds of management, e.g. the DAAR Communication group owns the Ray Power FM, Africa Independent Television (AIT) and the DAARSAT. The Silverbird Group owns the Silverbird Television, the Silverbird Cinema and the Rhythm FM. Same is

the situation with the various newspaper groups that have their daily editions, Saturday editions, Sunday editions and their sports newspapers with different editor.
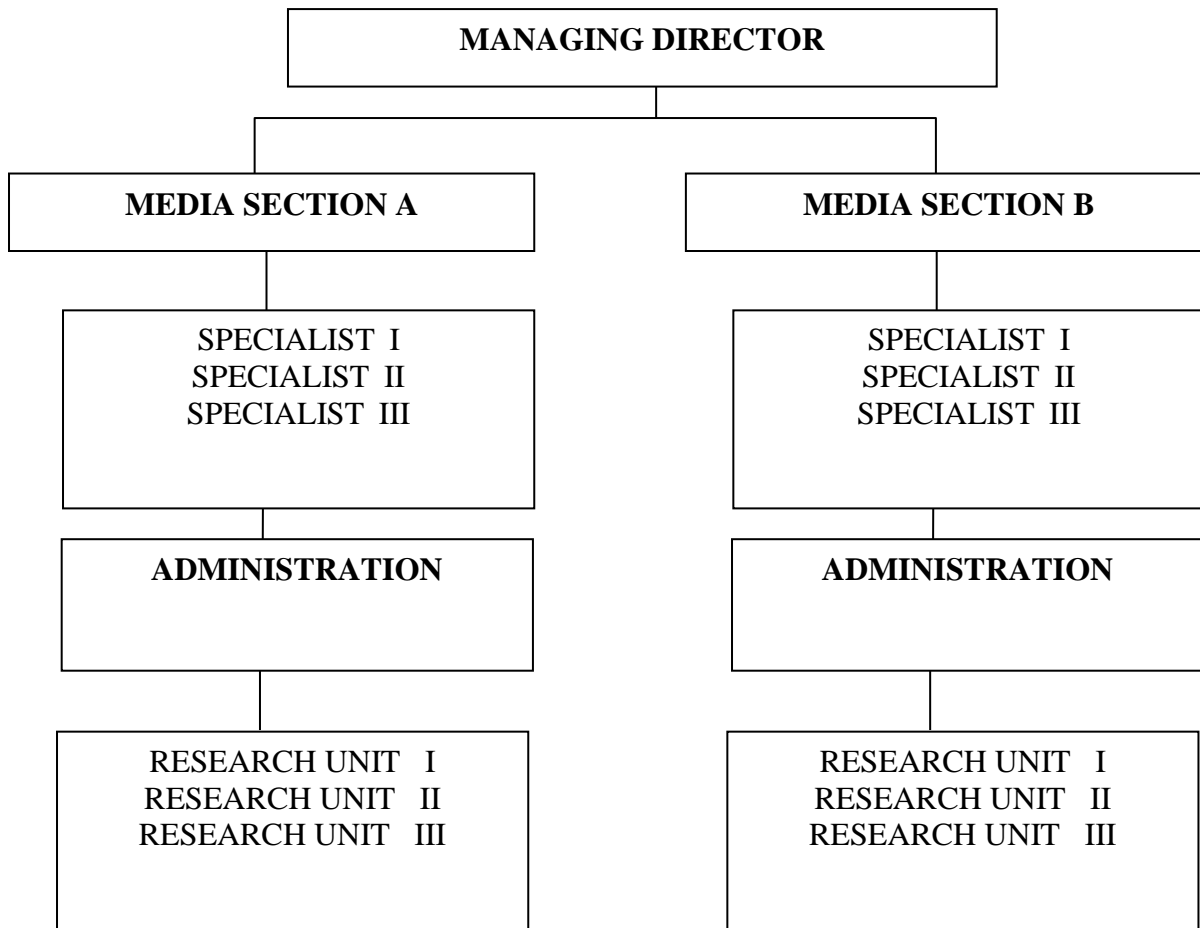
```
                    ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                    │     MANAGING DIRECTOR       │
                    └─────────────────────────────┘
              ┌──────────────┴──────────────┐
  ┌───────────────────────┐       ┌───────────────────────┐
  │   MEDIA SECTION A      │       │   MEDIA SECTION B      │
  └───────────────────────┘       └───────────────────────┘
              │                                 │
  ┌───────────────────────┐       ┌───────────────────────┐
  │    SPECIALIST  I       │       │    SPECIALIST  I       │
  │    SPECIALIST  II      │       │    SPECIALIST  II      │
  │    SPECIALIST  III     │       │    SPECIALIST  III     │
  └───────────────────────┘       └───────────────────────┘
              │                                 │
  ┌───────────────────────┐       ┌───────────────────────┐
  │    ADMINISTRATION      │       │    ADMINISTRATION      │
  └───────────────────────┘       └───────────────────────┘
              │                                 │
  ┌───────────────────────┐       ┌───────────────────────┐
  │  RESEARCH UNIT   I     │       │  RESEARCH UNIT   I     │
  │  RESEARCH UNIT   II    │       │  RESEARCH UNIT   II    │
  │  RESEARCH UNIT   III   │       │  RESEARCH UNIT   III   │
  └───────────────────────┘       └───────────────────────┘
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Fig. 3. 3: A Divisionalised Organisational Structure

f.   Network organisational structures: These types of organisations are created and structured for outsourcing of jobs, tasks and/or activities to outside entities to better achieve their goals; reduce operating costs; take advantages of price discrepancies in the marketplace; export liability; and harness volunteer-based talent.

g.   Functional structure: Functional organisations are structured into groups according to their purposes. The functional structure works very effectively for small businesses in which each department can rely on the talent and knowledge of its workers and support itself. Its major weakness however, is that the coordination and communication between departments can be restricted by the organisational boundaries as the result of having the various departments working separately.
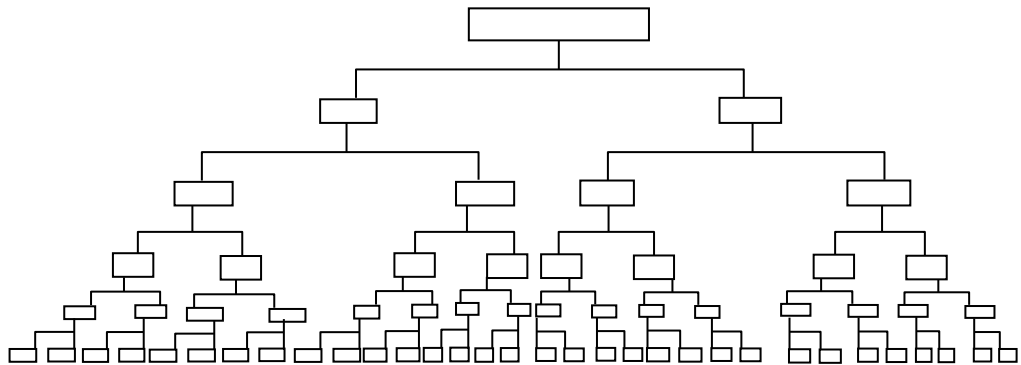
An organisational structure of an organisation may be tall or flat, irrespective of the type of organisation.

Tall organisational structure

This organisational structure as the name suggests has one long chain of command or a tall organisational hierarchy. It is more applicable to large, complex organisations. A tall organisational structure emerges as a result of continuous growth of an organisation. In this type of structure, there are different types of managers, each handling one small area of control. For instance, a given television station could have the manager programmes, director news and current affairs, director of sports, etc.

Flat organisational structure

Unlike the tall organisational structures, the flat structures have fewer management levels, with each level controlling a many areas, units or groups. Flat organisations more or less, concentrate on growing and nurturing employees rather than adapting to a given chain of command. They encourage creativity, initiatives and independence of staff. They reflect a fewer hierarchical layers in their structures, with many subordinates (e.g. reporters or programme producers) reporting to one superior officer (editor or controller of programmes). Flat organisational structures are open, flexible and adapt to changes easier and faster than the tall organisational structures.

Fig.3. 4: Tall Media Organisational Structure

Fig. 3.5: Flat Media Organisational Structure

4.0   CONCLUSION

Our discussions in this unit show that organisational structures are organisational designs that show lines of authorities and responsibilities in a given organisation. It shows the locations of decision-making and information flow in an organisation. Several types of organisational structure exist depending on the type, organisational strategies and environmental complexities.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed the meaning and types of organisational structures. This is applicable to many organisations including the media.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What do you understand by media organisational structure?
2.   Identify and explain the various types you know.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4   DEPARTMENTS IN MEDIA ORGANISATIONS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Media Departmentalisation
        3.2   Departments in Print Media Organisation
        3.3   Departments in Broadcast Media Organisation
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

News by its very nature is time-bound. Any delay in getting it to the public as fast as possible makes it stale. This peculiar nature has made the job of media men very demanding. To meet up with the demand, media organisations usually divide their jobs into units, segments or departments where each job is handled by specialists that are best fitted for it. This unit examines those units or departments in media organisations, the persons that work there and the kinds of jobs they do.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   discuss the various departments in media organisations (print and electronic)
•   discuss the nomenclatures of the persons that work in each of the department and the kind of jobs they do.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Media Departmentalisation

When we talk about media departmentalisation, we mean the various units or sub-units or divisions or segments in media organisations that function together to attain the organisational goals. Many people usually wonder how on earth it is possible for newspapers and magazines to turn out their publication judging from the volume of work that go in the production of every edition.

In the broadcast media, it is even more serious matter as timeliness is more of a necessity in radio and television. Be that as it may, the fact remains that this is made possible through the efforts of many professionals who work in several departments. Such persons may include but not limited to reporters, editors, engineers, artists craftsmen, administrators, etc. They work with the principles of division of labour in such a way that each job and departments are manned by persons that are best fitted for it. It is this division or grouping of media activities into sections division or units to achieve organisational goals that are referred to as media departmentalisation (Ogunsiji, M.A. 1989; Aina, 2002).

3.2 Departments in a Typical Nigeria Newspaper Organisation

A typical newspaper organisation has the editorial department, production department, advertisement department, circulation department, personnel and maintenance department and affairs relations department.

Editorial department: This is the nerve centre of a newspaper organisation. The department is in charge of newsgathering; news processing and news packaging activities. The major officers include: reporters, sub-editors, chief sub-editor, news editor, features editor, layout editor, editorial page editor, sports editor, picture editor, foreign page editor, women's page editor and managing editor or editor-in-chief. Others are Editor-in-chief, editors, editorial page editor, chief sub-editor, and news editors, etc.

Advertisement department: The adverts department is in charge of canvassing advertisements and the placement of advertisement in the newspaper. Of course, advertisement is the livewire of every newspaper organisation; as such the department is usually headed by an experienced advertisement manager who is a good salesperson.

The advertisement department is in charge of generating the money for the sustenance of the newspaper organisation. In other words, the department keeps the newspaper organisation running through the generation of income.

The advertisement manager heads this department. In a large organisation, two other individuals called the deputy advertisement manager and assistant advertisement manager assist him or her. Under these officers are numerous advertisement executives who canvass regularly for advertisements. There are also advertisement clerks who keep records of incoming advertisements.

Production department: This is another important department in a newspaper organisation. It has responsibility for typesetting news stories, doing the paste-up, making a plate for each page of the newspaper, and printing the newspaper.

Circulation department: The circulation department is in charge of ensuring that the newspaper gets to the hands of the readers. This department is very important because the circulation of a newspaper goes a long way in determining the amount of advertisements it gets. The larger the circulation, the more advertisers will be willing to advertise in the paper.

Personnel and maintenance departments: These departments play another vital role in a newspaper organisation. They see to the existence and smooth-running of a newspaper organisation. The personnel department is responsible for the recruitment, discipline and firing of staff members. The maintenance department ensures that all the various component parts of the newspaper organisation are functioning and properly maintained so that organisational goals are attained. This department called administration department in some newspaper organisations. Where such is the case, it also houses the accounts and the public affairs sections.

3.3   Departments in the Broadcast Media

The following departments are available in most broadcast media organisations.

Programmes department: This department is sub-divided into two: programmes and production sections. The programmes department is in charge of programming while the production unit is made up of producers who produce programmes and presenters that do the presentations. We also have cameramen, lighting men, audio/sound men, constructors and graphic transmission directors, audio mixers and vision mixers in the case of television.

News and current affairs department: This department sees to the generation and presentation of news items and current affairs material.

Engineering department: Here, we have the engineers and technicians that ensure that broadcast signals are transmitted to the audience.

Administrative department: This department sees to staff recruitment, training, promotions, firing, etc.

Marketing/commercial department: This department is in charge of income generation for the organisation.

Finance department: Sees to financial matters such as preparation of budgets and reconciliation of income and expenditure, etc.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have extensively discussed the departments in media organisations (print and broadcast). All these departments work hand in hand in the attainment of organisational goals.

5.0   SUMMARY

Our efforts in this unit have been to identify those key units, departments and individuals that keep media organisations existing. Thus we have identified among others, the editorial department, commercials department, production department, programmes department, news and current affairs, administrations department, engineering, accounts, circulation, etc.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is media departmentalisation?
2.   Discuss extensively the various departments in both print and broadcast media,   showing the persons involved and the kind of jobs they do.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aina, S. (2002). *Modern Media Management.* Nigeria: Ebensun Publishers.

Ogunsiji, M.A. (1989). *Introduction to Print Journalism.* Lagos: Nelson Publishers.

UNIT 5   SOURCES OF REVENUE FOR MEDIA ORGANISATIONS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Major Revenue Sources for Media Organisations
        3.2   Other (Minor) Sources of Revenue for Media Organisations
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Media organisations are commercial outfits. As such, they require funds to exist and continue to exist. The funds are sourced from various quarters. This unit examines the various sources of revenue open to a media organisation.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

• identify the various sources of revenue available to a media organisation
• mention other sources of revenue for media organisations.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Major Revenue Sources for Media Organisation

Media organisations require funds to survive. Such funds could be sourced from the following sources among others:

Advertising: This is perhaps the primary economic base of media industries; except the government-owned ones which are financed by the government. Advertisers pay for adverts space in newspapers and magazines and for air time in the broadcast media to air their commercials during certain time to the listening or viewing public.

Government fund/subsidy: Some media organisations, particularly the government owned media houses attract subsidies, entitlements and

other funding from time to time. However, such funds in most cases do not come for free as the popular adage says: "He who pays the piper dictates the tune."

Public relations services: Media outfits can generate money from independent bodies on contract basis for carrying or airing news, features or documentaries in their favour as part of public relations services.

Affiliate compensation: Local broadcast station sometimes get remunerations from networks for carrying their programming.

Sale of time/space: This is one of the common sources of revenue for media organisations. Sale of time/space could be to religious bodies, political parties, private individuals, groups, and organisations among others.

Trade-out arrangements: This is another means of sourcing revenue for the media. Trade-outs simply mean a situation where a media organisation provides time or space in exchanges for goods or services offered by the advertisers.

Co-operative advertising: This is an arrangement where a media outfit and her business partner reach an agreement to split part of the cost of advertising with the company whose products are advertised for services rendered to the media organisation. In such case, both parties will render services in completion of their business deal.

Barter arrangement: This is when a media organisation agrees to receive programming in return for providing advertising time.

Time brokerage: This is when a station sells a block of time to another party (broadcast station) who in turn programmes the time block and also sells commercial in it. For example, if you operate a radio station and find it difficult to sell commercial time during a particular time period, you might decide to sell that entire time block, say two hours, to another party. That party in turn will programme the time slot and sell advertising in it.

Promotion: This is another huge source of fund generation for media organisations. Before now not many media organisations ventured into this, in recent times, more and more media establishments are realising the importance of promotion as vital means of fund generation.

Other sources of fund for media organisations include: commercial printing, bulk-delivery services, special projects, advertorial, supplements, subvention, profits, sales of stocks, payment for news items and live coverage of events, loans, cover prices of newspapers and magazines, recording facilities, disposal of back copies of publications, etc. (Nwachukwu, 1992; Ogbuoshi, 2003).

4.0   CONCLUSION

The survival and sustenance of media organisation require heavy funding. As such, those who manage the media must be persons with good business ideas and skills. This unit has identified the major and minor sources of revenue open to a media organisation.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has identified the sources of revenue open to a media organisation to include but not limited to advertising, grants and subventions, promotions, public relations services, barter arrangement, loans, special projects, advertorial, supplements, subvention, profits, sales of stocks, payment for news items and live coverage of events, loans, cover prices of newspaper and magazine, recording facilities, etc.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify and explain the major and minor sources of funding open to a media organisation.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Nwachukwu, C. (1992). *Management Theory and Practice.* Onitsha: Africana FEB Publishers Ltd.

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MODULE 4   ADMINISTRATION   OF   MEDIA ORGANISATION

Unit 1   Communication Process in Media Organisation
Unit 2   Performance Appraisal and MBO
Unit 3   Motivation in Media Organisations
Unit 4   Managing Conflicts in Media Organisations

UNIT 1   COMMUNICATION   PROCESS   IN   MEDIA ORGANISATION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
    3.1   Meaning and Nature of Communication
    3.2   Forms of Organisational Communication
    3.3   Communication Flows within an Organisation
    3.4   Barriers to Effective Communication in Media Organisation
    3.5   Tips for Enhancing Communication in Media Organisation
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Communication is the live-wire of every organisation. This is because management involves organising, directing, controlling and planning, all of which are communication driven. This unit examines communication process in media organisations.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the meaning and nature of communication
- state the forms of communication
- explain the communication flows/networks in media organisations

- discuss the barriers to effective communication media organisations
- mention the tips for enhancing communication in media organisations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning and Nature of Communication

The word "communication" is derived from the Latin word "communicare", which means "to make common". Communication means exchange or sharing of ideas. It is the sending of signals across to person(s) and the purpose is usually to elicit some response(s) from such person(s) (Adibe, 2010:2).

Communication is the vital link that influences both individual motivation and group behaviour in an organisation. There are different types of communication. Okunna (1999:12), identified the following basic types:

1. **Intra-personal communication:** This is communication that goes on within or inside an individual. It is communication with oneself, e.g. singing while working or relaxing, soliloquising.

2. **Interpersonal communication:** This is the type of communication that takes place between or among two or more persons. It is mostly in a face-to-face situation, e.g. communication between mother and child, between a lecturer and his students, etc. Interpersonal Communication can be grouped into three:

   a. **Dyadic communication:** This is a communication between two persons. In this case is usually a high degree of privacy and intimacy e.g.a confessional before a priest, bedroom talks, etc.

   b. **Micro-group communication:** This is interpersonal communication that takes place among a small number of people, e.g. communication in a boardroom meeting, or a round table discussion.

   c. **Macro-group communication:** This is interpersonal communication that takes place among a large group such as in an evangelical crusade or in a political rally.

3.   **Mass communication:** In this type of communication, messages are transmitted to a large, scattered, heterogeneous audience that cut across different races, sex, religion and cultural background simultaneously. In other words, it is the type of communication that goes to audience that the speaker or communicator does not see. This type of communication is made possible by some products of science and technology, commonly referred to as mass media (plural), mass medium (singular).

3.2   Forms of Communication

There are several forms of communication open to a media organisation today. The major ones include:

(a)   Oral communication: Oral communication takes place formally or informally. It could be face-to-face discussions between or among staff. It could also include interviews, discussions at editorial board meetings, conversations with advertisers, suppliers, etc. One of the main advantages of oral communication is the opportunity for spontaneous feedback. Its major weakness is that it is not documented.

(b)   Written communication: Written communication is commonly used in every organisation, including the media. It is perhaps the most effective and official means of communication in organisations. It manifests through memos, notice boards, queries, handbooks, stylebooks, etc. This form of communication has the advantage of permanence, it can be reproduced, it reduces the cases of denial, it confirms offers made, or business transactions done verbally, the major limitation is that literacy is is a prerequisite. Also, this type of communication could be used against someone in a case of litigations.

(c)   Mediated communication: These are communications communicated with the use of machines or computer-mediated gadgets such as cell-phones, computer emails, the Internet, etc. They are fast, cheap, but heavily rely on power which may not always available in this part of the world.

3.3   Communication Flow within an Organisation

According to Watson, J. and Hill, A. (1984), "Every organisation has two well-established communication systems – the formal and the informal." They also identify a third pattern of communication flow which, though not well-established, is recognised to operate alongside the two. It is known as semi-formal flow.

Formal communication systems: These are the legitimate routes through which information flows in organisations. It is the official recognised channels through which information is disseminated in organisations.

Informal communication: These are the unofficial means through which information are shared in an organisation. These unofficial means include rumours, grapevines, gossips, etc.

Apart from formal and informal communication systems, there are four basic types of communication flows within an organisation. These typologies are inherent in the formal and informal communication systems earlier discussed. They are as follow:

Downward communication: This refers to orders, directives and policy statements which are passed down the ladder of an organisational hierarchy from officials at the top echelon to workers at the lowest rung of the ladder. This typology is usually emphasised by the traditional approach to administration, because it is assumed that the top management in a position to make decisions that are in the best interest of the workers.

Upward flow: This is the opposite of downward communication. It is bottom-up or subordinate to superior communication. This pattern of communication flow gives subordinates the opportunity to send messages about their attitudes, reactions or feelings to the upper level managers. This flow of communication exemplifies industrial democracy since it provides journalists and other professionals the opportunity of two-way communication.

Lateral flow: This is otherwise known as horizontal communication. This is communication flow between employees on the same hierarchical level in an organisation. It serves as a means of coordinating activities among the various departments performing different tasks, but nevertheless working towards the same goal.
Lateral communication also allows for information sharing and conflict resolution, among employees in different departments.

3.4   Barriers to Effective Communication in Media Organisation

In communication, noise is regarded as anything that impedes free flow of information for understanding and clear hearing. Sambe (2005:18) identifies the following as noise and barriers to effective communication in contemporary media organisations.

a. **Complex language use:** Communication between the source and the receiver may be impeded if the use of language comes with poor pronunciations, complex words and if sentences are not simple and clear enough.

b. **Flickering images:** Flickering images on television, scratching sound from radio and poor print in magazines, newspapers, books and other publications may impede clear communication and prevent not only attentiveness but lack of understanding and interest.

c. **Inattentiveness due to psychological state:** This arises from emotional instability and mental attitude and could be detrimental to effective information flow.

d. **Differences in the states of minds of the sender and the receiver:** Sometimes the sender of a communication is not on the same frame of reference with the receiver. Therefore, a breakdown in communication may occur.

e. **Selectivity and bias:** People tend to hear what they want to hear in contrast to what has really been said. Sadly, most people are not aware of their individual biases until these are brought to their attention. Individual bias and selectivity is influenced by culture, social situations and individual value systems.

f. **Differences in status:** Subordinates tend to read more meaning into information passed to them by their superiors, while superiors may not handle information passed to them by subordinates in this manner. Furthermore, for fear of criticism subordinates may not want to pass their information to superiors. The open door policy is often advised to overcome such barriers.

g. **Emotional overtones:** Fear and other emotional overtones can distort the message or prevent the passing of correct information. For instance, information that can upset someone is usually concealed or twisted to lighten its effect, for angry people do not listen properly. Thus, issues are better sorted out in a cordial atmosphere.

h. **Information overload:** Excess information creates disjunctions. The release of too much information should therefore be carefully weighed.

i. **General noise:** It arises from industrial machines, vehicles crowd and other physical sources like commotions in the newsroom.

3.5 Tips for Enhancing Communication in Media Organisation

For business communication to produce desired results, media managers should note the following 'Ten Commandments" of good communication given by the American Management Association (AMA) as cited in Sambe (2005). They are:

i.   clarify your ideas before communication;
ii.   examine the true purpose of every communication;
iii.   consider the human and physical settings when you communicate;
iv.   be mindful of the basic content as well as the undertones of your communication;
v.   consult with others in planning communication;
vi.   take the opportunity any time it arises to convey something of help or value to the receiver;
vii.   follow up your communication;
viii.   communicate for tomorrow as well as today;
ix.   be sure your actions support your communication;
x.   speak not only to be understood but, also understand how to be a good listener.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Communication is a central activity in growth and sustenance of every organisation. This unit has identified the types, forms, the flow pattern, the barriers and some tips for communication enhancement in organisations.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, attempt has been made to explain the meaning and nature of communication as it concerns media organisations. We have also discussed the various types, forms, the flow pattern, the barriers and some tips for better communication in media organisations.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   How does communication flow in an organisation?
2.   What are the barriers to effective communication in an organisation?
3.   How can we improve poor communication skills in a typical media organisation?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL AND MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The issue of performance appraisal is one of the functions of human resources management. Employees are appointed with specific responsibilities assigned to them. This unit examines performance appraisal and management by objectives as it concerns media organisations.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of performance appraisal
- discuss management by objectives (MBO).

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal is a process by which the performance level of employees is measured. It means using established standards to make decisions about promotions, compensation, additional training or even firing. It is a process of defining expectations for employees' performance and measuring and recording their actual performance in relation to those expectations and providing feedbacks.

Steps Involved in the Appraisal Process

Nine steps were recognised as forming part of the appraisal process by Aamodt, M.G. (2007) they are as follows:

1. **Determine the reason for evaluating employee performance:** As the first step in the appraisal process, it is a very crucial aspect because the various performance appraisal techniques are not used for the same evaluation process. The technique that works when determining pay increase may not work for training. The reasons for appraising employee vary and include determining salary increases, making promotion decisions, providing employee training and feedback, making termination decisions and conducting personnel research.

2. **Identify environmental and cultural limitations:** The environment and culture in which organisations operate affects appraisal positively or negatively. Ways through which these factors are changed to suit organisational purposes should be devised like using peer rating to break strong informal groups, etc.

3. **Determine who will evaluate performance:** The need for a holistic assessment of employees has overturned the traditional use of only supervisors' rating. This could be because of sycophancy (eye service), bias, etc. The new trend gears towards the use of 360 Degree Feedback and Multi-source Feedback which include supervisors, peers, subordinates, groups, customers and self, as appraisers.

4. **Select the best appraisal method to accomplish your goals:** Given the different reasons for appraisal, the methods to be chosen should suit the reason in terms of accurate appraisal. This is preceded by two important decisions: (a) the focus of the performance appraisal dimensions like trait, competence, task, goal and contextual performance (efforts made to improve relationship, organisations and perform task that are not part of the official job description), and (b) whether the dimensions should be weighted and how, that is, via employee comparisons, objective measures (quantity and quality of work, attendance and safety rules) or ratings (graphic rating scale, behavioural checking, frequencies of desired behaviours and extent to which organisational expectations are met).

5. **Train raters:** This is necessary in order to ensure increased accuracy, reduce rating errors and increase validity of tests validated against the ratings and increase employee satisfaction with the ratings.

6. **Observe and document performance:** Critical incidents like excellent and poor employee performance should be documented

when observed and also communicated to the employee as at when observed. This step is important to force a supervisor to focus on employee behaviours rather than traits and provides behavioural examples to use when reviewing performance ratings with employees, help supervisor recall behaviours when they are evaluating performance (rather than using measures like first impressions, recent behaviours unusual or extreme behaviours, or behaviour consistent with the supervisor's opinion), provides examples to use when reviewing performance ratings with employees and helps an organisation defend against legal actions taken against it by employees who were terminated or denied raises or promotions.

7. **Evaluate performance:** To implement this step, objective data relevant to the employee's behaviour should be obtained and reviewed, critical incidents written for an employee read, assign performance appraisal ratings while avoiding errors involving distribution, halo, proximity and contrast.

8. **Communicate appraisal results to employees:** As an important part of performance evaluation, feedback is given to the employee and used to assess strengths and weaknesses in order to ascertain further training needed.

9. **Terminate employees:** This final step involves making positive personnel decisions such as raises and promotions but the extreme case of termination of employment may result from the evaluation process. Care should be taken on how this decision is taken because it may incur legal actions against organisations.

Objectives of performance appraisal

Performance appraisal performs some certain functions which include:
*   recognising and determining employees' current level of performance o the job
*   determine their strengths and weaknesses as regards expectations
*   influencing the performance, improvement and development of employees positively
*   ascertaining areas of individual and organisational training needs
*   providing a basis for rewards and possible promotion and/or possible termination as a result of contribution towards achieving organisational goals
*   communicates to employees their performance levels on the job and the potential they can be able to achieve
*   provides information on personnel needs and succession planning; and

- determining the success or failure of recruitment, selection, placement, training and development programmes.

3.2   Management by Objectives (MBO)

The phrase Management by Objectives' (MBO) was first coined by Peter Drucker in the 1950s, in his classic book, 'The Practice of Management'. He saw it as a principle of management aimed at harmonising individual manager's goals with those of the organisation. It is the means of integrating organisational goals such as profit and growth, with the needs of individual managers to enhance organisational and employees' benefits Koontz, M., O'Donnell, C., & Weihrich, H. (1980)

Prerequisites for successful MBO

To successfully apply MBO, the following requirements must be met:

1.   Top management must formulate clearly defined, co-operate objectives and goals which will be the criteria by which subsequent goal setting will be guided.
2.   Goals should be forced down from superior to subordinate manager at each level of management. The superior and subordinate management must mutually agree on the goal. After all, the essence of MBO is to ensure that every manager is to take part in the goal setting process.
3.   To set realistic goals at all levels, manager at each level should have access to all necessary information.
4.   There should be adequate motivation; the reward of the organisation should be designed to have direct linkage with achievement of agreed goals. This promotes, and stimulates, the desire of the managers to achieve the set goals.

Benefits of MBO

Management by objective has the following benefits:
1.   MBO permits easy measurement of the results at all levels. Punctuation through MBO the performance appraisal of managers becomes clearer, more objectives and less objectionable.
2.   MBO, improves communication, promote a sense of shared responsibility and mutual interdependence and common interest.
3.   Clarification of roles and jobs from the individual and work team through MBO improves efficiency. Ideas for work improvement are systematically reviewed and adopted where necessary under MBO system.

4.   It develops logically from the corporate planning process by translating corporate and department objectives into individual manager objectives.
5.   It seeks to improve management performance.

3.3   MBO as Appraisal Tool

Behaviour studies have long emphasised the need for objective feedback in terms of constructive criticism and justified praise. Too frequently, individuals have been counseled about their performance following formal reporting periods, and then only superficially. In order to meet the challenges that come with a management position, a supervisor must be constantly aware of the performance and potential of his people and genuinely concerned about their professional development. Proven techniques and management concepts that can assist today's manager in meeting these challenges, among them is MBO.

MBO methods of performance appraisal are results-oriented. An important part of MBO is the measurement and the comparison of the employee's actual performance with the standards set, that is, they seek to measure employee performance by examining the extent to which predetermined work objectives have been met. Ideally, when the employees themselves have been involved with the goal-setting and the choosing of the course of action to be followed by them, they are more likely to fulfill their responsibilities.

The essence of MBO is participative goal-setting choosing courses of actions and decision making. Once an objective is agreed, the employee is usually expected to self-audit; that is, to identify the skills needed to achieve the objective. Typically, they do not rely on weaknesses. They are expected to monitor their own development and progress.

MBO system of performance appraisal has the following characteristics:

1.   Each manager is required to take certain prescribed actions and to complete certain written documents;
2.   The manager and subordinates should discuss the subordinate's job description, agree to short-term performance targets, discuss the progress made towards meeting these targets, and periodically evaluate the performance and provide the feedback.

Advantages of MBO as an appraisal tool

•   The MBO approach overcomes some of the problems that arise as a result of assuming that the employee traits needed for job success can be reliably identified and measured.

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- Instead of assuming traits, the MBO method concentrates on actual outcomes. If the employee meets or exceeds the set objectives, then he or she has demonstrated an acceptable level of job performance.
- Employees are judged according to real outcomes; and not on their potential for success, or on someone's subjective opinion of their abilities. The guiding principle of the MBO approach is that direct results can be observed, whereas the traits and attributes of employees, which may or may not contribute to performance, must be guessed or inferred.
- The MBO method recognises the fact that it is difficult to neatly dissect all the complex and varied elements that goes to make up employee performance.
- MBO advocates claim that the performance of employees cannot be broken up into so many constituent parts – as one might take apart an engine to study it. But put all the parts together and the performance may be directly observed and measured.
- MBO aids in the achievement of desired results.
- MBO improves employee motivation and commitment, and ensures better communication between management and employees.
- It is intended to improve communication between employees and management, increase employee understanding of company goals, focus employee efforts upon organisational objectives, and provide a concrete link between pay and performance.
- Further advantages of using MBO to review performance include the following: appraisals can be tied to on-the-job results, appraisals promote objectivity, appraisals allow for two-way feedback, appraisals encourage the pursuit of opportunities and appraisals encourage performance improvement. MBO provides guidance to management and employees, and it establishes a system that operates fairly and efficiently.
- Perhaps one of the most signification values of MBO is that employees tend to support goals if they agree the goals are acceptable. Employee acceptance is a powerful motivator in the MBO process.

Disadvantages

- MBO methods of performance appraisal can give employees a satisfying sense of autonomy and achievement. But on the downside, they can lead to unrealistic expectations about what can and cannot be reasonably accomplished.
- Supervisors and subordinates must have very good 'reality checking" skills to use MBO appraisal methods. They will need

these skills during the initial stage of objective setting, and for the purposes of self-auditing and self-monitoring. Unfortunately, it has been observed that human beings tend to lack the skills needed to do their own "reality checking", and these skills are not easily conveyed by training. Reality itself is an intensely personal experience, prone to all forms of perceptual bias.

- One of the strengths of the MBO method is the clarity of purpose that flows from a set of well-articulated objectives. But this can be a source of weakness also. It has become very apparent that modern organisations must be flexible to survive. Objectives by their very nature tend to impose certain rigidity.

- MBO unduly emphasises the setting of goals to attain objectives, rather than working on a systematic plan to do so.

- Even when an MBO system is implemented well, a business may encounter problems. For example, employees may set low goals to ensure attainment.

- Similarly, managers' objectives may focus on the attainment of short-term rather than long-term goals. Finally, employees and managers alike may fall victim to confusion and frustration.

In all, management by objectives appraisal technique is a tool to enhance the manager's effectiveness and increase objectivity in the evaluation process. Implemented correctly, however, MBO can provide a number of benefits to a business. For example, MBO may help employees understand how their performance will be evaluated and measured. In addition, by allowing them to contribute to goals setting, it may increase the motivation and productivity of a business's employees. MBO also stands to provide employees with the means to prioritise their work on a daily basis. Although employee performance evaluation is still a complex task under an MBO system, MBO can also provide an objective basis for evaluation. However, it is important to note that an employee's failure to meet pre-established goals can be attributed to many things besides personal failure. For example the failure to meet goals could result from setting the wrong objectives, not taking into account company restrictions that may impinge upon performance, establishing improper measures of progress, or a combination of all of these factors.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Performance appraisal is very essential in every organisation. This is because it affords management the opportunity for evaluation of job performance. This unit has discussed in details performance appraisal as well as the concept of management by objectives.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have explained the meaning, importance and the steps involved in performance appraisal and management by objectives. The knowledge and use of the two concepts are crucial to the sustenance of every organisation, including the media.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   How is MBO useful in the performance appraisal process?
2.   Discuss the steps involved in the appraisal process.
3.   State the advantages and disadvantages of MBO as an appraisal tool.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3   MOTIVATION IN MEDIA ORGANISATIONS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Motivation refers to the cause of an organism's behaviour, or the reason that an organism carries out some activity. In human beings, motivation involves both conscious and unconscious drives. Psychological theories must account for a "primary" level of motivation to satisfy basic needs, such as those for food, oxygen, and water, and for a "secondary" level of motivation to fulfill social needs such as companionship and achievement. The primary needs must be satisfied before an organism can attend to secondary drives.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

• discuss the meaning of motivation
• state the need for staff motivation in media organisation
• explain the major motivational theories.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Motivation

The word "motivation" originates from the Latin word *movere*, which means *to move* and refers to all forms of drives, needs, wishes and related forces that energise, direct and sustain human behaviour. It can also be defined as the will to act or direct one's behaviour towards certain needs or goals. But because motivation does not only come from within, it may also be defined as the act of influencing or inspiring people to do something, either individually or in groups, to produce the desired results (Okafor, *et al.* (2011).

Motivation in organisations

Motivation has to do with a person's degree of commitment. It is the activation or energisation of goal-oriented behaviour. It includes the factors that cause changes and sustain human behaviour in a particular committed direction.

Motivation deals with the range of conscious human behaviour that goes between the two extremes of reflex actions and learned habits. Motivation is generally used for humans but theoretically, it can also be used to describe the causes of animal behaviour as well.

3.2   Need for Staff Motivation

The survival and sustenance of media organisations is highly dependent on the level of motivation of workers. This is because motivation serves as a morale boost that propels workers for greater efficiency and productivity.

This makes it imperative that media managers pay close attention to staff motivation as such go a long way in facilitating the attainment of organisational goals.

Ebosie, I. (2012) sought to find out the effect of remunerations on the job performance of journalists in Abakaliki metropolis of Ebonyi State. Two of her research objectives suit our discourse in this unit:

- to determine the level of remunerations of journalists in Abakaliki metropolis of Ebonyi State
- to find out the effect of such remunerations on their job performance.

Her shocking revelations show that an average journalist in the state earns one-tenth of what their counterparts in other professions such as law and medicine earn, regardless of the numerous hazards associated with media job; and in addition to the fact that media workers are perhaps the only one specifically charged by the constitution with specific obligations.

The work further revealed that it is perhaps the present remunerations level of media workers that encourage unethical practices such as "brown envelopism" in the industry.

The above findings go to show that with proper motivation through regular, timely and adequate remunerations, media workers would

definitely render better services, not only to their media organisations, but to the society in general.

3.2   Major Motivational Theories

Several management scholars have come up with different theories that support motivation in organisations. Some of the theorists and their theories include:

The Incentive Theory of Motivation

This theory talks about rewards, tangible or intangible, presented after the occurrence of an action (i.e. behaviour) with the intent to cause the behaviour or action to occur again. This is done by associating positive meaning to the behaviour. Studies show that if the person receives the reward immediately, the effect would be greater, and decreases as duration lengthens. The theory believes that repetitive action-reward combination can cause the action to become a habit. This is to say that motivation comes from two sources; oneself, and other people. These two are called intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation respectively.

Need theories
Four important theories that described how motivation occurs have been developed. The needs-goal theory of motivation is the most fundamental of the motivation theories. As the name implies, needs and goals are the two primary components of this theory. According to the theory, motivation begins with an individual feeling a need. This need is then transformed into behaviour directed at supporting or allowing the performance of goal behaviour to reduce the felt need. Theoretically, goal supportive behaviour and goal behaviour continue until a felt need has been reduced significantly.

Skinner's reinforcement theory
Another strategy that media managers can use in motivating organisation members is based primarily on a concept known as behaviour modification. This approach is also called positive reinforcement. It was developed by B.F. Skinner. It holds that individuals can be motivated by proper design of their work environment and by praise for their performance, while punishment for poor performance produces negative results. Skinner and his followers tried to analyse the work situations to determine what causes workers to act the way they do.

Behaviour modification theory believes that if managers want to modify subordinates' behaviour, they must ensure that appropriate consequences occur as a result of that behaviour. Behaviour

modification theory agrees that positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement are both rewards that increase the likelihood that behaviour will continue. Positive reinforcement is the presentation of a desirable consequence of behaviour while negative reinforcement is the elimination of an undesirable consequence of behaviour.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory
Herzberg in 1959 sought to find out what brings satisfaction at workplace. In his research, some two hundred engineers and accountants were asked to recall when they had experienced satisfactory and unsatisfactory feelings about their jobs. From his findings, he came to the conclusion that certain factors lead to job satisfaction, while others led to dissatisfaction. He called those that lead to dissatisfaction were called motivators. Those giving rise to dissatisfaction were called hygiene factor. The studies were later in 1968, extended to include various groups in manual and clerical groups, where the result was also similar.

The following were the *motivators* or *satisfiers* found:

- Achievement
- Recognition
- Work itself
- Responsibility
- Advancement

Herbzerg also found out that the most important *hygiene* factors, or *dissatisfiers* are:

- Company policy and administration
- Supervision – the technical aspects
- Salary
- Interpersonal relations – supervision
- Working conditions

Herzberg observed that these factors are more related to the context or environment of work than to its content. When in line with employee requirements, such factors could smooth the path of working life, but these factors are out of line they could be a source of difficult and complaint, and definitely provided grounds for dissatisfaction at work.

Expectancy theory
The expectancy theory is based on the works of V.H. Vroom, during the 1960s. The main thrust of his theory is that an individual's behaviour is formed not on objective reality but on his or her subjective perception of

that reality. The core of the theory relates to how a person perceives the relationships between three things – effort, performance and rewards.

Equity theory

This theory postulates that workers make comparisons between themselves and others in terms of what they invest in their work (inputs) and what outcomes they receive from it. As in the case of Expectancy Theory, this theory is also founded on people's perceptions, in this case of the inputs and outcomes involved. Thus, their sense of equity (i.e. fairness) is applied to their subjective view of conditions and not necessarily to the objective situation. The theory states that when people perceive an unequal situation, they experience equity tension and this immediately reflects in their behaviour.

Equity theory suggests that people are not mainly interested in rewards as such, which is the central point of expectancy theory, but they are also interested in the comparative nature of rewards with their counterparts elsewhere.

Goal theory

The basic assumption of the goal theory is that motivation is driven primarily by the goals or objective that individuals set for them. This again contrasts the expectancy theory, where satisfactory outcome is the prime motivator; Goals Theory suggests that it is the goal itself that provides the driving force. The theory believes that working towards goals was in itself a motivator; and that that performance improved when individuals set specific rather than vague goals for themselves. Advocates of this theory also argue that an individual's motivation is enhanced when feedback on performance is available especially when it shows that their goals are being met.

(See also, Abraham Maslow's hierarch of Needs and Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y in module one, all of which are also motivational theories).

4.0   CONCLUSION

From our discussions in this unit, we conclude that the survival and sustenance of media organisations is highly dependent on the level of motivation of workers. This is because motivation serves as a morale booster that propels workers for greater efficiency and productivity. In the unit, we also identified some of the motivational theories to include: the incentive theory, the need theory, the equity theory, the goal theory, the reinforcement theory, among others.

Applied in media organisations, the incentive approach spurs greater commitment of workers; the equity approach shows management's objectivity and gives employees sense of belongingness, etc. This makes it imperative that media managers understand these theories and their applicability in each situation in media organisations as this would go a long way in facilitating the attainment of organisational goals.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have explained the meaning of motivation as it concerns media organisations. We have also explained the necessity of workers motivation in an organisation. The unit also identified some motivational theories whose tenets could be adopted for boosting workers and organisational productivity and profitability respectively.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Broadly explain the meaning and the need for motivation in media organisations.
2.   Identify five motivational theories and demonstrate their applicability in a typical Nigerian media organisation**.**

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ebosie, I. (2012). "Effect of Remunerations on the Job Performance of Journalists in Abakaliki Metropolis of Ebonyi State." Unpublished BSc. Project. EBSU, Department of Mass Communication.

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UNITS 5   MANAGING GRIEVANCES, COMPLAINTS AND CONFLICTS IN MEDIA ORGANISATIONS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In our everyday dealings with one another in organisations, complaints, grievances conflicts are bound to occur. The way these occurrences are handled goes a long way in determining the progress, profit, success and factor are of an organisation. This unit gives insight on managing grievances, complaints and conflicts in media organisations.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state the meaning and nature of organisational conflicts
- discuss organisational complaints and grievances; their major causes and how to manage them.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Organisational Grievances and Complaints

(a)   Complaints

Complaints refer to statements people make when they are dissatisfied with what is happening in an establishment. In an organisational context, it includes criticisms, protests, objections, dissatisfactions and grumbling (Hornby, 2000). Complaints if adequately attended to go a long way in averting grievances, disputes and organisational conflicts and crises.

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(b)   Grievances

The term 'grievance' is the upshot of complaints that are not properly handled, and this subsequently results to conflicts/disputes in organisations. Grievance specifically refers to employee's complain in an organisation that has taken greater dimension following some ill-treatments meted against workers or their members.

It is the real or imagined complaint brought by an employee against employer based on the alleged misinterpretation, misapplication or non application of the terms and conditions of employment. It is an objection or a protest brought by worker(s) who feel(s) that the management (employer) has treated him/her or them wrongly or improperly considering the labour contract agreement. In other words, it is an alleged violation of the rights of an employee and further. It arises when employees perceive actions of management to be injurious, detrimental or likely to be detrimental to the interest of the aggrieved person.

Fashoyin (2002) cited in Okafor, *et al*. (2011:339 views grievance as the dissatisfaction of any employee or a group of employees over a denial of a perceived right or interest to which the individual or the group feels entitled to.

There are two types of grievances:

Individual grievances: This is when it involves one employee. Okafor, *et al*. (2011:339 notes that "individual grievance comes as a result of dissatisfaction or as a result of disciplinary measure(s) upon a particular employee or worker such as termination of appointment, improper grading, change in job classification or even denial of right to promotion."

Collective grievance: This is a situation where members of a group or the union are involved in the grievance process. This type of grievance may arise from management failing to correct the grievances of individuals, such as termination or dismissal of union member(s), job insecurity or unjust treatment arising from individual grievance.

Causes of collective grievance

It is important to note at this juncture that individual grievance if not well handled could result to collective grievance. Ubeku (1983) cited in Okafor, *et al.* (2011:339 identifies the causes of collective grievance to include:

i. Non-recognition of Unions- before this time non recognition of trade unions used to be the cause of collective grievance. Trade Union Decree of (1973) however compelled business organisation to accord recognition to trade union, and where this fails on the part of management, collective grievance may arise.

ii. Victimisation - This occurs between an organisation and individual or group; for instance where some group of workers were not promoted, it can be termed victimisation and collective grievance may arise if not appropriately addressed by the management.

iii. Violation of legislation or rules governing the condition of service. There are laws and rules that guide the conditions of work and where such laws are violated, collective grievance will arise.

iv. Application or interpretation of provisions of collective bargaining. Some collective bargaining procedures are usually too long, and some section may be misinterpreted, misapplied, omitted or even not applied at all. This will result to collective grievance.

v. Non-observation of conditions of work - This arises when favouritism or preferential treatment have in the past resulted to collective misunderstanding between workers and management

vi. Situation not Governed by Rules - Other related issues that may result to collective grievance are those that are not governed by any law or rules such as maltreatment of employees in an organisation.

3.2   Meaning and Nature of Organisational Conflict

(a)   Meaning of conflict

> *The word or concept "conflict" has its root or draws its original meaning from the Latin word "configure" which means "to strike together". This suggests that conflict has to do with the clashing or jaming of one or more things.* Nwosu (2004:3).

The above statement is no doubt a good starting point in our quest to conceptualise the actual meaning of the term "conflict'. Conflict according to Hellriegel *et al.* (1989:448) is "any situation in which there are incompatible goals, cognitions or emotions within or between individuals or groups that lead to opposition". Nwosu (2004:3) further quotes Greenberg and Barton as saying that "conflict is a process in

which one party has taken some actions that will exert negative efforts on another's major interests or is about to take such action."

From the above definitions, it is obvious that conflict refers to a state of disruption in the natural order of things, or a deviation from the status quo. It could occur at all levels of communication (intrapersonal, interpersonal, groups, organisational, national and even at the international levels).

(b)   Nature of conflict

Conflict is not always a negative phenomenon. The importance of human conflict lies on how it is conceived, handled and managed. Conflict could be constructive or destructive, beneficial or detrimental. It has both positive and negative valences. In this perspective, Saliu (1992) cited in Adibe (2008:5), pointed out that "conflict is any event, issue, occurrence or situation that could be described as a turning point for better or for worse".

Although conflict is often considered as undesirable in our organisations and the society at large, yet it is a proven fact that not all conflicts are negative, some conflicts serve as a veritable means for change. Supporters of this view therefore propose that conflict should be accepted and properly managed as an agent of positive change.

Conflict as a negative phenomenon

Prior to the present age, conflicts were generally considered as a sign of a bad omen. Such perspective viewed conflict as a negative phenomenon that must be avoided at all cost. Conflict in this perspective according to Nwosu (Nwosu, 2004), results from poor or inadequate communication, lack of openness and trust among people, and the failure of managers to respond positively to the needs, wants and expectations of their staff or employees.

Conflicts as a negative phenomenon could be disastrous to the overall interest of the parties involved. It brings dispute and disagreement, difference of opinion, strife and sometimes clashes. In organisations, conflict can divert efforts from goal attainment and may result to wastage of scarce human and material resources. It affects the psychological thinking of the parties involved and may result to loss of interest frustration and low productivity.

Conflict: The Positive Perspective

> *It is impossible to totally eliminate conflict. Circumstance and individuals change, with such changes creating the possibility of creative, positive growth; properly managed, conflict fosters understanding and appreciation of differences. It presents new and different possibilities. Managers who try to eliminate conflict will not last; those who manage it well will experience both organisational benefits and personal satisfaction.* (Darling and Foglissio 1999).

The above excerpt implies that conflict by its very nature is not a negative phenomenon but a catalyst for change and improved decision making. It is a means for evaluation and progress making. Conflict is one of the most effective agents of change, since change is the only thing permanent in life, it suffices that conflict is the pivot of progress and inevitable for growth in the society. Describing conflict as an essential element for change, Nwosu (2004), quotes Barton as follows:

> *Conflict, like sex, is an essential creative element in human relationship. It is the means to change, the means by which our social values of welfare, security, justice and opportunities for personal development can be achieved. ... conflict like sex, is to be enjoyed.*

The writer argues that conflict should not be avoided, rather, it should be properly harnessed to produce positive outcome and boost individual and organisational performance. This school of thought sees conflict as indispensability in an organisation without which growth is limited. They argue that conflict is feared and avoided by many because they don't know how to manage it. Moguluwa, S. (2004), puts it this way:

> *It is not the absence of conflict that marks out a great nation, but the manner in which conflicts are resolved; unresolved conflicts can be as poisonous to any relationship as the virus is to the computer.*

3.3   Causes of Industrial Conflict/Disputes

Conflict is caused as a result of human differences. Of course, no human individual is identical. Everyone has his/her individual uniqueness and perceives things in different perspective. Human perceptions are basically attributed to two major factors:

1.   *Nature* or biologically inherited genes, attitudes, attributes or characteristics.
2.   *Nurture* – the contributions of the environment of up-brining to our total being.

Due to these major differences and uniqueness, conflict is bound to erupt when incompatible beings are deliberately or undeliberately merged in a relationship, business, organisation, community, politics, society, etc. this is in agreement with the observations of Darling and Walker (2001:230) that "conflict arises when two or more individuals operating within a unit appear to be incompatible."

Apart from the nature/nurture differences factor, uneven distribution of wealth is yet another cause of conflict both in an organisation and in the human society in general. Anyanwu (2004:112) observed that:

> *Man is fallible, and because he is fallible, he is insatiable and his insatiability makes him placable. The natural distribution of wealth is uneven ... this, sometimes erroneously concentrates the large portion in the hands of a few. This state of affairs may prevail for a while, but soon or later, it would be noticed and efforts made to correct it. These efforts can come in any form by way of expression to indicate that there must be a reversal or at least, a shift in the old order. This change or the need for it could never come without resistance from those few individuals who now feel that their "birth rights" are being encroached upon and t*he end product becomes conflict.

Other causes of conflict include:

- **Differences in goals, visions and aspirations:** Conflict ensures when the goals, views and aspirations of two or more interdependent persons jam or clash. This is because no two individuals share exactly the same traits, goals, views, visions

and aspirations. What one may consider "a breakthrough initiative", another may dismiss as "a mere bizarre". Hence, one party's attempt to achieve what he considers the best creative ideas meets with very stiff oppositions, resulting in disagreement or conflict.

- **Incompatible cultures, values and belief systems:** Generally, people hold divergent beliefs, cultures and value system. The differences is attributable to their unique backgrounds, experiences, trainings, religious, denominations, worms, languages and even foods and dance. Naturally, there is a usual tendency for people to value their cultures as superior to others. This scenario encourages conflict in the society.

- **Quest for power:** Experiences over the years have shown that quest and struggle for positions is one of the major causes of conflict in organisations. In a media establishment, it could be that "staff A" is occupying a position "staff B" considers himself as the most qualified to occupy. It could range from struggles as high as who occupies the position of the General Manager of a given television station to a mere struggle over who becomes the State Correspondent or even in the selection of those to appear on air, those to read news, those to present programmes or those to go on field assignments.

- **A breach in communication system:** Full access to information is very fundamental in the process of peace building, conflict prevention and management. Also, information may be adequate but misunderstood due to some circumstances such as noise and poor communication skills, lack of clarity and use of ambiguous words.

- **Struggle for scarce resources:** Economists contend that human needs are generally insatiable. When people realise that human resources are limited, it propels them to struggle with others who are also in need of these resources to achieve their goals. This leads to competition which sometimes results to conflict. A good example is the ongoing Niger Delta struggle for resource control.

Anugwom (2007) enumerates other causes of organisational conflicts to include:

i.   Economic cause- this refers to industrial conflict relating to issues such as salary and wage, system of reward, working hours that are not met by the management of the organisation as was previously agreed.

ii.   Moral cause – this conflict refers to those disputes that concern the general working conditions and the failure of the management to make available appropriate welfare and safety schemes for the workers within the organisation.

iii.   Negotiation of collective bargaining – that is where management refuses to enter into negotiation with union over perceived injustice done by the employer.

iv.   Grievance resulting from job content and context as identified by the employee of an organisation.

v.   Misinterpretation and misapplication of collective agreement as earlier reached between the employer and employee.

vi.   Ideological causes- this emanates from philosophy advocates that employees must stop the employer's exploitative power.

vii.   Political cause - This relates to unions solidarity, trade union jurisdictions or functions regarding appointments or workers recruitment, representation of workers in the settlement of working conditions, union leadership and non-recognition of the union and refusal of management to bargain with the union.

3.4   Organisational Conflict Management Strategies

A properly managed conflict is an essential ingredient for growth. To achieve this, some strategies are required.

1.   **Negotiation:** This is a communication strategy where some exchange of options and offers are made to reach a concession, especially after arguments and disagreements. This strategy otherwise known as bargaining is very necessary especially when both parties have a lot to gain by reaching a consensus than deadlock. This strategy has been used severally in settling disputes between labour unions and governments.

2.   **Collaboration:** This is a deliberate personal effort aims at synthesising relevant ideas for the purpose of peace and progress. This is achieved through discussion at the round table. Through collaboration, aggrieved parties are made to reach a consensus and work as a team. Such team-spirit makes the dispute a forgone alternative, and the outcome is usually a healthy coexistence. Moguluwa (2004:41) suggests that the following steps can lead to constructive collaboration:

   a.   do not impose solution
   b.   provide background information
   c.   do not surrender your views to reduce tension
   d.   actively invite different views
   e.   search deeply for understanding

      f.   keep testing ideas for group acceptance.

3.   **Dialogue:** Dialogue, they say "is the best way to settle disputes" this implies could be made to sheathe their daggers to the dialogue table. Dialogue is basically a means of exchange of ideas to intentionally play down the differences and emphasise the areas of common interest. During dialogue, each party agrees to make some compromises (though painful) by giving up things of great value in the interest of peace and progress.

4.   **Adequate information:** Full information is a fundamental factor in the management and resolution of conflict. This implies that full dose of information must be made available of all times and at the right time. Also, communication should be properly packaged and channeled to ensure the reduction of the chances of noise and distortion to the barest minimum.

5.   **Proper understanding:** Conflict management begins with a clear understanding of the root cause and the background of the conflict. It also includes proper knowledge of the parties involved, including their likes and dislikes, beliefs and temperaments. Understanding gives the foundation for evaluation and management of conflicts.

4.0 CONCLUSION

From our discussion in this unit, it is clear that grievances, complaints and conflict are regular occurrences in organisations. The importance these occurrences therefore lie on how they are handled or managed.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has examined grievances, complaints and conflicts in media organisations. The summary of our discussion here is that these occurrences are perhaps unavoidable in our organisations, however, what is of paramount importance lies on how they are handled and managed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain briefly what you understand by (a)   grievance   (b) complaint (c) conflicts.
2.   Outline and discuss the general causes of conflict in an organisation and show they can be resolved.

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MODULES 5   ISSUES IN MEDIA OWNERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Unit 1   Media Ownership and Control
Unit 2   Leadership Process in Media Organisations
Unit 3   Media Management in the Age of Media Proliferation
Unit 4   Ethics and Social Responsibility in Media Management

UNIT 1   MEDIA OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
       3.1   Types of Media Ownership
       3.2   Media Control
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In 1961 journalist A. J. Liebling of *The New Yorker* wrote a line that for many years framed the debate over the power and ownership of the media: "Freedom of the press belongs to the man who owns one." Indeed, at that time few people had the printing presses or broadcasting facilities needed to deliver information to large audiences. Those who had a message but no printing press found it difficult to communicate with huge numbers of people. A major trend affecting the media is their incorporation into media chains - ownership of a number of newspapers by a single company. By 2000 only about a dozen cities in the United States had separately owned competing newspapers, and in 2002 Canada had only eight cities with competing newspapers under different ownership. Similarly, major radio and television stations, even when independently owned, have become affiliated with networks that provide much of their news and other programme materials.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

• mention the types of media ownership and control
• state the legal requirements for media/establishment in Nigeria.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Types of Media Ownership and Control

(a)   Types of Ownership

Media ownership has remained a topical issue in media discourse. This is because a popular aphorism has it that "he who pays the piper dictates the tune". Again, type of media ownership determines the level of freedom and efficiency of the organisation.

Basically, there are three kind of media ownership. They include:

1.   Government ownership
2.   Private ownership, and
3.   Mixed ownership.

1.   **Government ownership:** These are media organisations conceived, set up, financed, owned and managed by governments. The broadcast industry in Nigeria was a monopoly of the government until 1992 when the industry was deregulated under then Gen. Ibrahim Badamosi Babangida administration, paving way for the entrance of private outfits.

       Today, there is still massive, involvement of both the federal and state government in the media industry. For instance, the Federal government owns the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria (FRCN), the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA), the News Agency of Nigeria (NAN) and the Voice of Nigeria (VON). Various state governments have also established both radio, television, newspapers and even cable television in the various states of the federation.

Aina (2002) believes that "one obvious feature of government media is their uncritical support of government policy, which the government sustains by carefully appointing her (loyalists) into their boards and other managerial positions."

2.   **Private ownership:** Private ownership of the media has continued to blossom in Nigeria following the promulgation of decree 38 of 1992 which gave private individuals freedom to establish and operate independent broadcast stations in the country. Today, Lagos State alone, the media capital of Nigeria, is a host to over 20 privately owned radio stations, over 15 privately owned TV stations and over 22 privately owned newspapers and magazine outfits.

3.   **Mixed ownership:** This is the hybrid of total government ownership and complete private ownership.

Some writers have also identified other forms of ownership such as:

- political parties and politicians ownership
- foreign or overseas ownership
- religious bodies ownership, etc.

3.2   Media Control

1.   Ownership/editorial policy control

Media are public service organisation and as such, come under several controls. One of such controls is ownership control. It is often said that "Who pays the piper dictates the tune". Literary, this means that a piper must play the tune to satisfy the person who has hired him. Every news medium belongs to either an individual or group of individuals or an organisation or a government. Owners control their newspapers through the editorial policy. The editorial policy of a new medium is a broad based set of ideas normally or usually formulated before the take off of the medium especially the print medium and articulated on the first day of appearance under what is called mission statement. The editorial policy states the angle or point of view that will guide the newspaper news and features including its editorials, and ideas, desires, and interests it would protect and project.

Advertisers' control

Advertising is one of the major sources of revenue for media organisations. As such advertisers exert some sort of control over what goes in the media. This is because he that pays the piper dictates the tune. With their financial power and influence, they do not only choose how their messages should be crafted, but also decide the page placement and the time to air their adverts in the broadcast media.

Legal constraints

Every society is governed by plethora of laws that guide human actions and activities. This is because it is believed that if every man and woman were free to do what he/she likes anywhere, anytime, there will be no more freedom as every man or woman would be concerned with his/her own protection from the other person.

Governments everywhere thus, recognise   Plato's statement that "without law, man differs not at all from most ravage beasts." To this

effect, some set of laws are made to regulate the activities of the media in avoid the abuse of the industry by the bad eggs. Such laws include:

1.   Defamation

This law seeks the protection of citizens' reputation. The law insists that words which are capable of staining the reputation another should not be uttered or published in the media. The law is anchored on the popular belief that good name is better than sliver and gold.

Technically, the Court of Appeal in the case of NTA vs. Ebenezer Babatunde (1964) NWLR (PT 440, 75) as cited in Okoro (2004:65) defines a defamatory statement as:

> *any statement that has the capacity or tendency to lower the reputation of a right thinking person or cause him to be shunned or avoided, to expose him to hatred, contempt or ridicule or to convey an imputation on him disparaging or injurious to him in his office, profession, calling, trade or business.*

Section 373 of the Criminal Code Act defines a defamatory matter as any "matter likely to injure the reputation of any person by exposing him to hatred, contempt, or ridicule, or likely to damage any person in his profession or trade by an injury to his reputation." When such matter is spoken or not in a permanent form, it constitutes slander; while when it is written, recorded or simply in a permanent form, it constitutes libel.

2.   Obscenity

This is a law that forbids any one including the media from corrupting the minds of others. A material is deemed to be obscene if it has the effect or tendency of corrupting or depraving persons who are likely to read, see or hear the contents of such material.

Thus, an obscene or indecent material is defined by Cockburn C.J. cited in Okoro (2004:73) as one which has the tendency to "deprave and corrupt those whose minds are open to immoral influences and into whose hands it is likely to fall'

3.   Contempt of court

The offence of contempt of court comprises conduct which "interferes with the administration of justice or impedes or perverts the course of justice" (see *Osborn's Concise Law Dictionary*, eighth edition, 1996).

Contempt of court is thus, defined as "any conduct which tends to bring into disrespect, scorn or disrepute the authority and administration of the law or which tends to interfere with and/or prejudice litigants and/or their witnesses in the course of litigation" (Yakubu; 1999). The law of contempt aims at ensuring that "nothing is done to undermine the authority of the court or administration of justice" (Yakubu, supra).

4.   Sedition

Section 51 (1) of the Criminal Code Act states that any person who:

(a)   does or attempts to do, or makes any preparation to do or conspire with any person to do any act with a seditious intention,
(b)   utters any seditious words;
(c)   prints, publishes, sells, offers for sale, distributes or reproduces any seditious publication,
(d)   imports any seditious publication, unless he has to reason to believe that it is seditious, shall be guilty of the offence of sedition.

The code defines a seditions publication as any publication that has the intention:

a.   to bring into hatred or contempt or excite disaffection against the person of the President or of the Governor of a State or the Government of the Federation; or
b.   to excite the citizens or other inhabitants of Nigeria to attempt to procure the alteration, otherwise than by lawful means, of any other matter in Nigeria as by law established; or
c.   to promote feelings of ill will and hostility between different classes of the population of Nigeria (see S. 50 (2).

5.   Copyright

This is a law that forbids anyone from stealing another person's intellectual work. It seeks to protect any literary, artistic, musical or dramatic work produced in any country subscribing to the conventions on international copyright. However, for any work to qualify for protection under the convention, it must carry the symbol © and the name of the copyright owner, including the year of first publication.

6.   Passing-off

This is an economic tort or wrong whose basis for protection is that every person who enjoys the right to carry on his legitimate business has a correlative duty or responsibility to make sure that he does not pass-off his goods or services in the market as that of his competitors (Enechi, 1997). The law forbids anyone from the theft of business identities such as trademark, logo, label, etc.

7.   Privacy

This law forbids anyone from infringing on or interfering in others private affairs. The right includes privacy of citizens' homes, correspondence, telephone conversations and telegraphic communications.

8.   Official Secrets Acts

This law forbids anyone from spying communication of state secrets and breaching of official trust. The law forbids person from (a) entering or inspecting a protected or prohibited place or even being in the vicinity of such a place (b) photographing or sketching a protected place or describing anything situated in a protected place; (c) obstructing, misleading or interfering with anyone engaged in guarding or securing a protected place; or (d) obtaining, reproducing or retaining any photography, sketch, model, document or plan which has to do with anything situated in a protected place (see S. 2 of the Act; also Elias: 1969) as cited in Okoro (2004:86).

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit has taken an in-depth look at the ownership pattern of the media in Nigeria. We have also examined the various control mechanisms of the media in the society. The knowledge of these laws and ownership patterns are important both to media workers and would-be media persons.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have identified the major media ownership patterns to include government ownership, private ownership and mixed ownership. We also identified and explained the various media control mechanisms and control which among others include: legal control, ethical control, advertisers control, etc.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify and explain the various media ownership patterns and control.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2   LEADERSHIP IN MEDIA ORGANISATION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
         3.1   Leadership Defined
         3.2   Types of Leaders
         3.3   Leadership Style
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Leadership is very important in every media organisation. This is because it does not only determine the management style, the level of attainment of organisational goals and objectives. This unit explains the meaning of leadership as it concerns the media, the various types and styles.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   define leadership
•   identify the various types and styles.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Leadership Defined

The term "leadership" has so many definitions. However, all these definitions point to the fact that leadership is the process of directing the behaviour of others towards the accomplishment of some objectives. It is the means of causing or influencing individuals to act in a certain way or to follow a particular course. Ideally, this course of action is perfectly consistent with such factors as established organisational policies, procedures, and job descriptions. The central theme of leadership is getting things accomplished through people.

Aina (2002:207) coined the following definitions of leadership from management scholars:

- It is the process of influencing others to work willingly to achieve organisational goals, rather than out of fear.
- It is a dynamic process in a group whereby one individual influences other to contribute to the achievement of group tasks.
- Leadership is both a process and a property. The process is the use of non coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of a group for the accomplishment.
- Leadership is the set of qualities or characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successful employ such influence (see Jago, 1982:315).
- It is influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation (Katz and Kahn: 1978).

These definitions point to the fact leadership is all about influencing peoples' actions to get things done to keep organisations going and attaining the set objectives.

3.2   Types of Leadership

Different kinds of leaders exist in different organisations including the media. Among them are:

a.   **Leadership by Appointment:** The position occupied confers leadership role on this individual. In other words, the legitimate power wielded by this type of leaders is function of his formal authority within the hierarchy

b.   **The Charismatic Leader:** This type of leader possesses strong personal qualities that compel followership. Such a leader is bold, strong, dynamic, influential and powerful. This type of leader is most likely to perform well as an editor.

c.   **The Situation Leader:** This type of leader only performs well given the right position in the right place at the right time.

d.   **The Traditional Leader:** This is leadership by conferment. This type of leadership is in most cases hereditary in nature.

e.   **The Functional Leader:** This type of leader is judged by the functions or roles they play.

3.3   Leadership Style

There are three major leadership styles: *autocratic*, *democratic* and the *laissez-faire* style.

Autocratic leadership style

Autocratic leaders give order or commands and expects total compliance. He is dogmatic, dictatorial and leads by the ability to withhold rewards or give punishments. The autocratic leader is very conscious of his position. He has little trust and faith in his subordinates. Production is good when the leader is present but drops in his absence. In an organisation where he leads, eye-service is high.

Democratic leadership style

The democratic leader is a consultant. He seeks subordinates consents in before actions and decisions are made. He encourages his subordinates to function as a unit and makes full use of the talents, abilities and creativity of the members of the group. This attitude of his, gives subordinates a sense of belonging; recognition and a sense of purpose which consequently will motivate his subordinates to be very productive and efficient.

The laissez-faire leadership style

This type of leaders uses their powers very little, giving the subordinates a high degree of independence in their operations. In this type of leadership style, anything goes. These types of leaders are otherwise referred to as abdicrats. It is not the best leadership style in media management.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Leadership is a central activity in any organisation. This is because the type of leader and his style of leadership go a long way in determining the overall performance of the organisation and the same time directly or indirectly determines the level of productivity, sustenance and sustainability. This unit has identified and the explained the various types and styles.

5.0   SUMMARY

Our efforts in this unit have been to clearly identify and explain the various types and styles of leadership that exist in our various media

organisations. The unit has identified the various types and enumerated the various styles to include - the autocratic, the democratic and the laissez-faire leadership styles.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify and explain the various leadership types and styles that exist in our various media organisations today.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aina, S. (2002). *Modern Media Management.* Nigeria: Ebensun Publishers.

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UNIT 3   MEDIA MANAGEMENT IN THE AGE OF MEDIA PROLIFERATION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Media Proliferation in Nigeria and their Challenges
        3.2   Advantages of Media Proliferation
        3.3   Popular Media Organisations in Nigeria
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Media houses have continued to spring up in various parts of the country in the last few years. This development though positive one as many would say, but not without its challenges. This unit examines media management in this age of media proliferations

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain media proliferations, its advantages and disadvantages
- identify several media organisations in the country today (print and electronic).

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Media Proliferations in Nigeria and their Challenges

The term "proliferation(s)" is usually used to describe unwanted, unhealthy or abnormal growth e.g. proliferation of schools, churches, and miracle centres, etc. However, in the case of the media, especially in Nigeria, proliferation cannot be all together regarded as a negative phenomenon. This is because:

- the media play the vital role of providing information, education, entertainment, etc, in the society
- the return of democracy to the country which has remained unbroken since 1999

- the continuous advancement of the tenets of democracy in the country, e.g. we now have Freedom of Information Act
- the rising literacy rate in the country (compare the literacy rate in the country today with twenty years ago)
- the increasing number of universities and other institutions that offer mass communication and related courses in the country
- the increasing number of graduates of mass communication, journalism, broadcasting, etc
- also, worthy of remembrance is the promulgation of decree number 38 of 1992 which gave private individuals freedom to establish and operate independent radio and television stations in the country.

With these developments, one can say that it is neither unexpected nor abnormal to expect the corresponding growth as we now witness in the media industry in the country.

Media proliferations by definition is the continuous springing up of both public and privately owned media outfits (radio, television, newspapers, magazines, etc, and other supplementary media such as advertising agencies, public relations outfits, film/cinema/movies houses, etc.) at every nook and cranny of the country.

With the increase in the number of media outfits in the country, come many unfriendly business factors. Notable among them are:

- the high cost of production
- the cost of acquisition and importation of standard equipment
- the fast eroding newspaper and magazine readership culture
- the emergence of free readership associations
- the recent breakthroughs in ICTs which has now made online version of newspapers and magazines possible
- the high poverty and illiteracy levels in the country
- the poor infrastructure in the country e.g. access roads, electricity, etc.
- the increasing interest in foreign media and decreasing interest in our local media is also a major bottleneck
- the challenge posed by the activities of quacks and charlatans are also issues of serious worry
- the systemic corruption in the country is still a major challenge
- the new dimension of security threats and targeting of media houses is a major challenge to today media managers in the country (the bomb blasts and scares of it in some media houses especially in the north, and the killing of one Mr. Enenche, a reporter with Channels TV in Kano are eloquent testimonies).

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3.2   Advantages of Media Proliferations

The fact that the media proliferations in the country today are faced by series of challenges does not in anyway take away the numerous economic, political, socio-cultural and education gains it has provided.

1.   It has provided employment to a large number of Nigerian youths.
2.   It has enhanced competition and quality of programmes and contents.
3.   It has democratised the media, giving voice to persons that were hitherto denied access to the media in the era of government monopoly e.g. oppositions, minorities, activists, etc.
4.   Perhaps, it may have been or at least contributed in the sustenance of our fragile democracy since 1999. This the media do through political education, information, mobilisation, sensitisation, etc.
5.   The economy has also been greatly enhanced by increased advertising, promotions, publicity, etc.
6.   It has also increased occupational mobility as media workers now have the opportunity of changing from one media organisation to the other. This promotes personnel development, change of positions, etc.
7.   It has also brought new vistas to entertainment, glamour, etc.
8.   The proliferations in the industry has given rise to 'media specialisation' as we now have sports radios, televisions, newspapers and magazines, e.g. Brilla FM, Soccer Star, Complete Sports, Arsenal Focus, etc. We also have music channels, e.g Soundcity, Nigezie, Kennis Music Channel, etc.
9.   it has also promoted tourism e.g. Silverbird TV and AIT have fared well in prmoting the MBGN, Miss World, Miss Earth, Miss Universe pageants, and reality shows like the Gulder Ultimate Search, Nigerian Idol, Glo Naija Sings, Maltina Dance All, MTN Project Fame, etc.

3.3   Prominent Media Organisations in Nigeria

(a)   Newspapers

The list includes newspapers currently published in Nigeria that have national circulation or that are major local newspapers (source: wikipedia). This list is however not exhaustive.

Newspaper	Location	First Issued	Publisher
Blueprint Newspaper	Abuja	May 2011	
Business Day	Lagos	2005	Frank Aigbogun
Business Hallmark	Ikeja Lagos		Prince Emeka Obasi
Compass	Abeokuta	2008	Gbenga Daniel
Daily Champion	Lagos		Emmanuel Iwuanyanwu
Daily Times of Nigeria	Lagos	9 June 1925	Folio Communications
Guardian	Lagos	1983	Guardian Newspapers Limited
Independent	Lagos	2001	Independent Newspapers Limited
Leadership	Abuja		Leadership Newspaper Group
Mirror		2006	Global Media Mirror Limited
Nation	Lagos	2006	Vintage Press Limited
Newswatch	Lagos	28 January 1985	Global Media Mirror Limited
Next	Lagos	2004	Timbuktu Media group
Observer	Benin City	1968	Bendel Newspapers Company Limited
Osun Defender	Osogbo		Moremi Publishing House Ltd.
P.M. News	Lagos	1994	Independent Communications Network Limited
Peoples Daily	Abuja	30 November 2008	Peoples Media Ltd
Port Harcourt Telegraph	Port Harcourt	1991	Prince Ogbonna Nwuke
Punch	Lagos	1971	Ajibola Ogunsola
Sun	Lagos	2001	The Sun Publishing Ltd
Tell Magazine	Yaba, Lagos	1991	TELL Communications Limited
Thisday	Lagos	1975	Leaders & Company
Tribune	Ibadan	1949	African Newspapers of Nigeria Ltd

Newspaper	Location	First Issued	Publisher
Triumph	Kano	1980	Triumph Publishing
Trust	Abuja	2001	Media Trust
Vanguard	Lagos	1983	Vanguard Media

(b)   Radio Stations

FCT Abuja

- 88.9 - Brila FM, Abuja - Sports
- 90.3 - Craig FM
- 92.1 - Vision FM, Abuja
- 92.9 - Kapital FM (FRCN), Abuja
- 93.5 - ASO Radio, Abuja
- 94.7 - Rhythm FM, Abuja
- 96.9 - Cool FM, Abuja
- 98.3 - Hot FM, Abuja
- 99.5 - Wazobia FM, Abuja
- 99.9 - Kiss FM, Abuja
- 100.5 – Raypower FM, Abuja
- 104.5 - Love FM, Abuja
- 909 - (FRCN), Abuja

Abia State

- 88.1 - Broadcasting Corporation, Umuahia

Anambra State

- 88.9 - Brila FM, Onitsha - Sports
- - Anambra Broadcasting Service, Awka
- 93.4 - Madonna Radios (Madonna University) FM,Okija
- 93.7 - Rhythm FM, Awka
- 94.1 - Unizik (University of Azikwe) FM, Awka, Anambra
- 95.3 - Radio Sapientia FM, Onitsha

Bauchi State

- 94.6 - Radio 2, Bauchi
- 98.5 - Globe FM (FRCN), Bauchi

Bayelsa State

- 95.5 - Royal FM, Yenogoa
- 101.5 - Creek FM, Radio Nigeria, Yenagoa

Benue State

- 95.0 - Radio Benue, Makurdi
- 96.5 - Joy FM, Otukpo
- - Harvest FM, Makurdi
- 99.9 - Ashiwaves FM, Katsina-Ala

Delta State

- 88.1 - Joko FM, Ughelli
- 88.6 - Melody FM, Warri
- 89.9 - Crown FM, Warri
- 95.1 - j FM, Effurun
- 97.9 - Voice of Delta, Asaba

Ebonyi State

- 101.5 Unity FM, Abakaliki
- 98.1 - Salt FM, (EBBC), Abakaliki

Edo State

- 92.3 - Independent Radio FM
- 93.7 - Silverbird Rhythm FM
- 94.1 - Hillside FM (Auchi Polytechnic Radio), Auchi
- 95.5 - Edo Broadcasting Service, Aduwawa
- 105.5 - Raypower FM, Benin
- 111.5 - Esan FM, Ewu
- - Bronze FM (FRCN), Aduwawa

Ekiti State

- 100.5 - Progress FM (FRCN), Ado Ekiti

Enugu State

- 92.1 - Lion FM, University of Nigeria, Nsukka
- 92.5 - Dream FM, Enugu
- 96.1 - Sunrise FM, Enugu
- 92.85 - Coal-City FM, Enugu
- - Caritas University FM, Amorji-Nike, Enugu

- 102.8 - AJASONIC FM, Enugu
- 826 - FRCN (Radio Nigeria 1) Enugu

Gombe State

- 91.9 - Gombe FM

Imo State

- \- Imo Broadcasting Corporation
- 99.5 - Hot FM (Owerri)
- 100.5 - Heartland FM 94.4 Orient FM

Kaduna State

- 88.9 - Brila FM
- 89.9 - Kada FM Kaduna
- 90.9 - Capital Sounds FM, Kaduna
- 91.7 - Liberty Radio FM, Kaduna
- 92.1 - Karama FM Kaduna
- 96.1 - Supreme FM, Kaduna
- 97.7 - Alheri Radio FM, Kaduna
- 106.5 - Ray Power FM Kaduna
- 747 MW - Nagarta Radio
- 594 - FRCN (Hausa), Kaduna
- 1107 - FRCN (English), Kaduna

Kano State

- 88.5 - Dala FM, Kano
- 89.3 - Radio Kano II FM, Kano
- 95.1 - Wazobia FM, Farm Centre, Kano
- 96.9 - Cool FM, Farm Centre, Kano
- 97.7 - Rahama FM, Kano
- 99.5 - Freedom Radio, Kano
- 103.5 - Pyramid FM, Madobi Kano
- 106.5 - Ray Power, Kano

Katsina State

- 104.5 - Radio Nigeria Companion FM, Katsina

Kogi State

- 94.0 - Confluence FM, Lokoja
- 95.5FM - Grace FM, Lokoja (Urban Music, Hip-Hop, African Music)
- 101.5 - Prime FM (FRCN)

Kwara State

- 89.3 - Unilorin FM, Ilorin (University of Ilorin Radio)
- 95.1 - Royal FM, Ilorin
- 99.0 - Midland FM (Radio Kwara), Ilorin
- 103.5 - FRCN (Radio Nigeria), Idofian
- 612.8 - Radio Kwara, Ilorin

Lagos State

- 88.9 - Brila FM - sports
- 89.7 - Eko FM, Ikeja
- 90.3 - Craig FM
- 90.9 - Top Radio FM
- 92.3 - Inspiration FM - www.inspirationradio.fm
- 92.9 - Bond FM
- 93.7 - Rhythm FM
- 94.1 - Rainbow FM
- 94.8 - Altitude FM - pop, rock
- 95.1 - Wazobia FM
- 96.1 - Traffic radio
- 96.9 - Cool FM - urban music
- 97.3 - Classic FM
- 97.7 - Metro FM - FRCN
- 98.1 - SMOOTH FM, - soul, rhythm and jazz
- 98.9 - Kiss FM
- 99.3 - Nigeria Info
- 99.9 - Beat FM, Ikoyi
- 100.5 - Ray Power FM, Alagbado
- 101.5 - Star FM, Ikeja
- 102.3 - Radio Continental, Ikosi Ketu
- 102.7 - Naija FM
- 103.1 - Uni-lag FM (University of Lagos)
- 103.5 - Choice FM - FRCN
- 105.1 - City FM, Oregun - www.city1051.com
- 105.9 - NOUN FM (National Open University of Nigeria), Victoria Island
- 107.5 - Radio Lagos, Ikeja
- 111.5 - Flow FM, Lagos

- 112.9 - Lil Frez, Lagos
- 141.5 - Pablo Radio, Oworonshoki
- 4770 - FRCN, Lagos
- 6090 - FRCN (Radio Nigeria 1), Lagos

Nasarawa State

- 97.1 - Nasarawa Broadcasting Service (Lafia)
- 101.1 - Nasarawa State Mass Communication Department FM
- 102.5 - Precious FM (Lafia, FRCN)
- 108 - Kizito FM

Niger State

- 88.5 - Zuma FM, Suleja
- 91.2 - Crystal Radio, Minna
- 92.3 - Search FM, Minna (Federal University of Technology, Minna)
- 100.5 - Power FM, Bida - FRCN

Ogun State

- 94.1 - Rainbow FM
- 94.5 - Paramount FM, FRCN, Abeokuta
- 101.9 - Rockcity FM, Abeokuta
- FM 123.5 - Geolabious FM, Abeokuta
- - OGBC 2 FM, Abeokuta
- - OGBC (Yoruba Radio), Abeokuta

Ondo State

- 88.9 - Adaba FM - Urban and blended yoruba music
- 93.1 - FUTA FM (Federal University of Technology, Akure)
- 96.5 - OSRC FM - Local MUSIC
- 102.5 - Positive FM (FRCN), Akure - Blend of old/new school
- 94.5 - Orange FM, Akure Ondo State

Osun State

- 89.5 - Orisun FM, Ile Ife
- 94.5 - Great FM, Obafemi Awolowo University, (Ife)
- 95.5 - Gold FM, Ilesa - Radio Nigeria
- 103.1 - Uniq FM, Ara Station, Ilesa
- 104.5 - Living Spring FM, Ile-Awuye Oke Baale Osogbo

Oyo State

- 92.1 - Ajilete FM, Gambari, Ogbomoso
- 93.5 - Premier FM (FRCN), Ibadan
- 96.3 - Oke-Ogun FM, Alaga
- 98.5 - Oluyole FM, Ibadan
- 99.1 - Amuludun FM, Ibadan
- 101.1 - Diamond FM University of Ibadan, Ibadan
- 105.5 - Splash FM, Ibadan

Plateau State

- 88.65 - Radio Plateau 1 AM 1224, Jos
- 90.5 - Peace FM, Jos
- 93.7 - Rhythm FM, Jos
- 100.5 - Raypower FM, Jos
- 101.5 - Highland FM, Jos - FRCN
- 96.1 - ICEFMUJ (Unijosfm)

Rivers State

- 93.7 - Rhythm FM, Port Harcourt
- 94.1 - Wazobia FM, Port Harcourt
- 95.9 - Cool FM, Port Harcourt
- 97.7 - Love FM
- 98.5 - Treasure FM
- 99.1 - Radio Rivers
- 106.5 - Raypower FM
- 7255 - Voice of Nigeria (ShortWave), Lagos
- 9690 - Voice of Nigeria (ShortWave), Lagos
- 11770 - Voice of Nigeria (ShortWave), Lagos
- 15120 - Voice of Nigeria (ShortWave), Lagos

Internet radios

- 19jaradio http://www.19jaradio.com (streaming everything and anything Nigerian, online 24 hours a day 7 days a week)
- Naijaradios http://www.naijaradios.com (A Live streaming portal of all FM Stations in Nigeria + Social Network, Its Radio 2.0)
- Nigerian WebRadio (USA)100% Nigerian music 24/7!
- Hausa Internet Radio http://hausaradio.net (Your 24/7 source for Hausa audio from music to daily newscasts from all over the world and a portal and aggregator of all Hausa radio online)
- Praiseworld Radio www.praiseworldradio.com Nigeria's premium Online Gospel Radio Station offering 24hr broadcast of

pure urban gospel content, music, news and programs. Located in Lagos, Nigeria

(c)   Television stations

Abia

- NTA Aba Channel 6
- Broadcasting Corporation of Abia State Umuahia BCA

Anambra

- ABS - Awka
- Minaj - Obosi

Edo

- EBS - Benin
- ITV - Benin
- NTA - Benin
- NTA - Iruekpen
- AIT - Benin
- STV – Benin

Ebonyi

- NTA Chanel Channel 43, Abakaliki
- Salt TV – EBBC

Enugu

- NTA Chanel 8
- ESBS Chanel 50

Ibadan

- NTA Ibadan (Established in 1959 as WNTV Ibadan) "Africa's first television station"
- BCOS, Ibadan
- Galaxy Television

Osun

- Osbc
- NTA Osogbo
- NTA Ife

- Reality TV Iwo
- NDTV Ibokun

Imo

- NTA Owerri
- IBC Owerri
- Orient TV

Lagos

- DBN International
- Nigerian Television Authority
- TV 39
- Silverbird TV (website)
- Channels Television
- Africa Independent Television
- MITV
- TV Continental
- Galaxy Television
- iball TV (Transit TV)
- Lagos Television
- HiTV (Pay TV) (website)
- MBI [minaj broadcasting international]
- MCTV (Pay TV discom)
- Superscreen
- ACBN (Station on HiTv and MyTv)
- OnTV Nigeria

Ogun

- GTV Abeokuta
- NTA Abeokuta
- NTA IjebuOde
- FABIANO TV Ijebu Ode

Kano

- ARTV Kano
- NTA Kano

Kaduna

- KSTV Kaduna
- NTA Kaduna
- DITV Kaduna

Plateau

- PRTV Corporation
- NTA Jos
- AIT Jos

Rivers

- Rivers State TV
- NTA Port Harcourt

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit has examined media management in this era of media proliferations. We have explained that the proliferations of the industry are not altogether negative phenomenon but a positive one that calls for encouragement. It is our belief that the knowledge of the issues discussed above would serve as an eye opener to both present media managers and the future ones.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has explained the media, nature and implications opf media proliferation in Nigeria today. We have also identified the challenges and the prospects it has brought. We went further to itemise some major media organisations yesterday and today in the country. The issues discussed should be taken seriously by media students and media workers.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain media proliferation in the Nigeria context.
2.   What are the implications to a contemporary media outfit in the country?
3.   What challenges do they pose?
4.   What prospects has it brought?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Wikipedia. *List of Media Organisations in Nigeria*. Retrieved on 07/01/2013.

UNIT 4   ETHICS AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES IN MEDIA MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The knowledge of media ethics is important in today media management. This is because, beyond the universal media laws, there are still moral issues and decisions that confront media workers as they do their media work from day to day. This unit examines those ethical issues that border on media management.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

• define ethics
• explain some ethical theories
• state the code of ethics for Nigerian journalists
• discuss some tempting ethical issues in media organisations.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Ethics: A Conceptual Overview

The natural man is both rational and instinctual. Man therefore, is said to be ethically guided only when he is able to suppress his instincts and behave in a manner considered to be rational within a social group. This suppression of the instinctual aspect of man for morality sake is what is known as ethics.

Explicitly put, ethics is the moral philosophy or science that determines what is right or wrong in a social context. Nwodu, (2006:134) cites Summer *et al.* (1995:466) as saying that "ethics is a moral rule or

principle of behaviour for deciding what is right and wrong." However, Merrill (1975) puts it succinctly:

> *Ethics is a science of conduct, which stipulates guidelines, rules, principles and codes that are designed to lead individual to make moral decisions.*

The implication is that morality is at the core of ethical discourse-cum-practice. In the context of ethics therefore, the acceptance or otherwise of human attitudes and behaviours; actions and inactions; and overall conducts can be based on relative moral uprightness or otherwise of such conducts. This explains why a given act can be said to be ethically right or wrong; good or bad, responsible or irresponsible; logical or illogical; socially acceptable or unacceptable, and moral or immoral (Nwodu, 2006:134).

3.2   Some Ethical Issues in Media Management

One major ethical issue facing media managers in the country today is how to strike a balance between personal/organisational interests with societal interests. In balancing these conflicting interests therefore, it is imperative that media workers reflect on the Code of Ethics for Nigerian Journalists.

1.   **Truth and honesty:** An ethical media manager is required to use his medium to project issues truthfully. The problem with this however, is that absolute truth is only an ideal that does not exist. If absolute truth in news reporting requires that journalist should report all of what happens without prejudice and bias; then reporting an aspect of event in preference to other aspect can hardly stand as the truth. Thus, perhaps, the best an ethical journalist can attain is to be objective in reporting issues even when such report is likely to affect his personal interests. Again, this is an ideal that only exists in the mind. Objectivity as ethical principle therefore, demands that journalist eschews his subjective views and personal biases in reporting issues that affect public and even private interests.

2.   **Privacy:** Both media laws and ethics recognise the importance of privacy. There is a limit to which people can spy into the affairs of others. Individual's right and privilege to privacy is therefore a valuable asset that should be guided jealously.

3.   **Confidentiality:** A media person is expected to keep the names of his informants secret. Maintaining the confidentiality of the

source of information, especially one obtained on deep background is an essential pedigree of journalism practice.

1.   Personal interest versus public interest

In a depressed economy like ours where media workers are poorly remunerated, the ethical question has remained, should a media worker accept gratifications (brown envelop) in order to publish or kill a story that is of public interest because of personal desire to make ends meet? Or should a journalists kill damaging but factual story involving his relative (or close associate) or publish and damn the consequences in defence of public interest to know? This is is indeed not a question to answer in a hurry. Thus, it has remained one area where individual interest is at a logjam with public interest.

Profit vs social responsibility

Every media organisation functions as a social institution with business concern. Of course to survive in today's highly competitive business environment is not a child's play. A media organisation must make profit to remain in business. At the same time, a media organisation must as a matter of necessity, operate as a social institution with social responsibilities. Here comes the conflict - balancing the profit motives and its social responsibilities.

 For instance, the Standard Organisation of Nigeria (SON) forbids the sale of sub-standard products to consumers. Assuming a media organisation investigates and discovers that a company who controls a large share of the medium is actually producing and selling sub-standard products to the public. The issue becomes: should the medium give up his business deal and contract with the company in the name of social responsibility? A situation like this no doubt poses an ethical dilemma especially where the two organisations enjoy good relationship at the top management level.

3.3   Code of Ethics for Nigerian Journalists

In 1978, the Nigerian Press Organisation adopted the Nigerian Press Code of Ethics. It was the three media bodies; the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ), the Nigerian Guild of Editors (NGE) and the Newspaper Proprietors Association of Nigeria (NPAN) that got together to formulate the Code of Ethics.

The code is talking of a right attitude to them towards the practice of this profession: what ought to be done and what should not be done with a

view to establishing good conduct and morals among those practicing the profession.

The code specifies the following:

Editorial independence
A mass communicator should be a person of sound mind who can quickly take the decisions of the news to give to his audience.

Accuracy and fairness
A mass communicator should be accurate and truthful in all his publications and should also be fair so as to earn the public confidence; trust and reliance.

Privacy
The journalists should keep the source of his information private. He is also to respect the privacy of individuals and their families. He should be barred from publishing such information for the consumption of the public except where there is the good intention to expose crime, anti-social conduct, such others as cultism, profaning the society, misleading publications on public health, safety and morality.

Privilege non-disclosure
There should be confidentiality of the source of any information obtained by journalists where the giver of the information does not want a disclosure.

Decency
The journalists by his profession are to be decent in every area of his life and conduct. A journalist should ensure that any publications found to be incorrect are corrected through publication of same in concept of the fact.

Non-discrimination
The journalist should not discriminate against any person, group, sex, or religion in all his dealings

Reward and gratification
A journalist should not give or accept bribe in order to publish or suppress information neither should be accept patronage or gratification or any type because this will affect the society's expectation on him of an unbiased, accurate and fair report of people and events.

Violence
All acts of violence such as murder, rape, robbery, terrorist acts, etc., are anti-social, and in consequence, a journalist should not publish any work to glorify, but condemn them.

Children and minors
The privacy of children and minors with regards to their crimes and sexual offences and the like should not be exposed to the public in any form by the journalists. The courts also try young persons in camera or in chambers but not in the public.

Access to information
In gathering his information a journalist should be open and honest except where conventionally he is permitted to do otherwise for public interest.

National interest
A journalist should use his knowledge education and position to enhance good government, national unity and interest for law and order and public good. In fact he is expected to show an appreciable level of patriotism in the practice of his profession.

Social responsibility
A journalist should be dynamic and a catalyst in the promotion of democracy, fundamental human rights, global understanding and unity and peace among nations.

Plagiarism
A journalist should avoid in all its ramifications plagiarism or piracy of other people's works used by him in his publication in accordance with required conventions nationally and internationally.

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit has identified ethics as a very essential element of media practice. This is because without it, media workers would continue to take wrong professional decisions and actions. This has thus discussed the different which the media need to know in other to achieve professional integrity.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have explained the meaning of media ethics and some major ethical issues in the contemporary typical Nigerian media organisation.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What do you understand by ethics?
2.   Identify and explain some pertinent ethical issues in the contemporary media management in Nigeria.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Merrill, J.C. (1975). *The Imperative of Freedom: A Philosophy of Journalistic Autonomy.* New York: Hastings House.

Nwodu, L.C. (2006). *Journalism Practice: News, Aesthetics, Ethics and Laws*. Enugu: Rhyce Kerex Publishers.

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