

The Definition of Management

Management is the attainment of organizational goals in an effective and organizational resources.









The Four Management Functions

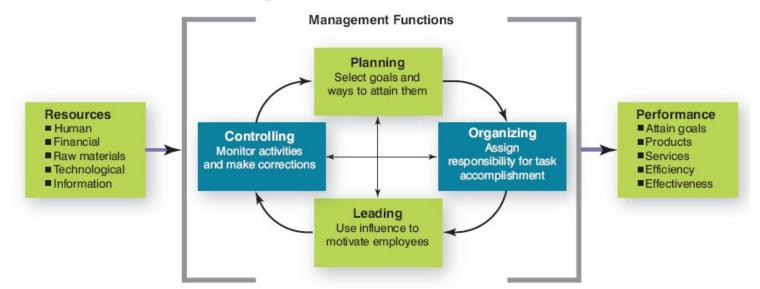
- Planning. Identifying goals and resources or future organizational performance.
- Organizing. Assigning tasks, delegating authority and allocating resources.
- Leading. The use of influence to motivate employees to achieve goals.
- Controlling. Monitoring activities and taking corrective action when needed.





The Process of Management

Exhibit 1.1 The Process of Management









Organizational Performance

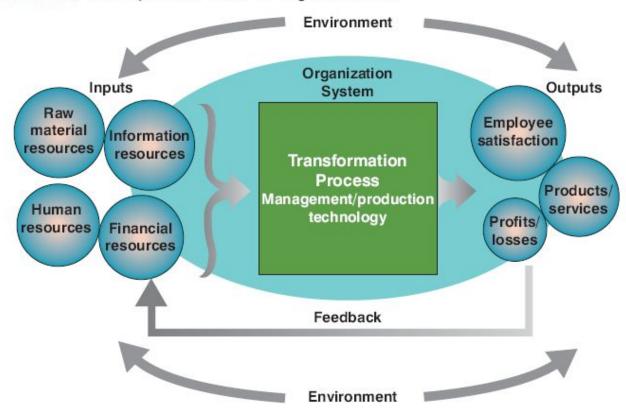
- Organizations bring together knowledge, people, and raw materials to perform tasks
 - Effectiveness is the degree to which the organizations achieves goals
 - Efficiency is the use of minimal resources to produce desired output
- Organization is a social entity that is goal directed and deliberately structured





The Systems View of Organizations

Exhibit 2.6 The Systems View of Organizations



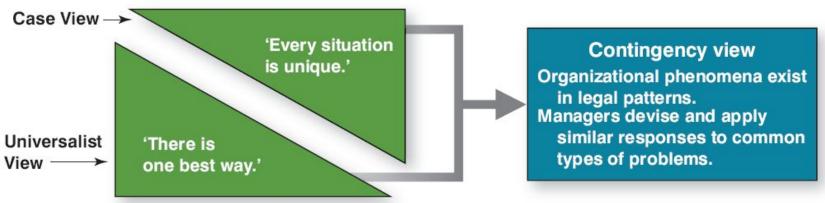


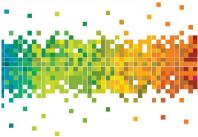




Contingency View of Management

Exhibit 2.7 Contingency View of Management









Total Quality Management

- W. Edward Deming, known as the father of the quality movement
 - US initially scoffed at Deming
- During the 1908s and 1990s, quality became a focus to meet global competition
- Four key elements of quality management:
 - 1. Employee involvement
 - Focus on customer
 - 3. Benchmarking
 - 4. Continuous improvement







The Learning Organization

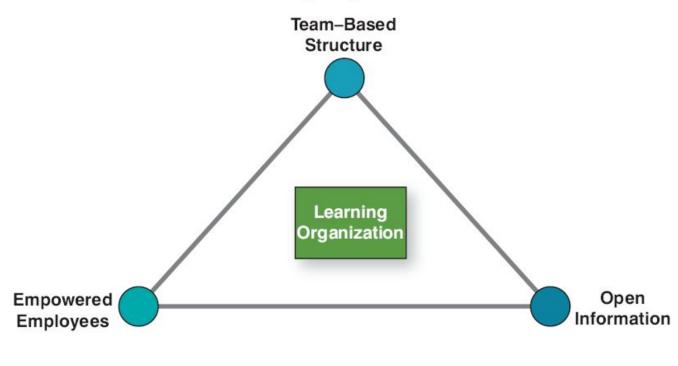
- Learning aids in the adaptation to change
- Peter Senge began the discussion about the learning organization
- All employees are engaged in identifying and solving problems
- Learning increases the capacity to learn and grow
- Move from efficiency to solving problems





Elements of a Learning Organization

Exhibit 2.8 Elements of a Learning Organization



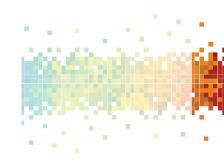






Managing the Technology-Driven Workplace

- Most work is performed on computers in today's workplace
- Companies use technology to communicate and collaborate
- Key technologies in today's workplace:
 - Supply Chain Management
 - Customer Relationship Management
 - Outsourcing

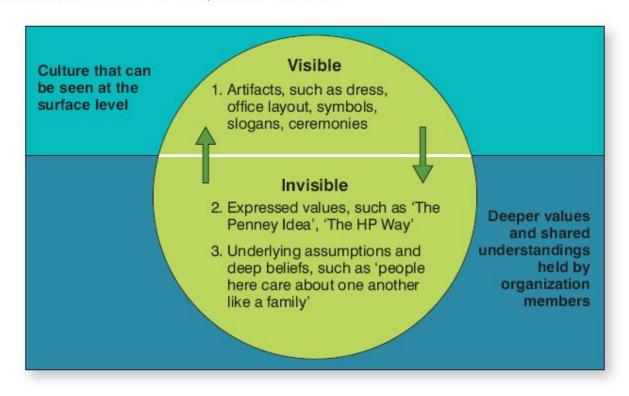






Levels of Corporate Culture

Exhibit 3.5 Levels of Corporate Culture









Environmentally Adaptive versus Un-adaptive Corporate Cultures

Exhibit 3.6 Environmentally Adaptive versus Unadaptive Corporate Cultures

| | Adaptive Corporate Cultures | Unadaptive Corporate Cultures |
|----------------------|--|---|
| Visible Behaviour | Managers pay close attention to all their constituencies, especially customers, and initiate change when needed to serve their legitimate interests, even if it entails taking some risks. | Managers tend to behave somewhat insularly, politically, and bureaucratically. As a result, they do not change their strategies quickly to adjust to or take advantage of changes in their business environments. |
| Expressed Values | Managers care deeply about customers, stockholders, and employees. They also strongly value people and processes that can create useful change (e.g. leadership initiatives up and down the management hierarchy). | Managers care mainly about themselves, their immediate work group, or some product (or technology) associated with that work group. They value the orderly and risk-reducing management process much more highly than leadership initiatives. |

SOURCE: John P. Kotter and James L. Heskett, Corporate Culture and Performance (New York: The Free Press, 1992), 51.









Four Types of Corporate Culture

SOURCES: Based on D. R. Denison and A. K. Mishra. 'Toward a Theory of Organizational Culture and Effectiveness', Organization Science, 6, no. 2 (March-April 1995): 204-223; R. Hooijberg and F. Petrock, 'On Cultural Change: Using the Competing Values Framework to Help Leaders Execute a Transformational Strategy'. Human Resource Management 32, no. 1 (1993): 29-50; and R. E. Quinn, Beyond Rational Management: Mastering the Paradoxes and Competing Demands of High Performance (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1988).

Exhibit 3.7 Four Types of Corporate Cultures

Flexibility Stability External Adaptability Culture Achievement Culture Culture Consistency Culture Internal





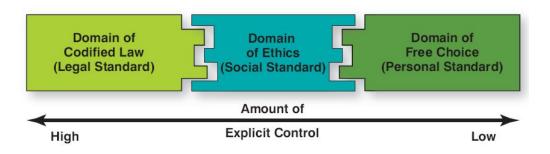


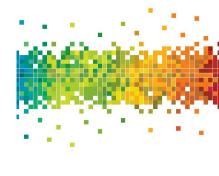


Managerial Ethics

- Ethics can be difficult to define
- Ethical issues are exceedingly complex
- Managers face a variety of difficult situations
- Ethics fall between law and free choice

Exhibit 5.1 Three Domains of Human Action











Criteria for Ethical Decision Making

- Utilitarian approach moral behaviors should produce the greatest good for the greatest number
- Individualism approach acts are moral when they promote the individual's best long-term interests
- Moral Rights Approach moral decisions are those that best maintains the rights of those affected
- Justice Approach decisions must be based on standards of equity, fairness, and impartiality
- Disruptive Approach different treatment of people should not be based on arbitrary characteristics







Defining Justice

Disruptive Justice – different treatment of people should not be based on arbitrary characteristics.

Compensatory Justice – individuals should be compensated for the cost of their injuries by the party responsible.







Manager Ethical Choices

An important personal trait that mangers poses is their stage of moral development

Exhibit 5.2 Three Levels of Personal Moral Development

Level 2: Conventional

of others. Fulfills duties Level 1: Pre-conventional and obligations of social Follows rules to avoid system. Upholds laws. punishment. Acts in own interest. Obedience for

principles of justice and right. Aware that people hold different values and seeks creative solutions Lives up to expectations to ethical dilemmas. Balances concern for individual with concern for common good.

Follows self-chosen

Level 3: Post-conventional

Leadership Style:

Autocratic/coercive

its own sake.

Guiding/encouraging. team oriented

Employee Behavior: Task accomplishment Work group collaboration

Transforming or servant leadership

Empowered employees, full participation

SOURCES: Based on L. Kohlberg, 'Moral Stages and Moralization: The Cognitive-Developmental Approach', in Moral Development and Behaviour: Theory, Research, and Social Issues, ed. T. Lickona (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1976), pp. 31-53; and Jill W. Graham, 'Leadership, Moral Development and Citizenship Behaviour', Business Ethics Quarterly 5, no. 1 (January 1995): 43-54.

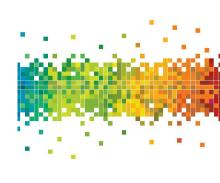






What is Corporate Responsibility?

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is the obligation of organization management to make decisions and take actions that will enhance the welfare and interests of society as well as the organization









What is Corporate Responsibility?

- Garriga and Mele suggest that research into CSR can be summarised within four general categories:
- Instrumental theories which focus on profit maximization
- Political theories which ascribe responsibilities to organizations as part of the social contract or 'license to operate'





What is Corporate Responsibility?

- Integrative theories which suggest that the long-term success and profitability of organizations is closely allied to the well-being of society.
- Ethical theories which apply ethics on organizations and deduct the responsibility of firms from universal and/or conventional norms and values and fundamental moral principles.

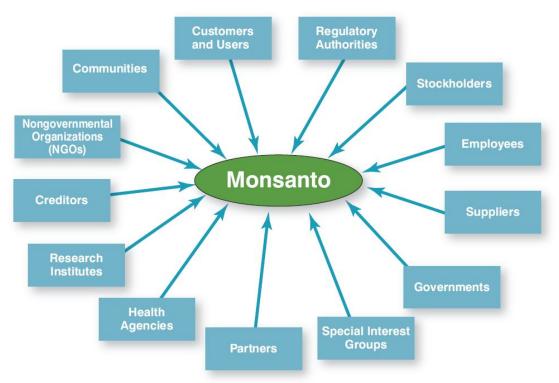




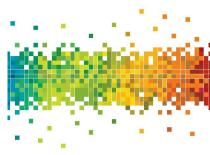
Organizational Stakeholders

Stakeholders are any group within or outside the organization that has a stake in the organization's performance.

Exhibit 5.4 Major Stakeholders Relevant to Monsanto Company



SOURCES: Based on information in D. Wheeler, B. Colbert, and R. E. Freeman, 'Focusing on Value: Reconciling Corporate Social Responsibility, Sustainability, and a Stakeholder Approach in a Networked World', *Journal of General Management* 28, no. 3 (Spring 2003): 1–28; and J. E. Post, L. E. Preston, and S. Sachs, 'Managing the Extended Enterprise: The New Stakeholder View', *California Management Review* 45, no. 1 (Fall 2002): 6–28.









The Bottom of the Pyramid (BOP)

- Sometimes called base of the pyramid
- Alleviate poverty and social ills while making profits
- Selling to the world's poorest people
- 4 Billion people make up the lowest level of the world's economic pyramid
- These people have traditionally been underserved
- Companies can make money while addressing global poverty, environmental destruction, social decay and political instability





Overview of Goals and Plans

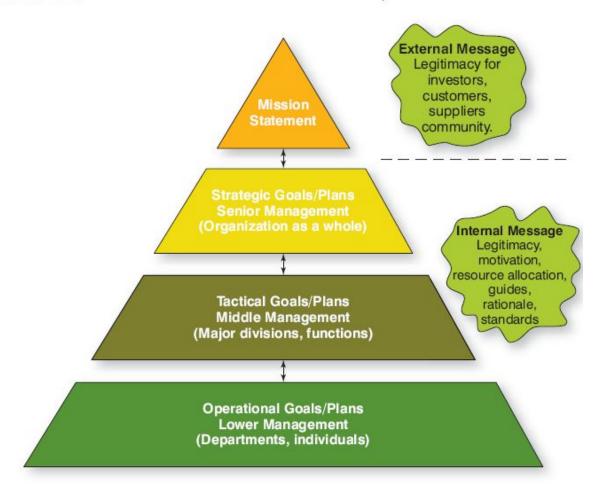
- A goal is a desired future state that the organization attempts to realize
- A plan is a blueprint for goal achievement
- There are different levels of planning and goals in an organization
- Goals at each level of the organization guide the organization

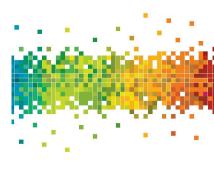




Levels of Goals/Plans and their Importance

Exhibit 7.1 Levels of Goals/Plans and their Importance











Characteristics of Goals and Plans

- Legitimacy
- Source of motivation and commitment
- Resource allocation
- Guides to action
- Rationale for decisions
- Standards of performance

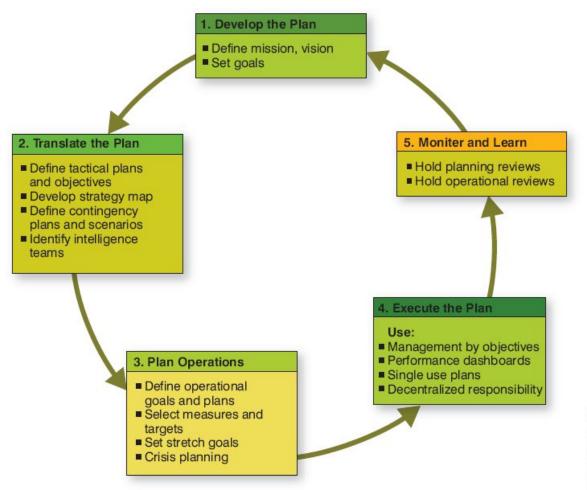


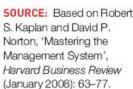




The Organizational Planning Process

Exhibit 7.2 The Organizational Planning process











What is Strategic Management?

- Plans and actions that lead to superior competitive standing
 - Who are our competitors and what are their strengths and weaknesses?
 - ☐ Who are our customers?
 - ☐ What products or services should we offer?
 - □ What does the future hold for our industry?
 - ☐ How can we change the rules of the game?







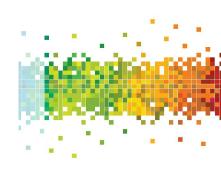
Purpose of Strategy

• Strategy:

- Plan of action
- Resource allocation
- Activities for dealing with the environment
- Achieving competitive advantage

Strategy should:

- Exploit Core Competence
- Build Synergy
- Deliver Value



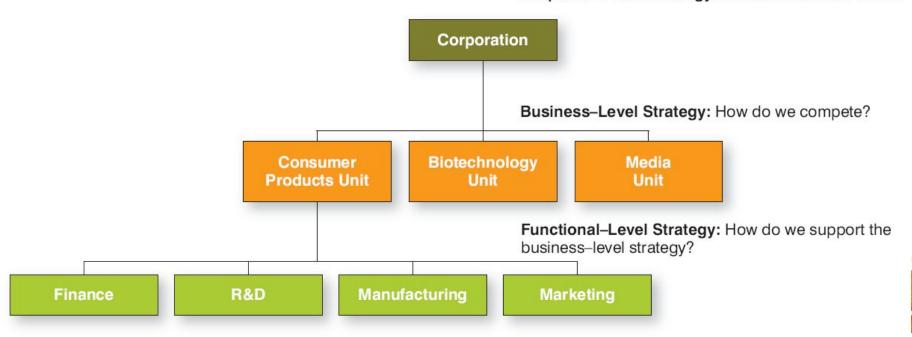




Three Levels of Strategy in Organizations

Exhibit 8.1 Three Levels of Strategy in Organizations

Corporate-Level Strategy: What business are we in?



SOURCE: Milton Leontiades, *Strategies for Diversification and Change* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1980): 63; and Dan E. Schendel and Charles W. Hofer, eds., *Strategic Management: A New View of Business Policy and Planning* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1979): 11–14.







Levels of Strategy

What business are we in?

Corporate-level strategy

How do we compete?

Business-level strategy

How do we support the business-level strategy?

Functional-level strategy





Strategy Formulation Versus Execution

Strategy Formulation

- Assess environment and internal problems
- Planning
- Decision making
- Establishment of goals

Strategy Execution

- Directing resources
- Accomplishing results
- Changes in structure
- Use managerial and organizational tools

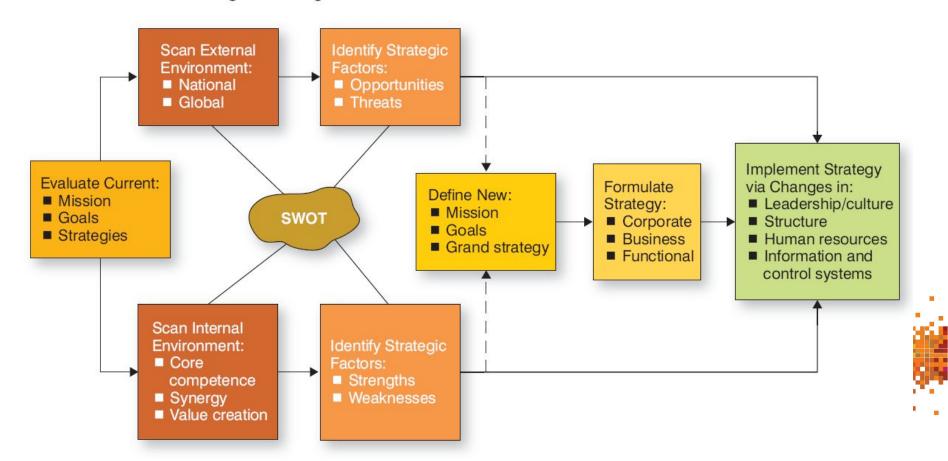






The Strategic Management Process

Exhibit 8.2 The Strategic Management Process









SWOT Analysis

Assessment of internal and external factors

- Organizational strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats
 - Reports
 - Budgets
 - Financial ratios
 - Employee Surveys

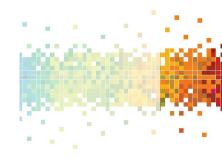
- External information about opportunities and threats
 - Customers
 - Government reports
 - Professional journals
 - Bankers
 - Consultants
 - Association meetings





Formulating Corporate-Level Strategy

- Portfolio Strategy
 - A diverse mix of business units
 - Strategic Business Units (SBU) have different products, mission, markets and competitors
- The BCG Matrix
 - Organizes businesses along two dimensions—growth and market share
- Diversification Strategy
 - Movement into new lines of business



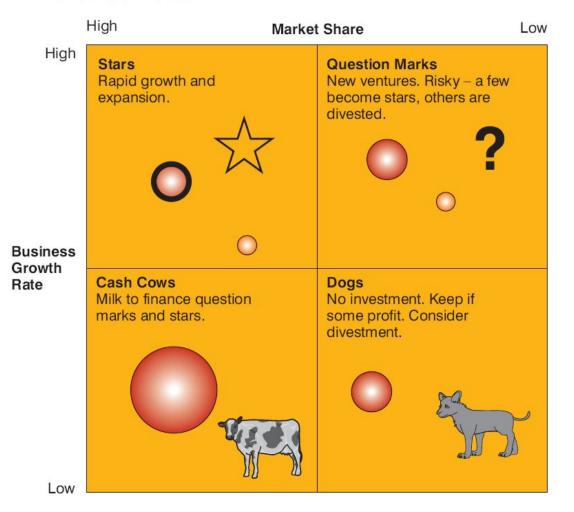






The BCG Matrix

Exhibit 8.4 The BCG Matrix









Formulating Business-Level Strategy

- Porter's Five Forces analyzing a company's position in the industry
 - □ Potential New Entrants
 - □ Bargaining Power of Buyers
 - Bargaining Power of Suppliers
 - ☐ Threat of Substitute Products
 - □ Rivalry Among Competitors



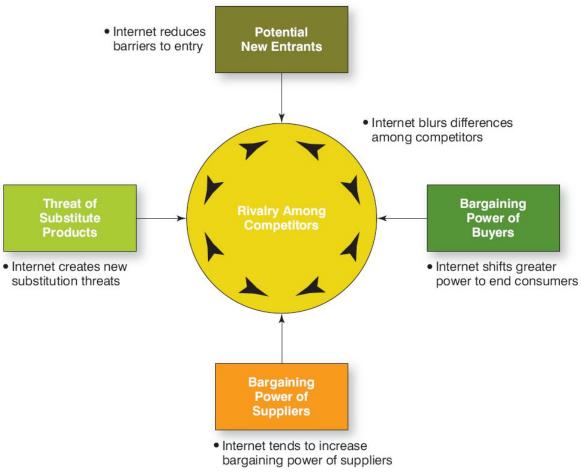






Porter's Five Forces

Exhibit 8.5 Porter's Five Forces Affecting Industry Competition



1980); and

SOURCE: Based on Michael E. Porter, *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitors* (New York: Free Press, 1980); and Michael E. Porter, 'Strategy and the Internet', *Harvard Business Review* (March 2001): 63–78.







Implementing Change

- Need for Change. Many people are not willing to change. Managers must recognize the need and make others aware.
- **Resistance to Change.** Getting others to understand the need for change is the first step.
 - Self-interest
 - Lack of Understanding and Trust
 - Uncertainty
 - Different Assessment and Goals









Force-Field Analysis

- Change was a result of the competition between driving and restraining forces.
- Driving forces are the problems and opportunities that provide motivation to change.
- Restraining forces are the various barriers to change.
- Managers should recognize the driving force and the restraining forces.
- As barriers are reduced, behaviour will shift.





Personal Characteristics of Leaders

Exhibit 15.3 Personal Characteristics of Leaders

| Physical Characteristics | Personality | Work-Related Characteristics |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| Energy | Self-confidence | Achievement drive, desire to excel |
| Physical stamina | Honesty and integrity | Conscientiousness in pursuit of goals |
| | Enthusiasm | Persistence against obstacles, tenacity |
| | Desire to lead | |
| | Independence | |
| Intelligence and Ability | Social Characteristics | Social Background |
| Intelligence, cognitive ability | Sociability, interpersonal skills | Education |
| Knowledge | Cooperativeness | Mobility |
| Judgement, decisiveness | Ability to enlist cooperation | |
| | Tact, diplomacy | |

SOURCE: Based on Bernard M. Bass, *Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research, and Managerial Applications,* 3rd ed. (New York: The Free Press, 1990): 80–81; and S. A. Kirkpatrick and E. A. Locke, 'Leadership: Do Traits Matter?', *Academy of Management Executive* 5, no. 2 (1991): 48–60.







Behavioral Approaches to Leadership

Ohio State Studies

- Consideration: people-oriented behavior
- Initiating structure: task-behavior that directs work activities

Michigan Studies

- Employee-centered leaders: focused on subordinates human needs
- Job-centered leaders: meeting schedules, keeping costs low and achieving productivity

The Leadership Grid

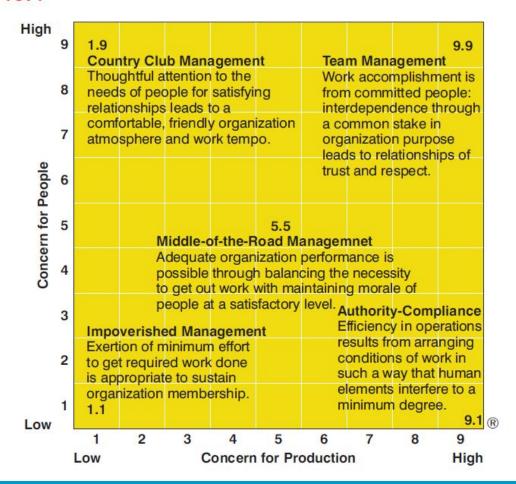
- Built on both Ohio State and Michigan Studies
- Two-dimensional grid w/ five major management styles



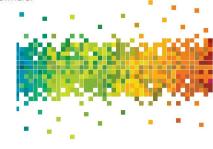


The Leadership Grid

Exhibit 15.4



SOURCE: The Leadership Grid® figure, Paternalism figure and Opportunism from Leadership Dilemmas-Grid Solutions, by Robert R. Blake and Anne Adams McCanse (formerly the Managerial Grid by Robert R. Blace and Jase S. Mouton). Houston: Gulf Publishing Company. (Grid figure: p. 29, Paternalism figure: p. 30, Opportunism figure: p. 31.) Copyright © 1991, by Blake and Mouton, and Scientific Methods, Inc. Reproduced by permission of the owners.







Contingency Approaches

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory

- Characteristics of followers and determining appropriate leadership behavior
- Adopt one of four leadership styles

Fiedler's Contingency Theory

- Apply leader's style to organizational situation
- Is situation favorable on unfavorable to the leader's style

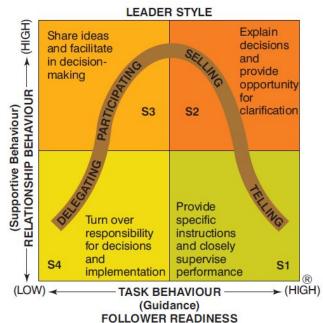






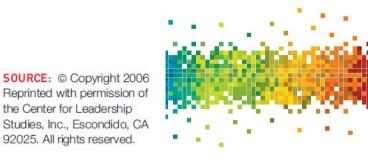
Situational Theory: Hersey & Blanchard

Exhibit 15.5



HIGH MODERATE LOW R3 R4 R2 R1 Able and Able but Unable but Unable and Willing Unwilling Willing Unwilling or or Confident Insecure Confident Insecure

FOLLOWER LEADER DIRECTED DIRECTED





the Center for Leadership

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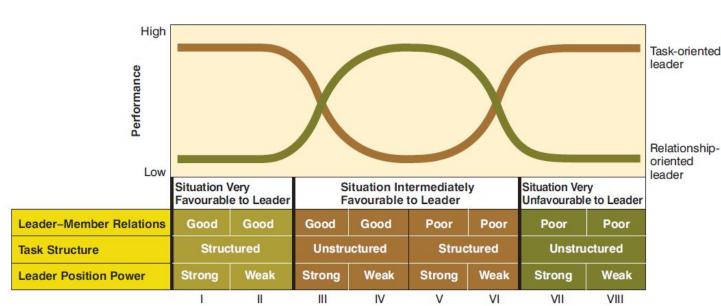






How Leader Style Fits the Situation

Exhibit 15.6



SOURCE: Based on Fred E. Fiedler, 'The Effects of Leadership Training and Experience: A Contingency Model Interpretation', *Administrative Science Quarterly* 17 (1972): 455.



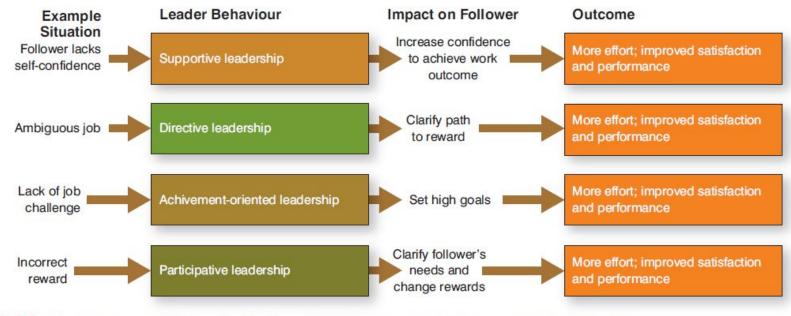






Path goal theory

Exhibit 15.7



SOURCE: Adapted from Gary A. Yukl, Leadership in Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1981): 146-152.

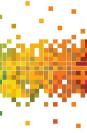




Substitutes and Neutralizers for Leadership

Exhibit 15.8

| Variable | | Task-Oriented Leadership | People-Oriented Leadership |
|--------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Organizational variables | Group cohesiveness | Substitutes for | Substitutes for |
| | Formalisation | Substitutes for | No effect on |
| | Inflexibility | Neutralises | No effect on |
| | Low position power | Neutralises | Neutralises |
| | Physical separation | Neutralises | Neutralises |
| Task characteristics | Highly structured task | Substitutes for | No effect on |
| | Automatic feedback | Substitutes for | No effect on |
| | Intrinsic satisfaction | No effect on | Substitutes for |
| Group characteristics | Professionalism | Substitutes for | Substitutes for |
| | Training/experience | Substitutes for | No effect on |









Charismatic Leadership

- Leadership can <u>inspire and motivate people</u>
- Charismatic Leaders
 - ☐ Lofty visions
 - Ability to understand and empathize
 - Empowering and trusting subordinates
- Charismatic leaders are less predictable and create an environment of change





Transformational vs. Transactional Leadership

- Transformational leaders drive innovation and change
 - Recognize needs of followers
 - Inspire others to believe in themselves
- Different than transactional leadership
 - Initiate structure, provide rewards
 - Excel in management functions
- Transformational leaders have positive impact on followers

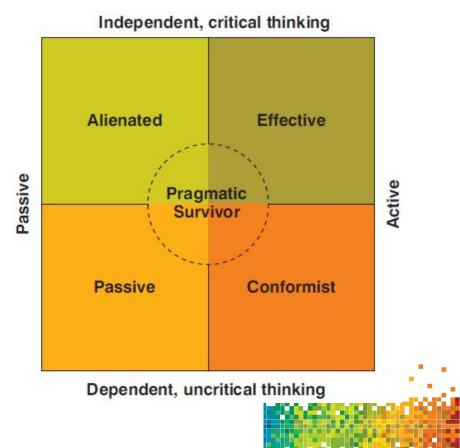






Followership

- Leaders can develop understanding of followers
- Good followers have leadership traits
- Effective followers are independent, critical thinkers









Power

- Position Power
 - Legitimate Power: formal position
 - Reward Power: authority to reward others
 - Coercive Power: authority to punish or recommend

Power and influence are not the same.

Personal Power

- Expert Power: knowledge and skills
- Referent Power: personal characteristics
- Other Source of Power
 - Personal Effort: initiative
 - Network of Relationships: cultivated people resources
 - Information: access to information









Interpersonal Influence Tactics

- Use rational persuasion
- Make people like you
- Rely on the rule of reciprocity
- Develop allies
- Ask for what you want
- Make use of higher authority
- Reward the behaviors you want







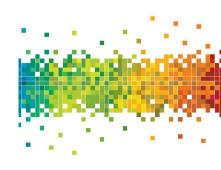


A Simple Model of Motivation

Exhibit 16.1



- Motivation can lead to behaviors that reflect high performance within organizations.
- High employee motivation is related to high organizational performance and profits.





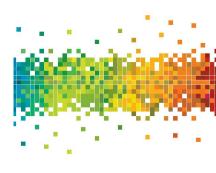




Content Perspectives on Motivation

These theories emphasize the needs that motivate people.

- Hierarchy of Needs Theory
- ERG Theory
- Two-Factor Theory
- Acquired Needs Theory

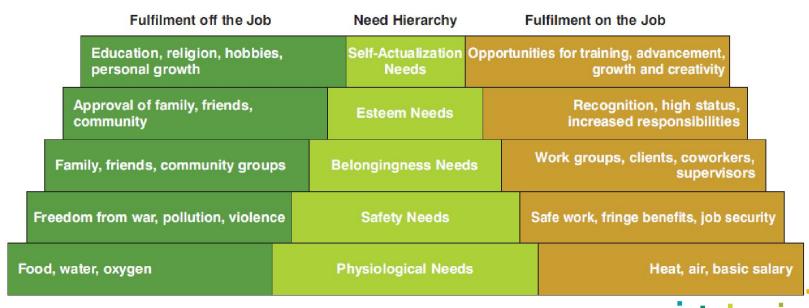








Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



According to Maslow's Theory, low-order needs take priority—they must be satisfied before higher-order needs are activated.

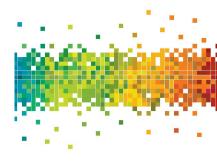






Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

- Once a need is satisfied, it declines in importance and the next higher need is activated
- ✓ There are opportunities for fulfillment off the job and on the job in each of the five levels of needs









ERG Theory

- ERG is a simplification of Maslow.
- Three categories of needs:
 - Existence needs. The needs for physical well-being.
 - Relatedness needs. The needs for satisfactory relationships with others.
 - Growth needs. The needs that focus on the development of human potential and the desire for personal growth.







Two-Factor Motivation Theory

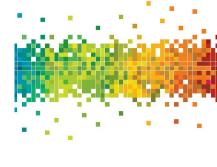
Exhibit 16.4

Highly Satisfied

Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied

Area of Satisfaction **Motivators** influence level Motivators of satisfaction. Achievement Recognition Responsibility Work itself Personal growth Area of Dissatisfaction Hygiene factors influence level of Hygiene **Factors** Working conditions Pay and security Company policies Supervisors Interpersonal relationships

Highly Dissatisfied







Acquired Needs Theory

- Need for Achievement. desire to accomplish something difficult, master complex tasks, and surpass others.
- Need for Affiliation. desire to form close personal relationships, avoid conflict, and establish warm friendships.
- Need for Power. desire to influence or control others.



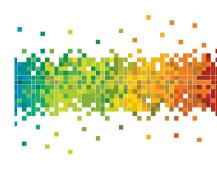




Process Perspectives on Motivation

These theories explain how people select behavioral actions to meet their needs.

- Goal-Setting Theory
- Equity Theory
- Expectancy Theory









Goal-Setting

- Specific, challenging targets significantly enhance people's motivation and performance.
- Managers can improve performance by setting specific goals.
- Goal-setting theory requires:
 - Specific Goals
 - Difficult Goals
 - Acceptance
 - Feedback







Equity Theory

- Focuses on individuals' <u>perceptions</u> of how <u>fairly</u> they are treated compared with others
- Motivated to seek <u>social equity</u> in the rewards they expect for performance







Methods for Reducing Perceived Inequities

- Change Work Efforts
- Change Outcomes
- Change Perceptions
- Leave the Job

Employees evaluate the perceived equity of their rewards compared to others'.







Expectancy Theory

- Motivation depends on individuals' expectations about their ability to perform tasks and receive desired rewards
- Focuses on the thinking process that individuals use to achieve rewards
- ☐ Based on the effort, performance, and desirability of outcomes

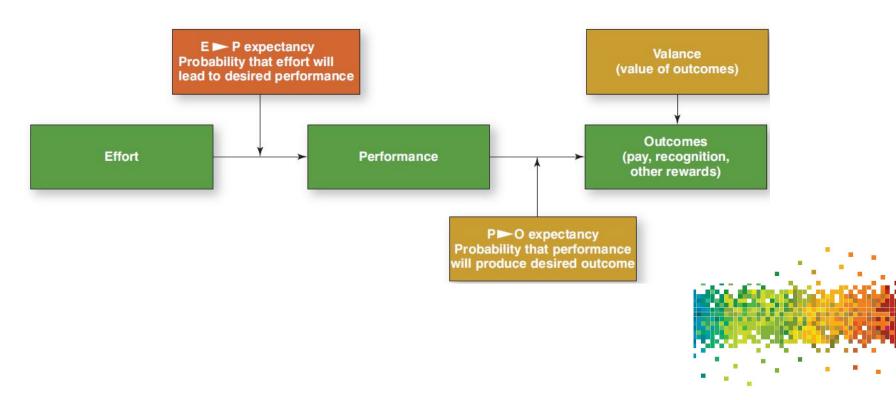






Major Elements of Expectancy Theory

Exhibit 16.5



Valence – the value or attraction an individual has for an outcome





Reinforcement Perspective on Motivation

Exhibit 16.6



SOURCE: Based on Richard L. Daft and Richard M. Steers, Organizations: A Micro/Macro Approach (Scott, Foresman Glenview, IL;, 1986): 109.



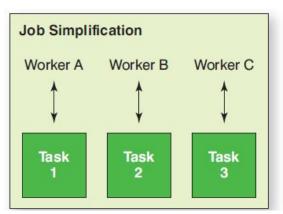


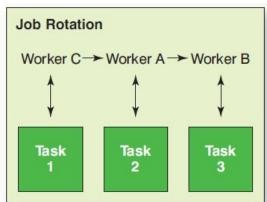


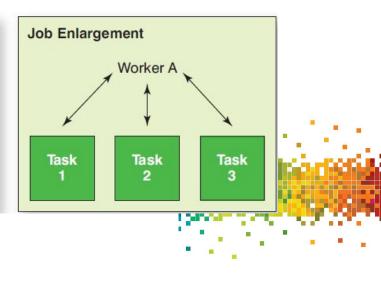
Job Design for Motivation

Job Design - application of motivational theories to the structure of work

Exhibit 16.8











Job Design for Motivation

Job Simplification - improve task efficiency by reducing the number of tasks

Job Rotation - moving employees from one job to another to provide them with variety and stimulation

Job Enlargement - combining a series of tasks into one new, broader job to give employees variety and challenge





Job Design for Motivation

Job Enrichment - incorporating achievement, recognition, and other high-level motivators into the work

Work redesign – altering jobs to increase both the quality of employee's work experience and their productivity.

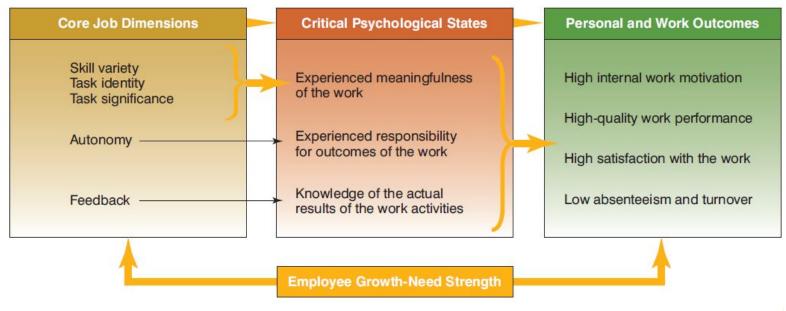






Job Characteristics Model

Exhibit 16.9



SOURCE: Adapted from J. Richard Hackman and G.R. Oldham, 'Motivation through the Design of Work: Test of a Theory', *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 16 (1976): 256.





The Meaning of Control

- The systematic process of regulating organizational activities to meet expectations
 - Established plans
 - Targets
 - Standards









Choosing Standards and Measures

- Common forms of control include financial performance
 - Sales
 - Revenue
 - Profit
- There is a growing need to measure intangible aspects of performance
 - Customer Service
 - Customer Retention





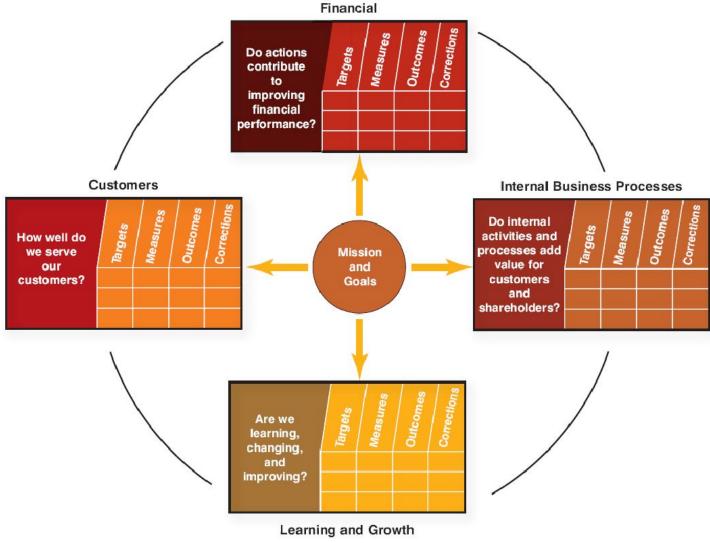
The Balanced Scorecard

- Comprehensive management control system that balances traditional financial measures with:
 - Customer Service
 - Internal Business Processes
 - Learning and Growth









SOURCES: Based on Robert S. Kaplan and David P. Norton, 'Using the Balanced Scorecard as a Strategic Management System', *Harvard Business Review* (January–February 1996): 75–85; and Chee W. Chow, Kamal M. Haddad and James E. Williamson, 'Applying the Balanced Scorecard to Small Companies', *Management Accounting* 79, no. 2 (August 1997): 21–27.



MANAGEMENT RICHARD L DAFT. MARTYN KENDRICK, NATALIA VERSHININA

Review

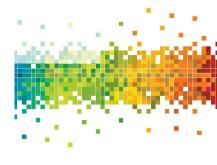
the

Scorecard



Steps of Feedback Control

- Establish Standards of Performance
- Measure Actual Performance
- Compare Performance to Standards
- ✓ Take Corrective Action

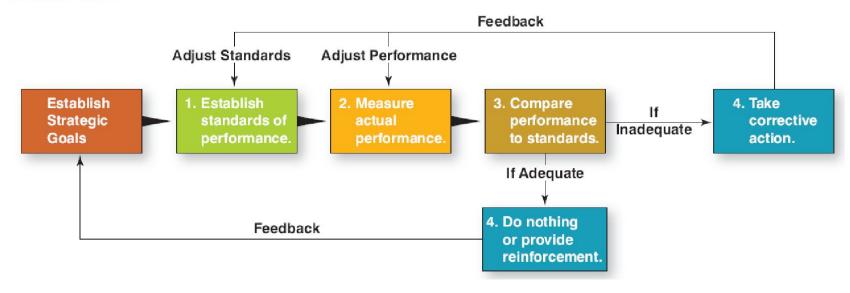






Feedback Control Model

Exhibit 19.2 Feedback Control Model









Open-Book Management

- Information sharing
- Teamwork
- Encourage active participation
- Commitment to goals
- Open-book management allows employees to see for themselves—through charts, computer printouts, meetings, and so forth—the financial condition of the company



