Chapter Two: Sales Department Structure

What is Structure?

Structure is how a sales department is organized. An organizational structure is defined by reporting hierarchies, titles, and job descriptions. A sales department is organized so that it can carry out its mission (maximize revenue), achieve its primary goal (get more than its fair share of business), and execute effectively on its primary sales and sales management strategies.

In general, as set forth in *What Really Works*, there are three basic rules for structure:
1. Build and maintain a fast, flexible organization.
2. Eliminate redundant organizational layers and bureaucratic structures and behaviors. Simplify, simplify, simplify.
3. Put your best people closest to the action and keep your frontline stars in place.

I'll keep these rules in mind as I lay out some organizational options for media sales departments, because too often sales departments grow like Topsy (they don't know how they do it, but they just get big, rigid, and complicated) and break they all three of the above rules.

Why Structure Follows Strategy

Structure follows strategy because how a media sales department is structured depends on the media firm's mission, goals, objectives, and strategies. Remember from the previous chapters, those objectives and strategies are:

Objectives
1. To get results for customers
2. To develop new business
3. To retain and increase current business
4. To increase customer loyalty

Primary Sales Strategies
1. Sell solutions to advertising problems
2. Reinforce the value of advertising and of your medium
3. Create value for your product
4. Become the preferred supplier
5. Innovate

Primary Sales Management Strategies
1. Demand pricing vs. supply pricing
2. Sell for share vs. sell for rate approach
3. Commodity vs. differentiated approach
4. Concentrate on available business (reactive) vs. concentrate on new business (proactive)
5. Concentrate on agencies vs. concentrate on direct/retail business
6. Simple, single unit pricing vs. complex packages approach
7. Traditional vs. Innovative approach
8. Single-medium vs. cross-platform approach
9. Results- and solutions-oriented vs. numbers-oriented approach

You're beginning to see how complex structuring decisions can be. So far, I have identified 20 variables that must be considered when making a decision on how to organize a sales department. And there are more.

Customer-Oriented or Product-Oriented Structure

In some media sales organizations, sales management decides in favor of a *customer-oriented structure*, others on a *product-oriented structure*.

Customer-oriented structure. Some sales staffs are organized by types of customers. For example, a local television station might have a national sales team, an agency sales team, and a retail sales team. Within those teams accounts would be further assigned by customer, for instance a salesperson might have a list that included a local car dealer, a bank, a hospital, and several advertising agencies.

Another customer-oriented structure is to organize a sales force by *category*. Newspapers and magazine sales departments are typically organized by categories such as fashion, cosmetics, jewelry, automotive, and retail, for example. Most large, Interactive sales departments are organized by categories, or verticals. The advantage of organizing by category/verticals is that the salespeople in each category become experts in that category and don't have to have in-depth knowledge of many categories of business. It allows them to be more knowledgeable about a customer's businesses, about a narrow range of a business's competitors, to get closer to customers, and to be more in tune with their assigned industry's trends.

However, sales managers at those radio and television stations that sell primarily to agencies, believe the drawback of organizing by category is that advertising agencies don't like the system because it means that if an agency has accounts in several categories, then several salespeople would call on the agency. Generally, agencies prefer that one salesperson call on them from a media organization. Because traditionally magazines and newspapers organize by category, agencies tend to accept the practice (often reluctantly) of having several people calling on them from one organization. Interactive sales departments and online ad networks often use both structures – an agency staff and a category staff that often make calls together in some situations.

Another factor affecting a decision to structure by category is an organization's sales compensation system (see Chapter 6 – Execution, for more on compensation systems). Local radio and television stations typically pay salespeople based on some sort of commission system in which commissions are directly related to the amount of revenue a salesperson produces, which rewards individual sales performance. In sales organizations that reward individual performance, category assignments are rare because the majority of business in local television, cable, and radio comes from just a few categories, especially car dealers (up until 2009), and a salesperson that was assigned the automotive category would be the highest paid salesperson by far (until 2009 when Verizon became the number-one most advertised brand). Such an arrangement would cause rage and mutiny among the other salespeople whose income potential would be substantially reduced.

Category assignments work better in sales organizations in which cooperation and team selling are rewarded and compensation systems are based on making budget or involve a pool system (see Chapter 6 for definitions). For example, if salespeople are paid a bonus on the basis of making a revenue budget (or an objective, goal, or target) regardless of the amount of revenue involved, then having a big revenue-producing category is not critical to a salesperson's income.

Product-oriented structure. Some sales staffs are organized by product. For example, a television network might have a prime time sales team, a daytime sales team, a late night sales team, and sports sales team. Account assignments within each team could be made by customer or by category. In network television and network cable and in local television, accounts are typically assigned by agency. In a newspaper like the *New York Times* with multiple products such as the daily paper, the Sunday paper, and the *New York Times Magazine*, the sales staff is structured by product and then by category within product teams.

Span of Control

Another factor that must be considered when making a decision on the best way to structure a sales force is *span of control*, which consists of six variables: job complexity, job scope, necessary interaction, salesperson experience, salesperson personality, and sales manager experience.

Span of Control. Span of control means, in essence, the number of people who report to a manager. The concept of span of control was first articulated in 1933 by V.A. Graicunas and expanded by Lyndall F. Urwick in a 1956 *Harvard Business Review* article titled "The Manager's Span of Control."[1]

Graicunas wrote the there was overwhelming evidence in favor of limiting a manager's span of control. One of the reasons for limiting a manager's span of control was people's limited span of attention, which was reinforced by research at that time suggesting that people could deal with no more than six digits. Later research, primarily by Bell Labs when it was still part of AT&T, indicated that seven was the maximum number of digits or ideas an average person could deal with or remember, thus confirming psychology's rule of thumb "five plus or minus two" (see *Media Selling*, Chapter 10 – Generating Proposals).

Graicunas wrote, "One of the surest sources of delay and confusion is to allow any superior to be directly responsible for the control of too many subordinates."[2] Urwick was even stronger when he wrote, "There is noting which rots morale more quickly and more completely than poor communication and indecisiveness—the feeling that those in authority do not know their own minds. And there is no condition which more quickly produces a sense of indecision among subordinates more effectively hampers communication than being responsible to a superior who has too wide a span of control."[3]

Both authors noted the pressures from top management to increase the span of control: (1) The tendency of people to want to report directly to the boss, whomever that might be, (2) the tendency to build empires, (3) the pressure to reduce costs of management overhead, (4) a desire to shorten the chain of command and flatten an organizational structure, (5) extending the span of control necessarily flattens the organization and drives authority and responsibility downward, which are popular with those who want to democratize a company, and (6) the existence in well-

run companies of spans of control larger than the five or six recommended by the span-of-control literature invalidates the concept of limiting the span of control.[4]

Urwick, in his *Harvard Business Review* article, attempted to counter the above arguments for expanding a manager's span of control by pointing out that the benefits of flattening an organization, forcing authority and initiative downward, and reducing costs had to weighed against the costs of confusion and indecision that accompany a span of control that is too broad.[5]

So, the fundamental question is how many is too many. Graicunas and Urwick both cited General Sir Ian Hamilton, who, in 1922, wrote," The nearer we approach the supreme head of the whole organization, the more we ought to work towards groups of three; the closer we get to the foot of the whole organization, the more we work towards groups of six."[6]

Graicunas suggested that the maximum number of people who should report to a manager was five or, in most cases, four. These numbers were tempered with considerations of the "scope and scale" of the work involved.[7] To show that there is an exponential growth in complexity as the span of control increases, Graicunas created mathematical formulas to calculate the degree of complexity. He described three basic types of relationships:

1. Direct single relationships between superior and individual subordinates
   a. Let's say that Tom is the manager and Dick and Jane are the salespeople. Single relationships would be Tom to Dick and Tom to Jane.
2. Cross relationships between individual subordinates
   a. Dick to Jane and Jane to Dick
3. Direct group relationships between superior and combinations of subordinates.[8]
   a. Tom to Dick, with Jane present; and Tom to Jane with Dick present

"Superior" and "subordinates" are Graicunas's words, not mine; they are too hierarchical for me. I prefer "associate," not even "direct report," which I hear a lot in businesses today.

Table 2.1 shows Graicunas's formula applied to combinations of relationships.

Table 2.1

Kind of Relationship	Number of Relationships: 2 People	3 People	5 People	7 People	9 People
Direct single relationships	2	3	5	7	9
Cross relationships	2	6	20	42	72
Direct group relationships	2	9	75	441	2,295
Total direct single and cross relationships	4	9	25	49	81
Total direct single and group relationships	4	12	80	448	2,304
Total direct and cross relationships	6	18	100	490	2,376

In the above table, a team of one manager and two associates would involve relationships among three people. A team of five people would involve relationships among a manager and four people, and so on.

So, looking at the above table we can ask, "How many is too many when it comes to a sales manager's span of control?" The answer is, of course, "It depends." It is a judgment call that is affected by the following variables:

1. Job complexity
2. Job scope
3. Necessary interaction
4. Salesperson experience
5. Salesperson personality
6. Sales manager experience

Job complexity. Job complexity depends on three factors, the *type of transaction/deal*, *customer proximity,* and *number of categories*.

Some sales jobs are little more than handling relatively simple, small transactions, such as selling a classified ad in a newspaper, and can be handled on the telephone in a single transaction. Other sales jobs, such as selling big deals in the Interactive medium, in network television, or selling cross-platform deals are very complicated and must be handled in many negotiating sessions with several customer and agency representatives, even a buying committee. Such deals can take up to six months to close and require a great deal of preparation and support staff.

If retail customers are located in close proximity, say within a few miles of a newspaper's office, then that sales job does not take much travel and is not as complicated as sales jobs that require travel to customers in different regions of the United States or even overseas.

Job scope. Job scope depends on at least three factors, the *type of product*, the *type of customer*, and the *buying cycle*.

Some sales jobs have a narrow focus on a single, easy-to-understand, and easy-to-explain media product, such as radio advertising, and require little or no preparation or support staff. On the other hand, some sales jobs, such as cross-platform selling, which might include four or five different media, have a wide scope and high degree of difficulty, and, thus, require considerable preparation and support staff.

Some sales jobs, such as selling local television, might involve a narrow scope of calling on a customer such as an agency media buyer who buys for several advertisers, which requires minimal support staff. Some sales jobs might involve a wide scope and require calling on several levels of an advertising agency, such as a buyer, a media planner, a media director, and a creative director for a single customer, and several levels at the client, such as the advertising director, the senior vice president of marketing, or even the CEO of the company. These sales jobs require more support staff.

Some sales jobs involve a long buying cycle, such as selling annual contracts in magazines or newspapers. Other sales jobs involve short buying cycles, such as selling for a local radio station, and might require calling on, for example, a retailer who buys on a weekly or bi-weekly basis, and each potential sale involves negotiating in which multiple competitors are vying for the same piece of business.

Necessary interaction. Some sales jobs require minimum interaction between a manager and salesperson, and some require and frequent, continual, and lengthy interaction.

A remote salesperson in a one- or two-person regional office who sells a straightforward product that requires little negotiating and few pricing decisions might need to interact with a sales manager once every other week. On the other hand, a salesperson dealing with short business cycle, recurring, highly negotiated pricing might have to interact with a sales manager three or four times a day.

Salesperson experience. Some salespeople have a great deal of sales experience and, therefore, need a minimum amount of supervision, coaching, and training. A sales manager managing a sales staff made up of experienced, knowledgeable salespeople can have broader span of control than a sales manager who deals with inexperienced salespeople who require training can.

Salesperson personality. Some salespeople crave independence and autonomy and, therefore, need less attention than those who are high-maintenance and require continual and frequent reassurance, stroking, and attention. Obviously, it is desirable to have a minimum of high-maintenance salespeople on a staff, but in some situations it cannot be avoided, especially those in which a sales manager is new.

Sales manager experience. Some sales managers have a great deal of experience, are well organized, and have developed the discipline to set the right priorities and get the right things done. Such experienced sales managers can have a broader span of control than inexperienced sales managers can.

The Wisdom of Teams

One way to keep a sales organization flat (reduce the number of levels between a salesperson and top management) is to use self-managed teams. Sales teams also are becoming more prevalent as media selling becomes more complex, especially in the area of cross-platform selling. The seminal work on teams is a book by Jon R. Katzenbach and Douglas K. Smith titled *The Wisdom of Teams: Creating the High-Performance Organization.* [9]

Katzenbach and Smith define a team as "a small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable." The two authors, professors at the Harvard Business School, conducted extensive research on what makes teams effective. Following is a summary of their findings. [10]

1. **A demanding performance challenge tends to create a team.** The hunger for performance is far more important to team success than team-building exercises, special incentives, or team leaders with ideal profiles. In fact, teams often form around such challenges without any help or support from management. Conversely, potential teams without such challenges usually fail to become teams.
2. **The disciplined application of "team basics" is often overlooked**. Team basics include size, purpose, goals, skills, approach, and accountability. Paying rigorous attention to these is what creates the conditions necessary for team performance. A deficiency in any of these basics will derail the team, yet most potential teams inad-

vertently ignore one or more of them.

3. **Team performance opportunities exist in all parts of the organization.** Team basics apply to many different groups, including teams that recommend things, such as task forces, teams that make or do things, such as sales teams, and teams that run things, such as management teams at various levels. Each of these types of teams faces unique challenges. But the commonalities are more important than the differences when striving for team performance. Unfortunately, most organizations recognize team opportunities in only one or two of these categories, leaving a lot of team performance potential untapped.

4. **Most organizations intrinsically prefer individual over group (team) accountability.** Job descriptions, compensation schemes, career paths, and performance evaluations focus on individuals. Teams are often an afterthought in the "nice to have" category. Our culture emphasizes individual accomplishments and makes people uncomfortable trusting their career aspirations to outcomes dependent on the performance of others. "If you want to get something done right, do it yourself" is a common belief. Even the thought of shifting emphasis from individual accountability to team accountability makes most people uneasy.

5. **Companies with strong performance standards seem to spawn more "real teams" than companies that promote teams per se.** Teams do not become teams just because we call them teams or send them to team-building workshops. In fact, many frustrations with broad-gauged movements toward team-based organizations spring from just such imbalances. Real teams form best when management makes clear performance demands.

6. **High-performance teams are extremely rare.** Despite the attention teams have received in the last ten years, the true high-performance team—that is, one that outperforms all other similar teams, and outperforms expectations given its composition—is very rare. This is largely because a high degree of personal commitment differentiates people on high-performance teams from people on other teams. This kind of commitment cannot be managed, although it can be exploited and emulated to the great advantage of other teams and the broader organization.

7. **Hierarchy and teams go together almost as well as teams and performance.** Teams integrate and enhance formal structures and processes. Hierarchical structures and basic processes are essential to large organizations and need not be threatened by teams. Teams are the best way to integrate across structural boundaries and to both design and energize core processes. Those who see teams a replacement for hierarchy are missing the true potential of teams.

8. **Teams naturally integrate performance and learning.** We have yet to meet anyone who disagrees with the aspiration implied in the "learning organization." Yet, many people also express concerns over how to balance short-term performance emphasis with long-term institution building. Teams do just that. By translating longer-term purposes into definable performance goals then developing the skills needed to meet those goals, learning not only occurs in teams but also endures.

9. **Teams are the primary unit of performance for increasing numbers of organizations.** Managers cannot master the opportunities and challenges now confronting them without emphasizing teams far more than ever before. The performance challenges that large companies in every industry—for example, customer service, technological change, competitive threats, and environmental constraints—

demand the kind of responsiveness, speed, on-line customization, and quality that is beyond the reach of individual performance. Teams can bridge this gap.

In their research Katzenbach and Smith discovered that in many organizations there was considerable resistance to establishing teams. Following are the reasons they found for organizational resistance.[11]

1. **Lack of conviction.** Everyone involved must believe in teams, especially at the top.
2. **Personal discomfort and risk.** Even though most people understand team performance in team sports, many people are unwilling to submit their own fate to the performance of a team.
3. **Weak organizational performance ethics.** The team must have an organization that has a culture of relentless focus on performance, which has a performance-driven purpose. Performance-driven cultures will be covered in depth in Chapter 3 – Sales Culture.

Katzenbach and Smith recommend that managers ask a series of questions to make teams evaluate the effectiveness of their teams:

1. **Are teams small enough in number?**
   a. Can you convene easily and frequently?
   b. Can you communicate with all members easily and frequently?
   c. Are your discussions open and interactive for all members?
   d. Does each member understand the others' roles and skills?
   e. Do you need more people to achieve your ends?
   f. Are sub-teams possible or necessary?
2. **Are there adequate levels of complementary skills?**
   a. Are the four necessary categories of skills represented by team members?
      i. Functional skills, such as order processing, organizational and time-management skills, computer applications skills (Word, Excel, PowerPoint, and sales force automation)
      ii. Leadership skills, including problem-solving and decision-making
      iii. Sales skills
      iv. Interpersonal, cooperative skills
   b. Are any skill areas that are critical to team performance missing or underrepresented?
   c. Are the members, individually and collectively, willing to spend the time to help themselves and others learn and develop skills?
   d. Can management introduce new or supplemental skills as needed?
3. **Does a team have a truly meaningful purpose?**
   a. Does it constitute a broader, deeper aspiration than just team goals?
   b. Is it a team purpose as opposed to a broader organizational purpose or just one individual's purpose, such as the leader's purpose?
   c. Do all members understand and articulate the purpose the same way?
   d. Do members define the purpose vigorously in discussions with outsiders?
   e. Do members frequently refer to the team purpose and explore its implications?
   f. Does the purpose contain themes that are inspiring and memorable?
   g. Do members feel the purpose is important and exciting?

4. **Does the team have specific goals and objectives?**
    a. Are there team goals and objectives as opposed to broader organizational goals or just one individual's goals, such as the leader's goals?
    b. Are the goals and objectives of the team clear, simple, and measurable?
    c. Are the goals and objectives realistic as well as ambitious? Do they allow small wins along the way?
    d. Do the goals and objectives call for a concrete set of team work-products?
    e. Is the relative importance and priority of the goals and objectives clear to all members?
    f. Do all members agree with the goals and objectives, their relative importance, and the way in which their achievement will be measured?
5. **Does the team have a clear working approach and decision process?**
    a. Is the approach concrete, clear, and really understood and agreed to by everybody? Will it result in achievement of the objectives?
    b. Will it capitalize on and enhance the skills of all members? Is consistent with other demands on the members?
    c. Does it require all members to contribute equivalent amounts real work?
    d. Does it provide for open interaction, fact-based problem solving, and results-based evaluation?
    e. Do all members articulate the approach in the same way?
    f. Does it provide for modification and improvement over time?
    g. Are fresh input and perspectives systematically sought and added, for example, through information and analysis, new members, and senior sponsors?
6. **Does the team have a sense of mutual accountability?**
    a. Is the team individually and jointly accountable for the team's purpose, goals and objectives, approach, and results?
    b. Can the team and does the team measure progress against specific objectives?
    c. Do all members feel responsible for all measures?
    d. Are the team members clear on what they are individually responsible for and what they are jointly responsible for?
    e. Is there a sense that "only the team can fail"?

Katzenbach and Smith recommend eight approaches managers can use to build a culture of team performance.[12]
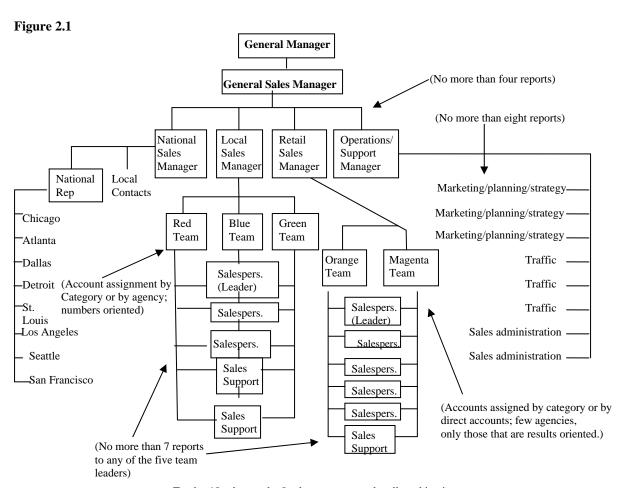
Eight Approaches to Building Team Performance
1. Establish urgency and direction.
2. Select members based on skills and skill potential, not personalities.
3. Pay particular attention to first meetings and actions.
4. Set some clear rules of behavior, especially cooperation.
5. Set and seize upon a few immediate performance-oriented tasks and goals.
6. Challenge the group regularly with fresh facts and information.
7. Spend lots of time together.
8. Exploit the power of positive feedback, recognition, and reward.

In Chapter 6 – Execution, there is an example of a sales team charter that contains specific, measurable objectives, tasks, and timetables.

Example of a Sales Department Structure

Figure 2.1 shows an example of a sales department structure that takes advantage of teams to flatten the design and limits the span of control. It could be a suitable structure for a high-rated radio station in a top-three market or a television station in a top-ten market (New York in the example). Also, with a few changes in titles and function, the structure could work in a newspaper, cable system, national consumer magazine, or major Interactive company such as AOL or Yahoo.

Figure 2.1

General Manager

General Sales Manager

(No more than four reports)

(No more than eight reports)

National Sales Manager | Local Sales Manager | Retail Sales Manager | Operations/ Support Manager

National Rep | Local Contacts

Marketing/planning/strategy

Marketing/planning/strategy

Marketing/planning/strategy

Chicago
Atlanta
Dallas
Detroit
St. Louis
Los Angeles
Seattle
San Francisco

Red Team | Blue Team | Green Team

Orange Team | Magenta Team

(Account assignment by Category or by agency; numbers oriented)

Salespers. (Leader)

Salespers.

Salespers.

Sales Support

Sales Support

Salespers. (Leader)

Salespers.

Salespers.

Salespers.

Salespers.

Sales Support

Traffic

Traffic

Traffic

Sales administration

Sales administration

(No more than 7 reports to any of the five team leaders)

(Accounts assigned by category or by direct accounts; few agencies, only those that are results oriented.)

Total = 18 salespeople, 8 sales support people; all working in teams

Flat organization. Note in the example above that there are only three managerial levels between a salesperson and the general manager and only two levels between a salesperson and the general sales manager, and those levels include team leaders.

Span of control. Note that there are several spans of control. Four people report to the general sales manager, the national sales manager has to communicate with eight national rep offices; team leaders each have four people to work with, and eight people report to the operations/sales

support manager. The number of salespeople in a sales team can increase up to seven, but no more. It's better to add teams than to increase the number of people in a team past four or five. Also, if any of the three groups (marketing/planning/strategy, traffic, and sales administration) gets larger than three people, they should be formed into teams with the team leaders reporting to the operations/sales support manager.

By reducing the span of control for local sales managers, it frees them from the administrative work of trying to manage 18 salespeople, which, more importantly, it gives them more time to deal with customers. It puts into practice the rule: "Put your best people closest to the action and keep your frontline stars in place."

Team names. Note that the teams have names of colors. It's important not to name teams after people or the leader (people change) or with hierarchical letters, numbers, or terms such as A, B, or C or 1, 2, or 3 or gold, silver, or bronze. Such labels make the B, 2, or silver teams feel second rate or second class. Choose names that make all teams seem equal in status.

Teams. Note that the red, blue, and green teams, which report to the local sales manager, have three salespeople and two sales support people in them and that the two teams that report to the retail sales manager have four salespeople and just one sales support person. This difference reflects the complexity of the two types of jobs. Team leaders are not managers in a real sense that people in the teams actually report to them; team leaders coordinate the efforts of team members, call meetings, and chair the meetings. There are several ways to structure teams. For example, teams could consist of several experienced salespeople who need little supervision and training. In such cases it's a good idea to rotate team leaders about every six months so that one person doesn't get overburdened or too managerial (bossy). Or, teams could consist of one senior, experienced salesperson and several inexperienced ones who need training and supervision. Team leaders in these situations could be in training and under observation for promotion to a management job.

Flexibility. In all of the above situations and structures, it's critical to remain flexible and change as customers and competitive conditions change. Flexibility puts in practice the rule: "Build and maintain a fast, flexible organization." Too many media sales department structures stay in place because "it's always been done that way."

Zero-Based Structuring

At least once a year, at budget time, a media company should examine the structure of its sales department and ask the following questions, after, of course, conducting a Customer Satisfaction Survey:

Sales Department Structure Checklist
1. Is our current sales department structure fast and flexible?
2. Can we make it simpler?
3. Are our best people closest to the action and our frontline stars in place?
4. Are we easy to sell for and easy to buy from?
5. Do our customers know whom to call and who services them?
6. Does our current structure support our sales and sales management strategies and current market conditions?

7. Should we have a customer-oriented or a product-oriented structure in order to serve our customers more effectively?
8. Is the span of control for each manager small enough to allow them time to coach their people and spend time with customers?
9. Are we utilizing teams?
10. If we have teams, is the structure of the teams right for our current sales strategy and current market conditions?

If media sales departments don't rethink their strategies and structures and remain flexible and responsive, they are apt to find themselves disintermediated by online auctioning software that enables customers to eliminate salespeople and bid online for the advertising they want, as they are doing now with keywords on Google. Perhaps three hundred and fifty thousand marketers will invest perhaps $10 billion in 2000 for search-result advertising on Google, and other media are sure to follow this auction model.

Test Yourself
1. What are the three *What Really Works Rules* for structure?
2. Give an example of a product-oriented media sales department structure.
3. How many total and cross relationships are there when nine people are involved?
4. What are the six variables in making span of control decisions?
5. According to Katzenbach and Smith, what are the three reasons why organizations resist establishing teams?
6. What are the eight approaches to building team performance?
7. Why should teams not be named after the team leader or numbers such as 1, 2, 3?

Case Studies
1. "Ad Department Reorganization" case in "Case Studies" link on www.charleswarner.us
2. "KQRZ's Split Sales Staff" case in "Case Studies" link on www.charleswarner.us.
3. "The Unorthodox Owner" case in "Case Studies" link on www.charleswarner.us.

Project
Create a team-based organizational chart like in Figure 2.1 for your sales organization, or one with which you are familiar, that has as narrow a span of control as you can. Brainstorm to come up with various structural alternatives.

References
Jon R. Katzenbach and Douglas K. Smith. 1993. *The Wisdom of Teams: Creating the High-Performance Organization.* Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
Fred Nickols. 2000. http://home.att.net/~nickols/graicunas.htm

Endnotes

[1] Fred Nickols. 2000. http://home.att.net/~nickols/graicunas.htm. November 15, 2003.
[2] Ibid.
[3] Ibid.
[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

[6] Ibid.

[7] Ibid.

[8] Ibid.

[9] Jon R. Katzenbach and Douglas K. Smith. 1993. *The Wisdom of Teams: Creating the High-Performance Organization.* Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

[10] Ibid.

[11] Ibid.

[12] Ibid.