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The vision of the journals is to provide an academic platform to scholars all over the world to publish their novel, original, empirical and high quality research work. It propose to encourage research relating to latest trends and practices in international business, finance, banking, service marketing, human resource management, corporate governance, social responsibility and emerging paradigms in allied areas of management including social sciences , education and information & technology. It intends to reach the researcher's with plethora of knowledge to generate a pool of research content and propose problem solving models to address the current and emerging issues at the national and international level. Further, it aims to share and disseminate the empirical research findings with academia, industry, policy makers, and consultants with an approach to incorporate the research recommendations for the benefit of one and all.

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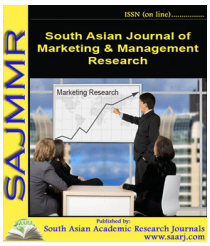

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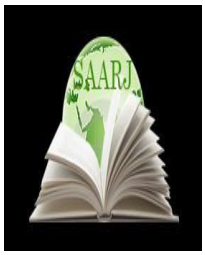

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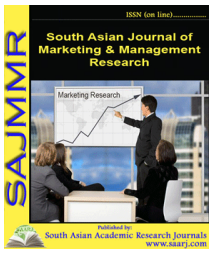

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ORGANIZING PROCESS MEANING AND DEFINITION

Mr. Mrinmoy Biswas*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-biswas@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The process of organising and coordinating tasks, assets, and personnel inside an organisation in order to successfully and successfully accomplish its objectives is referred to as organising in the context of management and organisational behaviour. An overview of organising is given in this essay, along with an examination of its definition and significance in the subject of management. The primary organising components are covered, including organisational structure, job division, coordination techniques, and decision-making procedures. The research also looks at other organisational strategies, including matrix, network, functional, and divisional structures. This study emphasises the significance of organising in improving communication, cooperation, and productivity inside organisations by analysing case studies and empirical data.

KEYWORDS: *Authority, Coordination, Functional, Line, Organization, Staff, Structure.*

INTRODUCTION

The managerial task of organising comes after planning. It is a process that involves the coordination and fusion of human, material, and financial resources. To get outcomes, it's crucial to use all three resources. As a consequence, organisational function aids in achieving outcomes, which are crucial for a business to operate effectively. Chester Barnard asserts that organising is a function through which the concern is capable of defining the role positions, the connected occupations, and the coordination between authority and responsibility. Consequently, a manager must constantly plan in order to achieve goals[1]–[3]. A manager uses the following steps to carry out organising duties. The first step is to identify all of the activities that must be carried out in a concern. For instance, setting up accounts, making sales, maintaining records, monitoring quality, managing inventories, etc. All of these tasks must be organised into groups and classes. Departmentally organising the activities. The management attempts to merge and organise related and comparable activities into departments or units in this phase. Departmentation is the process of breaking up an organisation into separate sections and departments. Classifying the authority.

After the departments are established, the management wants to categorise the managers' authority and its scope. Hierarchy refers to the process of assigning administrative roles a rank. Top management is involved in policy formation, middle management is involved in departmental supervision, and lower-level management is involved in foreman supervision. Clarifying authority aids in improving a company's operational efficiency. This aids in improving a company's operational efficiency. This helps to prevent wasting of time, money, and effort. It also helps to prevent duplication or overlapping of activities, which makes a company's operations run more smoothly[4]–[7]. Coordination of power and responsibility Different groups

form relationships to allow for easy interaction in the direction of the accomplishment of the organisational aim. Each person is made aware of his or her authority, and they are aware of who they must obey, who holds them responsible, and to whom they must answer. All staff are informed of the organisational framework, which has been set out clearly.

Importance of Organizing Function

An organisational structure is a web of connections that divides work into departments and units. This division of labour promotes specialisation in a variety of important occupations. Organisational structure aids in matching the appropriate people to the right roles by assigning individuals to different departments based on their education, experience, and skill levels. This aids in accurately identifying occupations and defines each person's position. The organisational structure aids in making each manager's job and position clear (status quo). To prevent power abuse, this may be accomplished by making sure that each management understands his or her authority and how to apply it. Managers operate more effectively when their roles and duties are clearly defined. This promotes more productivity.

Coordination

Organisation is a tool for fostering coordination across various company units. It establishes distinct links between roles and guarantees interpersonal cooperation. Higher level managers exerting their influence over associated tasks performed by lower-level managers contributes to the harmony of the workplace. Only when there is a formal link between the two can authority responsibility relationships be successful. The coordination of power and responsibility is crucial for an organization's seamless operation. Coordinating between various connections is necessary. Making it clear that each authority has a final duty is important. According to a proverb, Authority without responsibility breeds ineffective behaviour, and responsibility without authority breeds ineffectiveness in people. Consequently, coordination of power and responsibility is crucial[8]–[10].

Effective Management

Determining the work roles is made easier by the organisational structure. Different supervisors' responsibilities are made clear. Work division helps to attain specialisation. All of this results in efficient and successful administration. The development of a business is entirely dependent on how effectively and smoothly it operates. Clarifying the managers' roles, coordinating power and responsibility, and putting an emphasis on specialisation are all ways to increase efficiency. Additionally, a business may diversify if its potential increases. Only when the organisational structure is clearly established is this feasible. This is made feasible by some formal structure.Job descriptions are made clear by organisational structure. Each manager's responsibilities are quite clear. It is feasible to coordinate. Therefore, having clear authority naturally boosts mental contentment and, as a result, a feeling of security in a situation. This is crucial for a satisfied workplace. When responsibilities and tasks are clearly defined and everyone is given autonomy in their job, a manager has enough room to hone his skills and expand his knowledge. A management prepares themselves to make autonomous judgements that may pave the way for the adoption of innovative production methods. Only with a certain organisational structure is it feasible to have this kind of flexibility in introducing new modifications to how a business is conducted.

DISCUSSION

Principles of Organizing

Guidelines for Organisation If managers are given specific instructions on how to make choices and take action, organising may be done effectively. The following organisation principles may be utilised by a manager to plan effectively. The Specialisation Principal. A concern's whole workload should be distributed among its subordinates based on their qualifications, aptitudes, and capabilities, according to the guiding concept. Specialisation is made possible by the division of labour, which leads to efficient organisation.The Functional Definition Principle. This idea states that all of a company's functions should be fully and precisely explained to the management and employees. This may be achieved by outlining the roles, responsibilities, levels of authority, and connections between individuals. Clarifying authority-responsibility connections enables coordination, which in turn enables successful organisation. For instance, any employee associated with a department should have a thorough understanding of the fundamental responsibilities of manufacturing, marketing, and finance as well as the authority-responsibility connections inside each of these departments. Organisation is made more effective when the link between authority and responsibility is clear.

Span of Control/Supervision Principles. This theory states that a manager may successfully oversee and control a certain number of workers, known as the span of control or span of supervision. This rule states that a manager must be able to oversee the quantity of workers who report to him. You have the option of selecting between a broad or a small span to make this selection. Two different spans of control exist. A manager may efficiently monitor and control a large group of people at once with a wide range of influence. The characteristics of this span are as follows. Lower supervision overhead costs. Employees who respond promptly. Better coordination, better supervision, and better communication are among the other factors. appropriate for repeated tasks.A manager may successfully and efficiently supervise a large number of subordinates at once if they fall within this range. The labour and power are distributed among numerous subordinates, and a manager doesn't oversee and control a sizable number of individuals who report to him, according to the narrow span of control theory. According to a constrained scope, the manager only oversees a limited number of workers at once. The attributes are:

i. Narrow spans are more beneficial for activities requiring strict control and supervision, such as handicrafts, ivory work, and other tasks requiring craftsmanship.

ii. Co-ordination is difficult to be achieved.

iii. Communication gaps can come.

iv. Messages can be distorted.

v. Specialization work can be achieved.

Line Structure

The simplest and oldest technique of administrative organisation is line organisation. According to this kind of organisation, power is distributed across an organisation. From top to bottom, the chain of command is followed. This explains why this sort of administrative organisation is referred to as a scalar organisation, meaning the scalar chain of command is an integral aspect of it. In this kind of organisation, there are no communication or coordination lulls. The chain of command operates uniformly. It is the most straightforward kind of organisation. The chain of

command runs from top to bottom. These organisations do not provide specialised or supporting services. The ability of the line officers to make choices on their own accord within their own domains allows for the maintenance of unified control. This kind of organisation always aids in improving communication effectiveness and stabilising a situation.

Line Organisation

Advantages

This is the simplest and most traditional way of administration. Scalar chain of command that runs from top to bottom in these organisations maintains the superior- subordinate connection. Because the control is focused on only one individual, he is given independence to make his own choices. Better discipline is ensured through centralised control. Each line executive in this style of organisation has a fixed authority, power, and fixed responsibility associated with each authority.The highest authority and the lowest authority work in tandem. Line officials are autonomous and have flexibility in making decisions since the authority connections are transparent. Line executives are happy because of this freedom. Quick decision- making is possible because of the elements of fixed responsibility and command unity.

Positive aspects of Line Organisation

1. Over Dependence: Decisions made by the line executive are carried out all the way to the bottom. As a consequence, queue officials are overused

2. Lack of Specialisation: Specialised roles are not possible in a line organisation since it operates in a scalar chain from top to bottom. For instance, line managers execute their choices in the same manner regardless of expert advise.

3. Poor Communication: The highest authority's policies and plans are implemented in the same manner. There is no room for conversation on the other end of this. The subordinate authorities do not relay their grievances and recommendations to the higher authorities. There is one- way communication, therefore.

4. Lack of Coordination: In certain cases, incorrect judgements made by line officials are carried down and carried out in the same manner. As a result, there is less effective coordination.

5. Power Leadership: Line managers often abuse their positions of power. As a result, the company develops a monopoly and dictatorial leadership.

Line and Staff Structure

A variation of line organisation, line and staff organisation is more intricate than line organisation. This administrative structure states that by assigning staff supervisors and staff experts who are associated to the line authority, specialised and supporting activities are attached to the line of command. Line executives always retain the right to exercise command, whereas staff supervisors assist, counsel, and advise the line executives. An employee representative is the Managing Director's Personal Secretary.

Line and staff organisation characteristics

There are two categories of employees:

1. Managing Director's PA and Marketing Manager's Secretary are examples of staff assistants. Staff Supervisor- Operation Control Manager, Quality Controller, and PRO.

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2. It is a balance between line and staff organisation. It is more intricate than what is obvious.

3. Line and staff organisations implement specialisation and the division of labour.

4. Staff experts are assigned to several functional areas that make up the whole organisation.

5. Efficiency is possible thanks to the benefits of specialisation.

6. In a matter, there are two concurrent streams of authority: Line authority is followed by staff authority.

7. The line executive maintains overall authority, with employees acting solely as advisors.

Benefits of Staff and Line Organisation

1. Relief for Line Executives: In a line and staff organisation, the work is divided between the two by the guidance and counselling given to the line executives. The line executive is freed of having to divide their attention among several tasks and can focus on carrying out plans.

2. Professional Advice: When necessary, the line and staff organisation help the line executive get professional counsel. Line officers may focus on plan implementation while staff specialists handle planning and investigations pertaining to various topics.

3. The benefit of Specialisation: Line and staff organise the business into functional divisions by dividing it into two sorts of authorities. Every officer or official may then focus on their respective areas.

4. Better Coordination: Line and staff organisation via specialisation may help with better decision- making and focus stays in a small number of hands. As each official is focused on their own area of responsibility, this element aids in providing coordination to the task.The advantages of research and development are that line executives have time to implement strategies and make beneficial judgements for a concern thanks to the advice of specialised workers. This offers the line executive a lot of room to innovate and pursue research projects in those areas. Due to the availability of staff experts, this is achievable.

5. Training: The presence of staff experts and their knowledgeable counsel provides a foundation for line officials' training. Line executives are capable of paying careful attention when making decisions. This serves as their primary training ground.

6. Reasonable Choices: The level of specialisation attained by line employees' aids in providing cohesion. The queue official will take more intelligent decisions as a result of this connection

7. Unity of action: Unified control leads to unity of action. When coordination exists within the concern, control and its efficacy occur. All officials in the queue and staff authority have the freedom to choose their own courses of action. This effectively controls the whole business.

Benefits of **Staff and Line Organisation**

A lack of comprehension of the dual authority that exists in a lineand staff organisation. The two get confused as a consequence of this. Because of this, the employees are unable to identify their superiors. Therefore, a barrier to good running may be the comprehending difficulty. Inadequate guidance. The line official becomes used to the knowledgeable counsel of the staff. Sometimes

the staff expert will also make poor judgements for the line executive to take into account. The effective operation of the business may be impacted by this. Conflicts between the queue and staff.

The queue and staff are two authorities that are flowing simultaneously. Employees may feel distressed by the effects that designations and status have on their relationship- related feelings. This results in a reduction in coordination, which hinders the operation of a business. In accordance with employee issues, the worries must continue to pay their staff specialists well. This turns out to be expensive for a business with limited resources.Assumption of authority. The line official has the power of concern, but the staff does not like this since they are the ones doing the mental work.Employee steals the show. Higher returns are said to be a result of employee advise and counselling in a queue and staff concern. The queue authorities experience dissatisfaction, which gives rise to anxiety. For successful outcomes, line officials' satisfaction is crucial.

Functional Structure

To place the experts at the top of the organisation, functional organisation has been segmented. This organisation may be characterised as a structure in which functional departments are established to address business issues at different levels. Functional advice to various departments continues to be the exclusive purview of functional authorities. This promotes consistency and high-performance standards across all company departments. F.W. Taylor proposed the idea of functional organisation and advocated the hiring of experts to key roles. For instance, the useful head and Functional Structure to place the experts at the top of the organisation, functional organisation has been segmented. F.W. Taylor proposed the idea of functional organisation and advocated the hiring of experts to key roles. For instance, the useful head and F.W. Taylor proposed the idea of functional organisation and advocated the hiring of experts to key roles. For instance, the useful head andthe marketing director oversees the employees in his specific department throughout the whole company. This implies that supervisors working above them and a variety of professionals provide directions to subordinates.

Functioning Organisational Qualities

1. Specific organisational activities, such as operations, finance, marketing, and interpersonal connections, make up the whole of organisational activities.
2. A more complex kind of administrative organisation than the first two.
3. Line, staff, and function are the three authorities that exist.
4. Functional experts are assigned to each functional area and are given the power to make all decisions pertaining to the function anytime the function is carried out throughout the company.
5. The principle of unity of command, which is prevalent in line organisations, does not apply to such an organisation.

Advantages of functional Organisations

1. Specialisation: A more effective division of work leads to the specialisation of function and its benefits.

2. Effective Control: By separating mental from manual duties, management control is

simplified. The power is kept within specific bounds through checks and balances. It may be necessary to seek experts to evaluate the effectiveness of different parts.Greater efficiency is gained since each function only performs a small number of tasks.

3. Economy: Standardisation and specialisation together enable maximal output at low prices.

4. Expansion: Better control and supervision are made possible by the functional manager's extensive understanding.

Positive Qualities of Functional Organisation

1. Confusion: Operating the functional system is fairly difficult, particularly when done at low levels. Coordination becomes difficult as a result.

2. Lack of Coordination: When a worker is being controlled by several persons rather than just one, discipline becomes difficult to enforce. As a result, there is no unified command.

3. Difficulty in Establishing Responsibility: Responsibility is difficult to fix because of different authorities.

4. Conflicts: There could be disputes among supervisory staff members of comparable grades. They may not agree on every point.

5. Expensive: Keeping expert employees of the greatest calibre costs a company money.

CONCLUSION

In order to accomplish its objectives, an organisation must structure and coordinate its operations and resources by organising, a core managerial activity. It includes a number of things, including as organisational structure, job division, coordinating techniques, and decision- making procedures. The formal framework that specifies how duties, responsibilities, and functions are distributed and managed inside an organisation is referred to as the organisational structure. Depending on the size, complexity, and strategic goals of the organisation, several kinds of structures, such as functional, divisional, matrix, and network structures, provide certain benefits and drawbacks.The practise of allocating certain duties and responsibilities to people or groups inside the organisation is known as the division of labour. It facilitates specialisation, improves efficiency, and streamlines workflow, allowing staff members to gain knowledge in their specialised fields.

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THE POWER OF PLANNING: FUNCTION OF EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT

Ms. Leena George*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-leenageorge@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

In order to efficiently accomplish organisational goals, the planning roles of management include formulating objectives, choosing actions, and allocating resources. This essay explores the planning function's relevance in the area of management and gives an outline of it. Goal-setting, environmental analysis, strategy creation, and action planning are just a few of the essential planning components covered. The report also looks at other kinds of plans, including strategic, operational, and contingency plans. This study emphasises the value of planning in directing decision-making, enhancing organisational performance, and adjusting to changing conditions by examining case studies and empirical data.

KEYWORDS: *Action, Future, Goals, Management, Objective, Planning, Resources.*

INTRODUCTION

Planning entails determining the future courses of action to be taken while looking forward. It serves as a first step. It is a methodical process that chooses who, when, and how to carry out a certain task. Planning is the process of creating a specific schedule for future actions. The adage Well, plan is half done is true. Planning thus takes into account the organization's current and future physical and human resources in order to achieve effective coordination, contribution, and flawless adjustment. It is a fundamental management function that entails the creation of one or more comprehensive plans to establish the best possible equilibrium between demands or requirements and available resources[1]–[3]. Planning is a mental predisposition to do things in an orderly manner, to think before acting, and to act in the light of facts rather than guesses, claims Urwick. Planning is selecting the best option among alternatives to carry out various administrative tasks in order to attain defined objectives. Planning is deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, and who is to do it, claim Koontz & O'Donell. Between where we are and where we wish to go, planning fills the gap. It enables events to happen that otherwise would not be feasible.

Steps in Planning Function

The following phases are included in the planning function of management:

1. Setting of goals

a. Planning requires a methodical approach.

b. Setting goals and objectives is the first step in planning.

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c. Objectives provide a justification for engaging in diverse activities and point the direction of efforts.

d. In addition, goals direct managers' attention towards the desired outcomes.

e. In actuality, goals serve as the central focus of the planning process. As a result, goals should be presented in language that is clear, specific, and unambiguous. Otherwise, it is certain that the efforts would be ineffectual.

f. Objectives should ideally be described in quantitative terms. For instance, the number of persons employed, the amount paid, the number of units produced, etc. However, such an aim cannot be expressed in quantitative words, such as the efficacy of the people management or the performance of the quality control manager.

g. These objectives have to be described in qualitative terms. Therefore, goals should be realistic, palatable, doable, and attainable.

2. Construction of Planning Facilities

a. Planning assumptions are presumptions regarding the dynamic form of future occurrences.

b. They serve as a foundation for planning.

c. Determining where one tends to veer from the real plans and the reasons for such deviations is important for the establishment of planning premises.

d. It is to ascertain what barriers are in the path of the firm during operations.

e. The establishment of planning grounds is focused with taking actions that greatly minimise these barriers.

f. Planning locations may be indoors or outside. Internal factors include management labour relations, capital investment strategy, and management philosophy, among others. Internal conditions are within your control, however external conditions are out of your control. External conditions include socioeconomic, political, and economic developments.

3. Choosing a different line of action

a. Several different courses of action need to be taken into consideration once forecasts are available and premises are created.

b. For this reason, each and every choice will be assessed by evaluating its benefits and drawbacks in light of the organization's needs and the resources at hand.

c. Before making a decision, each alternative's benefits, drawbacks, and effects must be considered.

d. The optimal option is picked after an unbiased and scientific review.

e. To assess the stability of an option, planners should consult a variety of quantitative tools.

4. Creating plans for derivatives

a. Derivative plans are the auxiliary or supporting plans that aid in the realisation of the primary plan.

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b. Subsequent plans will follow the first one. These are designed to aid in and hasten the accomplishment of fundamental goals.

c.The policies, processes, regulations, programmes, budgets, timetables, etc. included in these particular plans. For instance, if the primary goal of the business is profiting maximisation, derivative plans will also contain cost minimization, production maximisation, and sales maximisation.

d. Derivative plans show the timing and order of completing different activities.

5.Obtaining Collaboration

a. It is necessaryindeed, advisableto keep subordinates or those tasked with carrying out the plans in the dark once the arrangements have been made. Taking them into confidence serves the following purposes:

i. Since they are participating in decision- making, subordinates may feel more motivated.

ii. The organization may be able to get helpful recommendations and improvements for the creation and execution of plans.

iii. The staff will also be more engaged in seeing these initiatives carried out.

6. **Monitoring and evaluationof plans**

a. After deciding on a certain plan of action, it is implemented.

b. After the chosen strategy has been put into action, it is crucial to evaluate its effectiveness.

c. This is accomplished using input or knowledge obtained from relevant departments or individuals.

d. This gives management the opportunity to fix errors or change the strategy.

e. By completing this step, the planning and controlling functions are connected. f. The follow- up must occur concurrently with the execution of the plans in order to make future plans more feasible in light of the observations collected.

DISCUSSION

Plans' Characteristics

1. Goal- Oriented Planning.

a. Planning is done to attain the intended company goal.

b. Without widespread support for the aims set, individual efforts and energy will be erroneous and misdirected.

c. Planning outlines the course of action that would rapidly and economically result in the intended objectives.

d. It gives varied activities a feeling of direction. For instance, Maruti Udyog is attempting to retake the Indian automobile market by introducing diesel vehicles.

2. Planning Implies Foresight.

a. Planning for the future is done.

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b. It necessitates looking into the future, analysing it, and making predictions.

c. Forecasting is the foundation of planning.

d. A plan is a projected synthesis.

e. It is a mental propensity for future events to occur.

3. The act of planning requires thought.

a. Planning is a mental activity that requires imaginative thinking, good judgements, and creative thinking.

b. Only a manager with great discretion, insight, and inventiveness can create sound plans.

c. It involves rotational thinking rather than only guessing.

d. Planning is always based on objectives, actual data, and careful projections.

4. Planning entails Making Decisions and Choices.

a. Planning entails making decisions amongst a variety of options.

b. As a result, there is no need for planning when there is just one feasible option of action.

c. As a result, making decisions is a crucial aspect of planning.

d. There are several possibilities around the management.

e. Depending on the needs & resources of the businesses, he must choose the best.

5. The importance of planning is the main responsibility of management.

a. Planning establishes the groundwork for other management responsibilities.

b. It acts as a manual for planning, allocating resources, directing, and exercising control.

c. All managerial duties are carried out within the parameters of established plans.

d. As a result, management's basic or core task is planning.

6. Planning is a process that is ongoing.

a. Plans are also made for a specified amount of time, and at the conclusion of that time, they are evaluated and reviewed in light of new needs and evolving circumstances.

b. Planning doesn't cease until there are difficulties with the business; because problems may continue to arise, planning must be done well to address them.

7. There is planning everywhere.

a. It is necessary at all management levels and in every division of the company.

b. The extent of planning may, of course, vary from one level to another.

c. The top level may be more interested in organising the organisation as a whole, whilst the intermediate level might be more focused on departmental plans, and the bottom level might plan execution of those plans.

8. Planning is made to be effective.

a. Planning enables goals to be met with the least amount of expense.

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b. It prevents resource waste and assures proper and effective resource use.

c. If a strategy does not account for the costs associated with it, it is pointless.

d. As a result, planning must result in time, effort, and money savings.

e. Proper planning ensures efficient use of people, resources, goods, techniques, and equipment.

9. Flexible planning.

a. Planning for the future is done.

b. Because the future is uncertain, planning must provide enough wiggle room to accommodate shifts in consumer demand, competition, governmental policies, etc.

c. The initial strategy must be updated and improved in light of the new situation in order to make it more workable.

Benefits of Planning

1. Planning makes management by goals easier.

a. Setting goals is the first step in planning.

b. It emphasises the goals that different tasks are to be carried out for.

c. In reality, it clarifies and specificizes aims.

d. Planning aids in directing workers' attention towards the enterprise's objectives or aims.

e. Without planning, a company has no direction.

f. Planning requires the management to create a blueprint outlining the steps that must be taken to achieve the goals.

g. As a result, planning gives the organisation structure and reason.

2. Planning reduces uncertainty.

a. There are many unknowns in business.

b. Risks of different kinds exist as a result of uncertainty.

c. Because planning includes anticipating future occurrences, it helps to lessen future uncertainty.

d. Planning aids management in anticipating the future and preparing for risks by making essential arrangements to handle unforeseen turn of events, even if the future cannot be forecast with 100 percent accuracy.

e. As a consequence, uncertainties may be foreseen with the use of planning, which aids in the preparation of standbys, so greatly reducing uncertainties.

3. Coordination is made easier by planning.

a. Planning is focused on organisational objectives.

b. Every action is taken to achieve a shared objective.

c. Throughout the organisation, numerous departments and groups are working together in an integrated effort.

d. It prevents effort duplication. To put it another way, it promotes greater coordination.

e.It helps in identifying issues with job performance and seeks to address them.

4.Planning boosts worker morale.

a. Planning fosters an environment of discipline and order in an organisation.

b. Because employees are aware of what is expected of them in advance, compliance may be readily attained.

c.This motivates workers to give their all and be rewarded for it.

d. Planning fosters a positive attitude towards the workplace, which raises staff morale and productivity.

5.Planning makes it easier to achieve economies.

a. Effective planning ensures economy since it results in the systematic distribution of resources among diverse activities.

b. It also enables the best use of resources, which results in operations that are more cost-effective. Choosing the most suitable use of resources that will support the enterprise's goal also prevents resource waste. For instance, it is possible to save shipping costs by buying raw materials in bulk [4]–[6]. Additionally, it guarantees a consistent supply for the manufacturing division, improving overall effectiveness.

7. Planning makes controlling easier.

a. Planning enables the creation of certain planned objectives and performance standards.

b. It offers a foundation for controlling.

c.Without the presence of well thought:out plans, we are unable to imagine a governing system that is successful.

d. Planning enables the comparison of actual performance to predetermined objectives. Planning and controlling are really just two sides of the same coin. Controlling is the fruit if planning is the root.

7.Planning gives you a competitive advantage.

a. Planning gives the company a competitive advantage over rivals who lack competent planning. This is due to the fact that planning may include shifting work practises, improving work quality and quantity, extending work hours, redefining objectives, etc [7]–[10].

b. The firm uses forecasting to ensure its future while also being able to predict the future intentions of its rivals, which aids in meeting new problems.

c.Planning enables the highest potential resource utilisation, enhances production quality, and boosts an organization's ability to compete.

8.Planning also fosters invention.

a. Managers have the chance to recommend strategies and means of enhancing performance while planning.

b. Planning is essentially a decision- making process that requires imaginative and creative thinking and finally results in the creation of practises and operations for the expansion and profitability of the business.

CONCLUSION

The management function of planning is a crucial procedure that aids in the definition of objectives, creation of strategies, and optimal resource allocation for organisations. Organisations may traverse the intricacies of their internal and external environments with the help of planning, which gives them a roadmap. Setting goals is an essential part of planning since it gives the company a defined direction and purpose. Goals should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant. since they provide a framework for taking action and assessing performance. Planning is not complete without doing an environmental analysis, which entails evaluating both internal and external elements that might affect the organization's performance. Organisations can see opportunities and possible threats by studying market trends, consumer wants, competitive factors, and technology improvements and may then change their strategies appropriately.

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NATURE OF STAFFING FUNCTION AND MANPOWER PLANNING

Dr. Kadambat Kumar*

*Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-krishnakumark@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

A key aspect of human resource management is the staffing function, which focuses on finding and developing the best personnel to suit organisational demands. This is done via manpower planning. This essay explores the definition and importance of staffing functions and manpower planning in the context of human resource management. It covers the essentials of staffing, such as hiring, choosing, placing, and training workers. The process of manpower planning, which includes determining how to best satisfy present and future worker requirements, is also covered in this essay. This study emphasises the significance of good staffing and manpower planning in luring and keeping competent workers, supporting organisational success, and adjusting to shifting labour market dynamics via the analysis of case studies and empirical data.

KEYWORDS: *Employment, Hiring, Management, Manpower, Personnel, Planning, Staffing.*

INTRODUCTION

Staffing is a crucial management function. After planning, organising, directing, and managing, staffing is the most crucial managerial act. The availability of personnel via the staffing function is necessary for the performance of these four duties. Hiring employees is a common action in all sorts of businesses where business operations are conducted. All managers are responsible for hiring employees [1]–[4]. Staffing is a continual activity. Because of transfers and promotions, staffing activities continue during the course of an organization's existence. The foundation of staffing function is effective management of personnels. Recruitment, selection, placement, training and development, giving compensation, etc. are all examples of efficient management of human resources. Staffing assists in assigning the appropriate individuals to the proper positions. Effective hiring may be achieved by following the right processes, followed by the selection of the best applicant according to the job criteria. Depending on the kind of business, the size of the organisation, the qualifications and abilities of the managers, etc., all managers are responsible for staffing. The top management often handles this duty in small businesses[5]–[7]. This task is specifically handled by the personnel department of small and medium-sized businesses.

Steps involved in staffing process

1. Personnel needs: Planning the personnel inventory that a company needs in order to match them with the demands and requirements of the jobs is the first stage in staffing. As a result, it entails predicting and figuring out the concern's future workforce requirements.

2. Recruitment: Following the announcement of the needs, the company invites and solicits applications in accordance with the invitations sent to the most qualified applicants.

3. Selection: This is the staffing screening stage when solicited applications are eliminated and qualified applicants are appointed in accordance with the standards.

4. Orientation and Placement: Following the screening process, the hired applicants are introduced to their new work units and workplace via orientation programmes. By matching the appropriate individual with the right job, placement is accomplished.

5. Training and Development: One of the incentives provided to employees is training, which helps them advance and mature within the company. Training is often provided in accordance with the type of activities and their potential for growth. Additionally, by giving the employees additional advantages such in-depth knowledge of their functional areas, the workforce is also developed. Giving them significant tasks as a test or evaluation to evaluate their achievements is another aspect of development.

6. Remuneration: This kind of financial reward is given to workers in exchange for their hard work. This is determined by the kind of worwhether it is physically or mentally demanding, skilled or unskilled. A significant financial motivation for the personnel is compensation.

7. Performance Evaluation: To keep track of or record employee behaviours, attitudes, and views about their occupations. For this reason, several work units in a concern are evaluated and overseen on a regular basis. Knowing the workers' growth cycles and cycles of development is often concerning.

8. Promotion and transfer: Promotion is described as a non-financial incentive in which the employee is moved from a lower job with less obligations to a higher position with more responsibilities, as well as moved and transferred to other work units and branches of the same organisation.

Man Power Planning

Manpower planning, also known as human resource planning, is placing the appropriate number and kind of people in the appropriate locations and at the appropriate times to carry out tasks for which they are qualified. Planning for human resources plays a significant role in the industrialization process. Human Resource Planning must follow a predetermined process and be a systems approach. The steps are as follows:

a. Examining the available workforce inventory.

b. Predicting future workforce needs.

c. Creating activities to promote employment.

d. Create training initiatives

Steps in Manpower Planning

1. **Examining the present personnel inventory**. A manager must assess the current manpower situation before forecasting the future. For this, the following must be taken into consideration: Organisational kind; number of departments; quantity of such departments; and number of departments Personnel working in these work units A management begins the future forecasting after noting these aspects.

2.Making future personnel predictions. Planning may be done for the future manpower needs in various work units if the variables influencing the future manpower forecasts are established.

The following are the manpower forecasting methods that organisations often use:

i. Expert Forecasts: These include unofficial judgements, formally sanctioned expert polls, and the Delphi method.

ii. Trend Analysis: The extrapolation projecting previous trends, indexation using the base year as a foundatio), and statistical analysis central tendency measure may all be used to project manpower demands.

iii. Work Load Analysis: It depends on the kind of work that is being done in a department, branch, or division.

iv. Workforce Analysis: Proper provisions must be made for determining the necessary net workforce whenever production and time periods must be assessed.

V. Additional Techniques: Computers are used to anticipate personnel demands using a number of mathematical models, including budget and planning analysis, regression, and new venture analysis.

3.Creating employment programmes. Once the existing inventory and future projections have been compared, the employment programmes, which include hiring, selecting candidates, and placing them, may be formulated and created.

4.Create training courses. depending on the degree of diversity, growth strategies, development goals, etc. Training packages rely on the level of technological innovation and improvement. Additionally, it is done to enhance the employees' talents, knowledge, and skills.

DISCUSSION

Importance of Manpower Planning

The four management functions of planning, organising, directing, and regulating are dependent on the availability of human resources. All of these management operations are implemented with the use of human resources. As a result, personnel become crucial to all management tasks.

1.Effective utilisation. In today's industrialised environment, effective management of employees has become crucial. Setting up huge businesses requires managing enormous workforces. The staffing function may be used to do it successfully.

2.Motivation.The staffing role not only include placing the appropriate people in the proper jobs, but it also involves motivational programmes, such as incentive schemes to be developed for increased employee engagement and employment in a company. As a result, all incentive programmes are now a crucial component of the staffing process[7]–[10].

3. Better interpersonal ties. If interpersonal ties grow and are solid, a problem may stabilise itself. Through efficient management, transparent communication, efficient monitoring, and effective leadership in a concern, human interactions may be strengthened. The staffing role also takes care of employee training and development, which promotes cooperation and stronger interpersonal relationships.

4. Greater productivity. Productivity levels rise when resources are used as effectively as feasible. Minimum loss of time, money, efforts, and energy leads to increased output. This is made feasible by the staffing process and activities associated to it performance reviews, training, and compensation.

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Need of Manpower Planning

In order to create employment programmes, manpower planning must first examine the present human resources and then anticipate future human resource needs. The following are some ways that manpower planning is useful to a firm:

i. Shortages and surpluses may be identified so that wherever necessary, prompt action can be taken.

ii. Manpower planning serves as the foundation for every recruiting and selection process.

iii. By identifying extra workers and preventing overstaffing, it also helps to lower employment costs.

iv. It also aids in identifying the skills that are already present in a business, allowing for the development of training programmes for such talents.

v. It promotes corporate expansion and diversity. Human resources may be easily accessible and used to their full potential with the help of manpower planning.

vi. It assists the organisation in realising the value of human resource management, which eventually contributes to a company's stability.

Obstacles in Manpower Planning

The following are the key challenges that businesses have during workforce planning:

1. Underutilization of personnel: The main barrier to personnel planning is the fact that, generally speaking, enterprises do not use their people to its fullest potential. Once manpower planning gets underway, it faces significant challenges in increasing utilisation.

2. Absenteeism level: Absenteeism is high and has been rising over the last five years.

3. Lack of Education and Skilled Labour: Low employee productivity is a result of the degree of illetracy and the sluggish growth of skilled categories. Poor productivity has an impact on how you plan your workforce.

4. Personnel Control and Review:

The highest level of management takes into account any increase in personnel.

a. Personnel budgets are made based on manpower plans. These serve as control tools to maintain the workforce inside a set of widely defined bounds.

b. Productivity = Output / Input is often used to calculate an organization's productivity. However, the following formula is used to obtain an approximate measure of worker productivity: Total Production / Total Employees = Employee Productivity

c. Vital data on the degree of employee satisfaction may be found in exit interviews, turnover rates, and absenteeism rates. Manpower control would need to take into consideration the data to produce meaningful analysis in order to save human resources and better use the personnel studying these conditions.

d. The Amount of Overtime Paid. A genuine lack of personnel, inept management, or inefficient use of manpower may all contribute to the amount of overtime paid. The supervision of labour would need a thorough examination of overtime data.

Few organisations do not have enough records and data on human resources. Many people who possess them lack an effective retrieval mechanism. The design, definition, and development of a computerised personnel information system for efficient workforce planning and utilisation present challenges. Even the current technology is not being used to its full potential in this regard. A strategic drawback is this. Recruitment Methods There are two sorts of hiring.

1. Internal recruiting refers to hiring from inside a company or organisation. An organisation has easy access to internal sources of hiring. Three internal sources dominatetransfers, promotions, and rehiring of former workers. Employee productivity may rise as a result of internal recruiting as their motivation level rises. Time, money, and effort are also saved. Internal hiring does have the disadvantage of keeping the organisation from bringing in fresh talent. Additionally, not all of the staffing needs can be filled internally. There must be outside hiring.

2. Internal sources are Re-employment of ex-employees is one of the internal sources of recruiting in which workers may be called and appointed to fill vacancies in the business. The other two internal sources of recruitment are transfers and promotions via internal job postings. Additionally, there are instances when workers submit unsolicited applications.

3. External RecruitmentCandidates from outside the organisation must be sought out as external sources of recruitment. A worry is external to external sources. However, it takes a lot of time and money. Employment at the factory gate, adverts, job exchanges, employment agencies, educational institutions, labour contractors, referrals, etc. are some examples of external sources for hiring.

a. Employment at Factory Level: This is a source of outside hiring, when job openings are advertised on noticeboards outside the factory or at the gate. This kind of hiring is often used when manufacturing employees need to be hired. There are certain folks who are always looking for work. These candidates are referred to as unsolicited candidates. These kinds of employees seek for jobs on their own. labourers in this kind of recruiting are known as badli labourers since they often switch between factories.

b. Advertising: This is an outside source that plays a significant role in the hiring process. The main benefit of ads is that they reach a large market and provide information to dispersed candidates. Newschapters and television are the media types utilised.

c.Employment Exchanges: Some employment exchanges are managed by the government. Most government projects and organisations hire employees via these kinds of interactions. Recruitment in government organisations is now required via job exchange.

d. Employment Agencies: Some professional organisations focus on hiring and placing people in jobs; these privately managed agencies provide the necessary labour to understaffed businesses.

e. Educational Institutions: A few professional institutions provide as a source of outside candidates for hiring recent graduates from these institutions. Campus recruiting is the term used to describe this kind of hiring carried out via such educational institutions. They have specialised recruiting units that aid in placing new applicants in employment.

f. Recommendations: Some persons have professional expertise in a certain field. They are popular and have a position in the organisation. Certain positions are filled based on

recommendations from these persons. The major disadvantage of this source is that it forces the business to depend only on individuals who may later turn out to be ineffective.

g. Labour contractors: They are the experts that provide labour to factories and manufacturing facilities. Through these contractors, employees are hired on a contract basis, or for a certain amount of time. When these contractors leave the company, those who were nominated to fill their positions must likewise do so.

Directing Function of Management

Directing is described as a procedure in which managers provide instructions, provide guidance, and monitor employee performance to meet set objectives. The management process is stated to be at its core while directing. Planning, organising, and staffing are all worthless if the directing function is absent. Action is started by directing, and here is where the true labour begins. It is stated that human factors have a role in direction. It may be summed up by saying that it involves guiding employees while they are at work. Management experts define direction as all the actions used to motivate subordinates to do their jobs successfully and efficiently. Human states that directing consists of process or technique by which instruction can be issued and operations can be carried out as originally planned Therefore, the role of directing involves encouraging, directing, supervising, and teaching others to achieve organisational objectives. The following qualities of direction:

a. Pervasive Function: At all organisational levels, directing is necessary. Every manager offers advice and motivation to his team members.

b. Continuous Activity: Since it continues throughout the duration of an organisation, direction is a continuous activity.

c. Human Element: Since the directing role involves subordinates, it is impacted by human element. Direction function becomes crucial due to how complicated and unpredictable human aspect is.

d. Creative Activity: The role of direction aids in putting plans into action. Without this feature, individuals stop using their physical resources, and they become useless.

e. Executive Role: Throughout the operation of a business, all managers and executives perform the direction role; a subordinate only takes orders from his superior.

f. Delegate Function: Direction is seen as a human-related function. The executive's job in this position is to shape people's conduct towards the enterprise's objectives since human behaviour is naturally unpredictable. As a result, it is described as having delicate handling of human behaviours.

Importance of Directing Function

Making or Giving Direction According to this theory, function is at the core of process management and serves as the hub for goal achievement. Direction is often referred to as the Life spark of an enterprise by philosophers. Because direction is how a company really begins to run, it is also known as the actuating function of management. Being the core of an organisation, it offers a concern several advantages, including the following:

1. It Initiates Actions: The role that serves as the foundation for subordinates' job performance is giving directions. Action is carried out from this position, and employees understand their

responsibilities and follow any given directions. Whatever plans are made, they can only be put into action once the task itself gets underway. There, direction becomes advantageous.

2. It Encourages Efforts: Through guidance, supervisors are able to lead, encourage, and advise the workers to put forth effort. Every person's effort towards achieving their objectives are necessary for this. Every department's effort may be connected to and linked with one another via direction. Persuasive leadership and effective communication are two ways to achieve this. Integration of activities improves a situation's efficacy and stability.

3. Motivational Techniques: The Direction function aids in goal attainment. Here, a manager uses the motivational component to raise subordinates' performance levels. This may be accomplished by offering the subordinates rewards or remuneration, whether monetary or non-monetary, that acts as a morale booster. Subordinates who are motivated are more likely to put up their best effort, which ultimately promotes progress.

4. It Offers Stability: For the sun to survive in the market over the long run, stability and equilibrium become crucial. Four tools or components of the direction function, including a strategic mix of compelling leadership, effective communication, stringent monitoring, and effective incentive, may assist managers achieve this. Since stability is a gauge of an enterprise's progress, it is crucial. Therefore, a manager may make use of all four of these attributes to uphold performance requirements.

5.Adjusting to the changes: Resisting change is a characteristic of human conduct. Being able to adapt to a changing environment is important for maintaining projected development and dominating a market. It is a guiding function that may be used to adapt to internal and external environmental changes. Having effective communication is helpful in adjusting to change. Here, the manager's job is to make sure that the team members are well informed about the modifications' nature and substance. This facilitates explanations, simple adaptations, and the efficient operation of a business. Changing from handlooms to powerlooms, for instance, would be a significant change in manufacturing method. As a consequence, there is fewer labour force and more equipment. The subordinates have the ability to oppose this. Here, the manager may describe how the modification benefited the staff members. Production and earnings rise as a result of increased mechanisation. Through better compensation, the subordinates gain from this in an indirect way.

6. Effective Resource Utilisation: Finance helps to define each subordinate's function in relation to his task. Only when there are less waste, duplications of effort, overlaps in performances, etc., can the resources be used effectively. As a manager uses his supervising, guiding, instructing, and motivating skills to inspire the subordinates, the job of the employees is made obvious. This aids in making the best use possible of the resources of people, machines, materials, and money, which helps to lower costs and boost profits.

CONCLUSION

In order to make sure that organisations have the appropriate people with the right abilities in the right places, the staffing function and manpower planning are vital. Numerous tasks are involved in staffing, such as hiring, choosing, placing, and training workers. It seeks to locate and draw in people who have the necessary credentials and mesh well with the organization's culture and objectives. While selection is determining and selecting the most qualified individuals for the roles, recruitment is the process of locating and enticing prospective candidates to fill job

openings. Matching individuals' abilities and competences with certain jobs and responsibilities within the organisation is the main goal of placement. Training and career development efforts are only two examples of development programmes that are intended to improve workers' talents and skills while ensuring their continuing advancement and commitment to the company. On the other hand, manpower planning is a methodical process that entails predicting the organization's present and future personnel requirements and creating strategies to address those needs. It considers elements including organisational objectives, consumer demand, technology developments, and worker demographics. Organisations may guarantee they have a sufficient and adequately qualified staff to accomplish their goals by using manpower planning.

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CONTROLLING FUNCTION OF MANAGEMENT AND PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

Mrs. Salma Syeda*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-syeda.s@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

In order to assure the accomplishment of organisational objectives and efficient management of people, the controlling function of management and personnel management—two crucial facets of organisational managementconcentrate on monitoring, assessing, and regulating performance. This essay explores the meaning and importance of people management and the controlling role in the realm of management. It explains the essential components of control, such as establishing performance benchmarks, assessing performance, contrasting actual performance with benchmarks, and implementing remedial measures. The function of people management in overseeing workers' productivity, growth, and welfare is also examined in this essay. This study emphasises the significance of good controlling and human management in assuring responsibility, maximising performance, and establishing a pleasant work environment by analysing case studies and empirical data.

KEYWORDS: *Controlling, Management, Performance, Personnel, Production, Planning.*

INTRODUCTION

Verifying if everything happens in accordance with the plans chosen, the directions provided, and the principles established constitutes controlling. Controlling makes ensuring that organisational resources are used effectively and efficiently to accomplish the intended aims. Controlling determines the reasons of such deviations, quantifies the difference between actual and expected performance, and assists in making corrections. Brech states that controlling is a systematic exercise which is called as a process of checking actual performance against the standards or plans with a view to ensure adequate progress and also recording such experience as is gained as a contribution to possible future needs. A business manager should continuously read to verify that his or her company is on the proper route, says Donnell, just as a navigator continually takes reading to ensure whether he is relative to a planned action. Controlling serves two primary objectives. It makes coordination easier. It facilitates planning[1]–[3].

Characteristics of Control Function The management role of controlling has the qualities listed below. Controlling is a function that occurs after performances are confirmed to be in line with plans. Managers at all levels and in all types of organisations execute controlling as it is a widespread activity. Controlling is forward- looking because it is impossible to manage the future effectively without first controlling the past. Always plan for the future to enable follow- up if necessary. Controlling is a dynamic processsince controlling calls for the use of reviewal techniques, adjustments must be made whenever practical. Planning and controlling are

intertwined. Planning and controlling are two essential management tasks. Planning is pointless without controlling, and controlling is useless without planning. Controlling is necessary for planning, and planning comes after controlling[4]–[6].

Process of Controlling

The following stages are involved in controlling as a management function:

1. Establishing Standards: Standards are the goals or strategies that must be accomplished throughout corporate operations. They may also be referred to as performance evaluation criteria. Standards are often divided into two categories:

a. Measurable or Palpable: Measurable standards are those that can be articulated and quantified. They may take the shape of a cost, an output, an expense, a time investment, a profit, etc. Standards that cannot be assessed in monetary terms are referred to as non- measurable or intangible. Examples include a manager's performance, a worker's divergence, or their attitudes towards a problem. These norms are referred to as intangibles. By establishing these standards, controlling is made simpler since controlling is done in accordance with them.

2. Performance Measurement: Measuring performance is the second important stage in regulating. Measuring the real performance makes it simple to identify variances. Measuring performance levels may be challenging or simple at times. Measuring tangible standards is simple since they may be represented in terms of units, price, money, etc. Quantitative measurement becomes challenging when management performance must be evaluated. A manager's effectiveness cannot be quantified. It can only be assessed by looking at the employees' attitudes, their motivation at work, how their views have changed about the physical surroundings, and how well they communicate with their superiors. Sometimes it is done via different reports, such as weekly, monthly, quarterly, and annual reports.

3. Comparison of Real and Expected Performance: It's crucial to compare actual performance to the anticipated goals. The difference between actual performance and planned objectives is known as a deviation. Here, the management has to learn two things: the degree of the deviation and its origin. The management must determine the extent of the deviation in order to determine whether it is good or negative and if the actual performance is in line with the anticipated performance. The managers must employ exception- based control. He has to identify any variances that are crucial and significant for the company. Minor deviations must be disregarded. Significant variations such the replacement of equipment, hiring of staff, raw material quality, profit rate, etc. should be carefully considered. In light of this, it is argued that If a manager controls everything, he ends up controlling nothing. A little variation may be, for instance, a minor rise in stationery costs of between 5 and 10%. On the other hand, a substantial departure is referred to as a steady reduction in monthly productivity. A management must consider all possible causes of the deviation after it has been found. The reasons may include inadequate planning, loosening coordination, poor plan implementation, inadequate supervision and communication, among others[7]–[9].

4. Taking Corrective Action: The management must identify mistakes and implement corrective action once the reasons and number of deviations are recognized. Here, there are two options: a. Correcting deviations that have already happened; and b. Revision of the objectives by the management if actual performance is not in line with plans after corrective actions have been taken. The controlling procedure ends at this point. The next stage is crucial since a manager can

only exert control by taking remedial action[10], [11].

DISCUSSION

Relationship between Planning and Controlling

Despite being two distinct managerial functions, planning and controlling are tightly intertwined. the extent of the activities if they both overlap. Without a foundation in planning, controlling becomes pointless, and without controlling, planning loses all purpose. There is no objective that can be accomplished by not governing. Planning and managing so complement one another. The following points sum up the relationship between the two, according to Billy Goetz:

1. Planning comes first, followed by controlling, and vice versa.

2. The management role of controlling and planning cannot be separated.

3. Through planning and regulating, activities are maintained on track and in the proper location.

4. The systems approach, which is used in planning and controlling, is as follows: planning, outcomes, and corrective action

5. Planning and managing are essential components of an organisation since they are both necessary for the efficient operation of a business.

6. Controlling and planning complement one another. Each fuels the other managerial function. The two must have a solid interaction in the current dynamic environment since it influences the organisation. Planning failures due to unanticipated circumstances are fairly probable in the current climate. Controlling steps in to save the day. When regulating is done well, it inspires us to come up with better strategies. Planning and controlling are therefore two distinct tasks performed by a corporate firm.

Personnel Management

A contented workforce may be acquired, used, and maintained as part of personnel management. It is an important aspect of management that is concerned with how workers interact with one another inside the organisation and at work. The planning, organising, compensation, integration, and maintenance of people with the aim of advancing organisational, individual, and social objectives are all parts of Flippo's definition of personnel management. Brech claims that Personnel Management is that part which is primarily concerned with human resource of organisation.

Nature of Personnel Management

1. Employment, development, and compensation are duties of personnel management. These tasks are largely carried out by personnel management in conjunction with other departments.

2. The extension of general management is personnel management. It is focused on encouraging and fostering a skilled workforce to contribute fully to the business.

3. The purpose of personnel management is to counsel and support line managers with regard to personnel issues. As a result, an organization's staff department is the personnel department.

4. Rather of creating long timetables, strategies, or work procedures, personnel management places an emphasis on action. The issues and complaints of employees at work may be resolved more successfully with the help of logical personnel policies.

5. It is based on how people are oriented. It aims to assist the employees in realising all of their potential for the business.

6. It also encourages workers to provide their best cooperation via its successful incentive programmes.

7. Personnel management deals with a company's people resources. In terms of human resources, it controls both independent contractors and blue- collar employees**.**

Role of Personnel Manager

The leader of the personnel department is the personnel manager. He carries out management's operational and managerial duties. His function may be summed up as:

1. The personnel manager assists the top management. The top management is responsible for formulating the company's main policies. The personnel manager can formulate all types of personnel or workforce-related policies successfully.

2. He offers assistance to the line manager in his capacity as a staff expert. The personnel manager serves as a staff advisor and helps the line managers with a variety of personnel issues.

3. As a therapist, the people manager listens to the issues and complaints of the staff and offers advice. He makes every effort to find solutions.

4. The personnel manager serves as a liaison between management and employees.

5. He serves as a spokesperson. Due to his close proximity to the workforce, he must represent the organisation in committees that the government appoints. He represents the firm during training sessions.

Understanding Production and Operation Management

Any business's core purpose is to satisfy client demands by offering products and services, and in doing so, to provide value to the customer base and address their issues. Application of business organization and management principles to the production of products and services is discussed in production and operations management.

Production

Production is a scientific process that includes converting desired products or services from raw materials (inputs) by adding economic value. Based on technology, production may be roughly divided into the following categories: Production by separation: This method includes separating or extracting the required output from the basic ingredients. Oil is often separated or extracted to create different fuel products. Production via modification or improvement: This method includes changing the raw material's chemical and mechanical qualities without changing its physical characteristics. An example of manufacturing via modification or enhancement is the annealing

process, which involves heating to high temperatures and then cooling. Production via assembly is used in the creation of computers and cars.The significance of production management and production functions

Organizations that are successful have well defined and effective line and support functions. The future of the organization and the customer experience are both directly impacted by production, which falls under the area of line functions. The goal of the manufacturing function is to enhance the product or service in order to forge a solid and enduring connection with the client. And this may be accomplished by the marketing and production teams working well together. People in the marketing department serve as the company's front-line representatives and provide insights into the actual product demands of consumers. Production management is the process of effectively planning and managing production parameters to attain or generate value for customers.

Operation Management

It is crucial for the business to follow the steps below in order to provide value for consumers in terms of both goods and services:

1. Determine the demands of the consumer and translate those needs into a particular product or service number of items needed for a certain amount of time.

2. Determine the raw material needs based on the product specifications.

3. Work with both internal and external suppliers to establish a supply chain between vendors, manufacturing facilities, and consumers for raw materials and completed items. Operations management includes the three criteria mentioned above.

Operations Management vs Production Management

On the following attributes, a high-level comparison can be made between production and operations management: Output: Operations management includes both goods and services, while production management deals with the production of items such computer, automobile, etc. Products like computers and cars are used over time, while services must be used right away. Classification of Work: While services demand more manpower and less capital equipment, producing goods like computers and cars requires more capital equipment. Customer communication: While customers are not involved in the manufacturing process, they must be in continual communication in order to get services. Both operations management and production management are crucial to achieving an organization's goals.

CONCLUSION

For organisational success and the efficient administration of staff, the regulating role of management is essential. Monitoring, assessing, and controlling performance requires making sure that organisational objectives are met. Controlling is not complete without the establishment of performance standards. Clear and precise criteria serve as yardsticks for comparing actual performance against. In order to determine the degree to which performance requirements are being fulfilled, performance measurement entails gathering and analysing data. Managers can spot gaps and discrepancies by comparing actual performance to standards. This comparison offers insightful information on possible problem areas or areas that need attention. In order to close the gaps and improve performance, corrective measures are then implemented, such as feedback, coaching, training, or process modifications.

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SUCCESSFUL ORGANIZATION: CHARACTERSTICS AND DEVELOPMENT

Dr. Nishant Labhane*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-nishantbhimrao@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

By evaluating many aspects that contribute to successful organisations' accomplishment, this research seeks to pinpoint the essential traits of these entities. A thorough assessment of the literature and analysis of case studies revealed a number of similar traits. Strong leadership that establishes a distinct vision, beliefs, and objectives and successfully communicates them to staff is a common characteristic of successful organisations. They place a high value on innovation and adaptation, always looking for methods to advance and beat the competition. Additionally, prosperous organisations establish a favourable organisational culture that encourages teamwork, worker engagement, and a feeling of purpose among all employees. They enhance employee growth and provide a welcoming workplace that appreciates inclusion and diversity. This study lays the groundwork for future research in the area and offers insightful information on the traits that lead to organisational success.

KEYWORDS: *Activities, Barnard, Cooperative, Organization, Sabotage.*

INTRODUCTION

In order to assist what he saw as inevitable American military actions in the war in Europe, President Roosevelt made the decision to create a strategic intelligence arm in 1941. General William J. Donovan was chosen to serve as the co-coordinator of information in July of the same year. The Office of Strategic Services (OSS) was established the summer after Pearl Harbour in accordance with a Presidential Military Order signed on June 13, 1942, with Donovan as its director and a dual mandate: gathering and analysing strategic intelligence for the Joint Chiefs of Staff; and carrying out special operations not delegated to other agencies[1]. The OSS was active throughout the war in Europe, the Middle East, and Asia, focusing mostly on preparing rebels to effectively oppose occupying troops, notably the Japanese and Germans. Personnel involved in these activities ultimately amassed a plethora of knowledge and skill on a variety of topics, including efficient sabotage techniques. Donovan published a chapter titled Simple Sabotage Field Manual -Strategic Services (Provisional) on January 17, 1944. This guidebook was created with the goal of acting as the basic doctrine for Strategic Services training in the field of sabotage.

The manual recognises that white collar occupations will continue to function under occupation and may be particular targets for co-optation by enemy forces, and thus devotes some attention to methods of impeding the smooth functioning of organisations. The majority of the manual, however, is focused on ways to impair the effectiveness of occupying forces by damaging vital equipment, degrading transport and industrial production, and destroying war-relevant materiel.

The author claim that although this kind of indirect sabotage doesn't need any instruments and doesn't do any physical harm, it may nevertheless be quite successful in undermining the occupying power's efforts and subsequent campaigns. Utilising the 'human element,'is frequently to blame for accidents, delays, and general obstruction even under normal circumstances, such organisational sabotage is based on universal opportunities to make faulty decisions, to adopt a non- cooperative attitude, and to induce others to follow suit. The person who is sabotaging an organization's ability to operate effectively should, in theory, get acquainted with the kinds of faulty decisions and non- cooperation are normally found in his kind of work and should then devise his sabotage so as to enlarge that'margin of error'. In other words, the cunning organisational saboteur will merely strive to intensify the numerous indications of dysfunction that are already existing in the organisation, rather than making a target out of himself by generating new or unique issues.

Sadly, the OSS Field Manual lacks references, much like many other publications from the period of conflict. Nevertheless, some of the more specific recommendations it makes for obstructing organisational activity seem to be closely related in a bad way, of course to the guidelines for the successful and effective operation of organisations provided in Chester Barnard's classic work on organisation theory, The Functions of The Executive. This book, the first comprehensive discourse on the theory and structure of formal organisations, was published in 1938 just six years before the OSS manual was promulgated. As such, it is the primary contemporary formal source of epistemological systematisation upon which the OSS Manual may have been based.

Because it reflects the ideas, principles, and preconceptions governing organisational structure and management pertinent to the time period in which the OSS Manual was written and in which its suggestions for sabotage would have been expected to succeed, it provides the most appropriate contemporary theoretical foundation from a purely chronological standpoint for an examination of the concepts presented in the Manual. A previously unstated organisational paradigm was provided by Barnard's definition of the organisation as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons, his claim that the three essential components of an organisation are cooperation, communication, and acceptance of a shared purpose, and his conclusion that the executive's job is to establish and maintain these three components. As a result, they also provide a helpful framework for deriving the traits of a successful organisation from the matrix of targets and sabotage techniques listed in the OSS handbook. When an item reflects light, that light passes through a lens, creating an image that is projected onto a surface. If the picture is visible and the physical traits of the lens that created it are known, many of the original object's physical properties may be inferred or even recreated.

In this instance, Barnard's theoretical framework serves as the lens and the image is that of the dysfunctional organisation that is the final target of the sabotage attempts indicated in the OSS handbook. It would be feasible to reconstitute some of the essential elements of a functioning, and therefore successful organisation, by looking back at the dysfunctional organisation through the lenses of collaboration, communication, and shared purpose. In this Memorandum, I will examine each of the organisational sabotage recommendations in the OSS Field Manual using the framework provided by Barnard's classical organisational structure and function. I will use examples from both the modern and contemporary worlds to illustrate my points, and I will try to glean from the discussion some traits of successful organisations as well as some potential subversion risks that organisations should be aware of.

Using Barnard's theses as the organising concept for this research has more than just a purely chronological goal. E.H. Carr claimed in What is History? that the goal of historical research is to draw generalizable principles or lessons from historical chronologies that may be applied to present-day or future circumstances. Thus, even if it may appear out of date to some to try to employ Second World War-era organisational principles and techniques to shed light on current organisation theory issues, this is really the main goal of historical studies. In this setting, current issues and theoretical ideas may both serve as examples of and objections to Barnard's paradigm. According to military history, it is feasible to draw military strategic lessons from a previous age to help us think through current issues; it's probable that the same idea applies to debates about organisational structures and strategy. If this is the case, then the DND/CF may be able to avoid some of the more apparent structural and management flaws that make organisations especially vulnerable to sabotage by using the lessons learned through an analysis of the OSS ideas for undermining organisational performance.

DISCUSSION

Barnard's Element of Organization

According to Barnard, every systematic strategy for achieving a certain goal is supported by human intention and effort. A formal organisation is described in this paradigm as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons.5 Therefore, according to Barnard, an organisation must have five interrelated features in order for it to function properly: humans in numbers greater than the individual; their activities or forces; the coordination of these activities; the requirement that this coordination be conscious rather than unconscious or accidental; and, finally, an overall system for ensuring the smooth operation of all of these features[2]–[4]. These qualities are condensed into three concepts in Functions of the Executive, which are known as the elements of organisation. To quote Barnard, when people are able to communicate with one another and are prepared to work together to achieve a shared goal, an organisation is created. As a result, three things make up an organisation: communication, service-mindedness, and shared objectives. According to Barnard, these components are necessary and sufficient conditions6 for the development and upkeep of an organisation.

Additionally, to these organisational components, Barnard proposed qualifiers to define how the organisation carries out the goals for which it was consciously coordinated. All organisations have a purpose, which is often the accomplishment of a specific objective that is beyond the power of a single person but may be achieved by the united activities or forces of two or more persons. Although only having a mission may be enough to create an organisation, this is insufficient to ensure organisational sustainability over the long run. An organisation must have both a purpose and a realistic chance of achieving it in order to permit and justify its continuous existence. According to Barnard, an organization's capacity to fulfil its goal is what determines whether it will continue to exist [5]–[7].

Although it may seem obvious, there are many organisations in the world that do not achieve their stated goals. Arguments that the United Nations' fundamental purposeto save succeeding generations from the scourge of war8is not any closer to being fulfilled now, 64 years after it was founded, than it was in 1945, are neither unjust nor clichéd. However, in order to make this case, one must first consider whether the UN conforms to Barnard's definition of an organisation. To answer this question, one must consider whether the UN actually demonstrates the three essential components of organisation: communication (likely, though diplomatic interactions frequently

seem designed to obstruct rather than facilitate effective communication willingness to contribute perhaps, though negotiating contribution levels is actually one of the UN's most time-consuming activities and common purpose true in theory, but frequently refuted.

For other international and intrastate multilateral bodies, a comparable calculation may be made. Unsurprisingly, many so-called organisations that seem to have fallen short of their goals turn out to not be organisations at allat least not by Barnard's relatively tight definitionupon closer inspection. Contrarily, success should ironically doom an organisation just as failing to accomplish its design aim would. Barnard contends that an organisation must disintegrate if it is unable to achieve its purpose, but it also destroys itself by doing so. Therefore, the majority of ongoing organisations need those new purposes be adopted repeatedly.This theory has different applications in different organisations. Its use is seen in corporate organisations, where Ford, for instance, exists not to create a car which it accomplished in 1903 but rather to manufacture and sell many cars. The NATO's reinterpretation of its primary mission in recent years is the most prominent example of this principlconstant reinvention of new purposesamong international organisations. NATO's founding agreement includes clauses for intramural conflict settlement, consultation, and collective defence that were especially created to act as a bulwark against Soviet expansionism. NATO was first envisioned as a military alliance [8]–[10].

According to Barnard, NATO was created with the intention of providing protection against USSR territorial, socioeconomic, and (to a lesser degree) cultural aggression. With the fall of the Berlin Wall, the reunification of Germany, the dissolution of the Warsaw Pact, and the collapse of the Soviet polity between 1989 and 1991, this goal was successfully attained. Over the course of the following decade, democracy gradually spread throughout the former Soviet satellite states and republics, and many of them were included in NATO. Numerous demands for the disintegration of NATO were made in response to these events, not the least of which came from the reconstituted Russian Federation, the rump USSR. In response, NATO changed its mission from one of defence to one of security. This solution to the issue of success-driven organisational auto-obviation was distinctly Barnarddian. After all, the supply of defence depends on the auxiliary qualification against whom? but security is a less focused and far more all-encompassing service. Security may be provided against insecurity rather than a particular adversary, and insecurity is often characterised as resulting from any (or all) of a broad range of threats to security.

NATO has classified a variety of issues under the heading of security threats since 1991, including but not limited to terrorism, proliferation, pandemic illness, climate change, nationalism, radicalism, environmental degradation, militarism, and religious extremism.12 Again in Barnarddian terms, NATO ensured its long:term survival by changing its purpose to the provision of general security against general threats because none of these threats are likely to either abate on their own, be defeated by the use of military force, or be obviated solely through diplomacy. Such a goal can never be successfully accomplished; hence NATO is not in risk of disintegrating due to success. This is not to imply that organisational stability can be ensured by only avoiding triumphant self- obviation. Barnard proposed two criteria by which an organization's efforts to achieve its design goal must be measured. These include effectiveness and efficiency, which are both defined as how well an organisation accomplishes its objectives. According to Barnard's paradigm, efficiency refers to a subjective evaluation of whether or not the organization's costs associated with accomplishing its aim outweigh or do not outweigh the advantages realised as a result.

Unalloyed success is distinguished from a Pyrrhic triumph by inefficiency, i.e., success that leaves the winner with the laurel in hand but practically prostrate and unable to pursue further goals. For the time being, sticking with NATO as an example, it is worthwhile to examine recent Alliance operations in light of these complementary qualification standards. In Operation Allied Force, for instancethe US- led NATO bombing of Serbia and subsequent occupation of Kosovo in 1991 in retaliation for alleged atrocities committed against Kosovar Albanians by the Slobodan Milosevic government in Belgradethe Clinton Administration's political pressure exerted against Allies nearly tore apart the Alliance and resulted in a public rift at the North Atlantic Council. It may be argued that this would have been a worse consequence for NATO than not intervening in the first place. Similar to this, the NATO response to the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001a marathon diplomatic arm-twisting session by then- Secretary General Robertson that included five meetings of the North Atlantic Council in a thirty-hour period and led to the (grudging) invocation of Article V of the Washington Treatyexposed significant divisions among Allies, particularly in the area of the legal interpretation of the obligations outlined in the Treaty. NATO finally sent its own AWACS aircraft to cover American airspace, freeing up US AWACS for operations in Afghanistan, but even this minor commitment came at a high political cost.

In Afghanistan now, a similar trend is weakening the Alliance's unity. Different levels of effort and commitment to the collective campaign have been revealed as a result of the costs and pressures of the war to end Taliban influence and establish a viable, moderately democratic government in what might be charitably described as infertile soil, particularly regarding which nations are doing the lion's share of the heavy lifting. Although allies have gone to great lengthand are still goingto avoid airing the Alliance's dirty laundry in the open, reports of unhappiness, disagreement, and arguments are popping up more often as the campaign wears on. The organisational inefficiency with which those aims are being pursued may put the Alliance on the verge of a Pyrrhic victoryor worse, a Pyrrhic defeateven if one might claim that NATO is accomplishing its self- imposed goals in Afghanistan.

In every instance of organisational vivisection, it is assumed that one is dealing with a logical entity. The definition of rationality in this context is consistent, value-maximizing choice within specified constraints. This definition of rationality applies to all international, governmental, and public organisations. In other words, it is anticipated that the organisation would make decisions that are in its best interests when confronted with a choice. This definition, however, is sterile and fails to take into account the reality that organisations are made up of people who have committed to work together to accomplish a common objective, as noted by Barnard. Public organisations are dominated by political groups that act in accordance with bounded rationality, where bounded rationality is defined as the pursuit of the best interests of the individual sub- organizational polities.

This is because public organisations are inherently political since they are made up of people. In this kind of setting, rational self- interest prevails over communal benevolence to paraphrase Adam Smith. The final consequence is a workplace where political divisions are prevalent and intra-unit rivalry is fierce; in this environment, survival depends on pleasing one's clients, not on efficient production. It's possible that the satisfied customers are not the ones the company claims to be serving. The propensity for intramural conduct and rivalry to be motivated by sub- unit political objectives, if anything, puts a stronger value on adherence to the Barnard characteristics and makes the organisation more susceptible to actions that undermine those elements. The chapters that follow will discuss how organisational elements are structured and maintained to

enable effective, efficient pursuit of organisational objectives; how, per the OSS Field Manual, these elements may be undermined most effectively; and why the executive component of organisations is particularly vulnerable to many of the pitfalls of organisational sabotage, whether accidental or intentional.

Eroding the Cooperative System

Organisation doesn't really get anything done. Plans also don't produce any results. Management theories don't really matter. The individuals involved determine whether an effort succeeds or fails. (Colin Powell) If, as argued in the preceding chapter, an organisation is defined as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons designed to achieve some purpose beyond the reach of an individual, then inducing willing cooperation between the individuals making up it is the first, and arguably most important, systemic requirement for the establishment of an organisation. The presence of voluntary collaboration so justifies itselfas a means of overcoming the limitations restricting what individuals can do in this one sense. It's important to remember that Barnard demands voluntary collaboration. This is not to say that a system that forces participationwhether through force ante facto or the threat of punishment for uncooperative behaviordoes not meet the criteria for an organisation.

The process by which willing cooperation is extracted from a participant in an organisation may involve a variety of inducements, both positive and negative. What matters is that the person intentionally chooses to give the organisation his best efforts, for whatever motive. Rather than the people who provide them, Barnard contends that it is these efforts that make up the organization's human resource: No organisation, by definition, can exist without people. However, given that we have argued that individuals should not be seen as comprising organisations but rather their actions, services, or impacts, it is obvious that the desire of individuals to make contributions to the cooperative system is essential.

The organisational constitution itself is not where the desire of the person to contribute his actions or forces is relevant; rather, what matters is the organization's effectiveness in the meaning established in the preceding chapter. It is possible that the costs of enforcing contributions from constituent members may outweigh the benefits obtained through doing so. Recalling that Barnard defines efficiency as the delta between the cost to the organisation of achieving a self- imposed goal and the value or benefit derived from achieving it. This is particularly true if cost and value are defined strategically rather than only in terms of institutional goals. Slavery is a prime instance. Slave- owners had a huge return on investment for centuries thanks to the contributions made by forcefully transported indigenous from Africa and other places, especially in the labor- intensive agricultural sectors of the Americas. The advantages of using slave labour were immense compared to the expenses which were negligible, and as a consequence, huge riches were amassed.

However, the disadvantages of slavery (including the social stigma) outweighed the advantages due to the public reaction against it, first in England in the late 18th century and then in the United States in the middle of the 19th century. In Barnard's words, slavery became inefficientespecially when the Royal Navy started capturing slavers at sea. The dreadful inefficiency of slavery is made clear when the terrible financial and human consequences of the Civil War are taken into account. This principle is explained by Barnard in more technical terms, who claims that the efficiency of a cooperative system is the resultant of the efficiencies of the individuals furnishing the constituent efforts, that is, as viewed by them, and who further

contends that [i]f the individual finds his motives being satisfied by what he does, he continues his cooperative effort; otherwise, he does not. If he doesn't, this loss to the cooperative system might be its demise.

It is not required for the person to publicly revolt; by just not giving the joint endeavour his all, he might effectively doom it. The difference in his activities or forces between enthusiastic engagement and mediocritynot to mention white mutinydeliberate, calculated incompetenceor covert sabotage may be greater than the difference between the success or failure of the whole. In other words, the difference between an individual's effective and ineffective performance may be equal to or greater than the difference between an organization's effective and ineffective activity. Barnard argues that rather of attempting to coerce its members via threats, it is in the organization's best interests to seek their active, enthusiastic collaboration through proper inducements. Systems of cooperation are inherently unstable, which presents a problem for the organization's coordinators since they represent the sum of individual contributors' cooperative efforts. People are not steady in and of themselves, which is why. Over time, attitudes, wants, concerns, requirements, and individual cost- benefit calculations change. Individuals do indeed undergo change; fresh faces enter the cooperative system while seasoned members depart. Collective patterns of contact between individualsthe kind of deliberate or unconscious behaviour that gives rise to the political sub-units mentioned in the chapter beforeevolve as well, often quickly, causing changes in sub-unit alignments, alliances, and activities.

The organization's imperatives, objectives, and boundary- layer interactions with the outside world are affected by macro-level political, economic, sociocultural, and other factors that shape the external environment. The end effect is a collectivity that is complicated, highly variable, and often unpredictablemore like a living creature than a computer. Even though the organization's goal stays constant, the changing nature of internal traits and external circumstances necessitates ongoing adaptation of the methods used by the organisation to accomplish its goals. The gradual adjustment of cooperative systems to changing conditions or new purposes implies special management processes and, in complex cooperation, special organs known as executives or executive organisations, according to Barnard, is the source of decision-making sub-units within the larger complex of the organisation. These entities, which may be found both inside the organization's main structure and outside of it, play three important functions that distinguish them from the demands placed on individual actors. The first is to make collaboration easier since without it, an organisation cannot start performing its duties.

The second is to keep the cooperative structure in place. According to Barnard, managing the ongoing process of adaptation demanded by the continuously changing nature of the environment, of the organisation within that environment, and of the environment inside the organisation, is the third job of the executive organisation. According to him, changes to cooperative systems need changes to how the different organisational tasks are balanced. Another form of constraint is the ability to make these modifications. This reality leads to the development of systems adjustment procedures, specific organs, and specialised activities intended to preserve collaboration; because if cooperation is unable to adapt in order to overcome environmental constraints, it must collapse.

Therefore, the best way to undermine an organization's effectiveness by attacking the cooperative system as defined by Barnard is to weaken the individuals whose actions or forces make up the organisation; and interfere with the executive organization's capacity to carry out its three primary roles, such as by obstructing the emergence of cooperative effort, hindering cooperative activity,

or thwarting attempts to adapt the cooperative system. The OSS Field Manual offers various recommendations on how to undermine an organization's crucial cooperation. For instance, the manual advises would:be saboteurs to adopt attitudes and approaches to work and interpersonal relationships that are purposefully hostile and uncooperative under the guise of interpersonal activities undertaken to degrade individuals' willingness to lend their cooperation to collective organisational effort. It is advised that saboteurs refrain from passing on their knowledge or experience to new hires, make unreasonable requests for supplies or support and complain when they are not granted and demand flawless work in unimportant areas while ignoring subpar work in areas that are difficult to verify but could be disastrous.

At the interpersonal level, saboteurs are advised to treat out:group members coldly, including collaborators; to stop all conversation when they enter a café to cry and sob hysterically when forced to interact with them and to boycott all extracurricular activities, entertainments, and news sources associated with such members Similar to this, a cunning saboteur might stop the formation of a cooperative endeavour by purposefully misinterpreting instructions, disputing them, or engaging in endless questions or long correspondence to get unneeded explanation The task:assignment managers are instructed to prioritise the unimportant jobs and make sure they are given to the most qualified workers before seeing that the important jobs are assigned to inefficient workers Such intentional mistaskings have three advantages: they produce inferior work, overwork and overchallenge less experienced or less skilled workers, which increases stress, and they aggravate senior or more experienced workers who feel their skills are being under:utilised or underappreciated.

CONCLUSION

Successful businesses have certain traits that distinguish them from rivals. By offering a clear direction, successfully inspiring and aligning personnel with the organization's objectives, leadership plays a critical role in fostering success. Organisations can adjust to shifting market conditions and maintain relevance when they have the innovation and agility to do so. Higher levels of performance and productivity are also a result of an organisational culture that values cooperation, employee involvement, and a feeling of purpose. A supportive work environment and employee development are also crucial since they help retain talent and encourage ongoing improvement.Organisations must cultivate these traits and incorporate them into daily operations and strategic planning if they are to achieve and sustain success. Further study is required to examine the interactions between these traits and their effects on various organisations, sectors, and cultural situations. Businesses may improve their prospects of long-term sustainability and profitability by learning the core traits of successful organisations and working to adopt them.

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PRINCIPLES OF ORGANISATION THEORY AND BEHAVIOUR

Ms. Swati Sharma*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-swatisharma@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

In order to comprehend how organisational behaviour and theory influence the operation and efficacy of organisations, this research examines these concepts. Key concepts have been determined by studying relevant literature and case studies. The division of labour, coordination and integration, hierarchy and authority, span of control, and informal organisation are some of these principles. The research emphasises the value of these concepts in raising organisational effectiveness, worker satisfaction, and overall performance. Organisations may enhance their structures, procedures, and interpersonal interactions by comprehending and putting these ideas to use.

KEYWORDS: *Art, Business, Managers, Management, Resources, Science.*

INTRODUCTION

There are several ways to describe management. The word management has been defined by a number of renowned writers; some of these definitions are reproduced below: Management is the development of people and not the direction of things, says Lawrence A. Appley. Management, in the words of Joseph Massie, is the process by which a cooperative group directs action towards common goals[1]–[4]. Management is a distinct process consisting of planning, organising, acting, and controlling performed to determine and accomplish the objectives by using people and resources, said George R. Terry. To manage is to forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to coordinate, and to control, wrote Henry Fayol. Management is a multipurpose organ that manages a business, manages managers, and manages workers and work, said Peter F. Drucker. Management is defined as the creation and maintenance of an internal environment in an enterprise where individuals working together in groups can perform efficiently and effectively towards the attainment of group goals, write Koontz and O'Donnel.

The definitions given above make it obvious that management refers to a method of obtaining labour from others in a coordinated and integrated way in order to achieve certain goals via the efficient use of material resources. Management is the process of mobilising the material, human, and financial resources and organising their use for company activities in order to achieve the set objectives. Incorporating the opinions of the various authorities, management could be described as a distinct ongoing process of allocating inputs of an organisation (human and economic resources by typical managerial functions planning, organising, directing, and controlling for the purpose of achieving stated objectives, namely-output of goods and services desired by its customers (environment). The approach involves working with and through organisational employees in a dynamic corporate environment. A universal process in all structured social and economic activity is management. It is not only limited to offices, shops, and factories. It is a

driving force in any complex organisation working to accomplish certain specified goals[5]–[7]. Businesses, government agencies, healthcare institutions, military groups, trade organisations, and other organisations all need management.

Nature and Characteristics

1.Management is a collective activity: Management is a crucial component of collective action. No one is able to completely fulfil all of their needs on their alone, so they join forces with other people and work in a structured team to do what they are unable to do so on their own.

2.Management is goal-oriented: Management works to accomplish economic and social goals. It exists to fulfil certain specific purposes or aims. In management, collective efforts are always focused on achieving a certain set of predetermined objectives.

3.Management is an element of production: While management is a means to an end, it is not a goal in and of itself. Land, labour, and capital are all production factors that are necessary for the creation of commodities and services.

4.Management has a universal nature: It may be used in all kinds of organisations. Management is present everywhere there is human activity. The fundamental management principles are applicable to all organisations, whether they are commercial, social, religious, cultural, sporting, educational, political, or military.

5.Management: It is required at all organisational levels, including the top level, intermediate level, and supervisory level. This is another significant characteristic of management. The nature of the work and the authority's reach are the only things that vary.

6.Management is a unique process: Management is a unique method used to decide and achieve the initial goal while utilising people and other resources. It is distinct from the techniques and methods used in the activities.

7.Management is a social activity: since it involves obtaining things via other people. People are involved in this. In order to get the intended outcomes, management must guide, coordinate, and control the human beings' activities.

8. **Management is a system of authority**: Since management is the act of giving men instructions on how to carry out a job, every idea of management implies that others have the authority to do the work. Without authority, management is incapable of functioning.

9.Management is a dynamic task: Management is a dynamic task that must be continually carried out. It is continually working to shape the company in a competitive business climate.

10. **Management is both a science and an art**: Management is a science since it has evolved certain principles that have universal applicability. However, management is an art in that its outcomes are dependent on the managerial staff's abilities.

Scope of Management

Management Purpose Management is a fairly broad subject. The following categories may be used to categorise the operational aspects of business management:

Production Management: Planning, organising, directing, and managing the production function in order to create the appropriate items in the right amount at the right time and for the right price is referred to as production management. It entails the following tasks: product design, plant and

building location and layout, factory planning and control, operation of material purchase and storage, repairs and maintenance, inventory cost and quality control, research and development, etc[7]–[9].

Marketing Management: Marketing management is the process of identifying customer requirements and meeting those needs by providing the products and services necessary to do so. It entails the following task. Marketing research to identify customer wants and expectations designing and creating adequate items, and establishing fair pricing choosing the appropriate distribution channel, and engaging in promotional activities like advertising and salesmanship to interact with consumers.

Financial Management: Financial management aims to provide the firm with the proper kind and quantity of funding at the appropriate time and cost. In order to maintain the safety and liquidity of funds as well as the credit- worthiness and profitability of the business, it entails the following activities. Estimating the volume of funds required for both long- term and short- term needs of the business, selecting the appropriate source of funds; raising the required funds at the proper time, ensuring proper utilisation and allocation of the funds raised; and administration of earnings. Planning, arranging, and regulating the financial resources are hence aspects of financial management.

Personnel Management: Managing an organization's human resources comprises planning, arranging, and overseeing their acquisition, growth, remuneration, upkeep, and integration. The actions that make up this process are as followsmanpower planning, recruitments, selection, training,appraisal, promotions and transfers, remuneration, employee welfare services, and personnel records and research.

Importance of Management

Every business must have effective management to perform effectively. In commercial businesses, it is much more crucial. Even with velocity, no firm can sustain itself. Every firm need consistent stimulation, which can only be given by management. Management is a dynamic life- giving element in an organisation, without it the resources of production remain merely resources and never become production, said Peter Drucker. The following examples clearly demonstrate how important management is:

(i)Achieving Group Objectives: A human group is made up of a number of individuals, each of whom has a speciality in carrying out a certain aspect of the overall activity. Even though everyone is working hard, without collaboration and coordination amongst the group members, the overall goal of the group cannot be achieved. Group cooperation and teamwork are fostered through management. He harmonises the group's aims with the members' ambitions so that everyone is inspired to contribute to the achievement of the group's objectives to the best of his ability. To keep the group's members motivated to work hard, managers give compelling leadership.

(ii) The Best Use of Resources: Managers predict the demand for supplies, equipment, funds, and labour. They make sure the organisation has enough resources while avoiding having any unused ones. They design and maintain an atmosphere that promotes the greatest levels of production. The best practises for work are used by employees, and managers ensure that they are well-versed in their tasks. Employers get training and direction from them so they may make the most of the resources at their disposal.

(iii)Cost Minimization: In today's world of fierce competition, no company can thrive unless it can provide the necessary products and services at the lowest feasible cost per unit. activities are managed by management to prevent any waste and excess. Managers make it possible for a business to remain competitive and profitable by lowering costs and boosting efficiency.

(iv)Survival and Growth: The environment in which modern company functions is undergoing tremendous change. An organisation must adjust to the changing social and commercial needs. Management makes forecasts about future trends while staying current with the current business environment. To address the difficulties of an ever-changing environment, preparations are made in advance. Risks and opportunities are both produced by changes in the business environment. By minimising risks and maximising possibilities, managers help businesses succeed. Managers support the continuation and growth of company in this manner.

(v)Employment Creation: Managers help individuals find work by establishing and growing commercial firms. Working with these organisations allows people to support their families. Managers also foster an atmosphere where employees may enjoy their work and feel fulfilled in their roles. Managers contribute in this manner to meeting the social and economic demands of their workforce.

(vi)Development of the Country: Effective administration is crucial for national development. The most important aspect of economic and social progress is management. The effectiveness of management and intergroup cooperation is a key factor in a nation's growth. Management fosters cooperation and coordination among the group members. He harmonizes the group's aims with the members' ambitions so that everyone is inspired to contribute to the achievement of the group's objectives to the best of his ability. To keep the group's members motivated to work hard, managers give compelling leadership[10].

Management as a Science or Art

Managing: A Science or an Art? Whether management is a science or an art is a common question. The adage management is the oldest of arts and the youngest of sciences is often heard. This clarifies the evolving character of management, but it leaves the question of what management is unanswered. Understanding the definitions of science and art is important in order to provide a precise response to the question. What exactly is Science? A systematic body of knowledge pertaining to an area of study and containing some general truths explaining past events or phenomena is how science is often defined. The definition provided above includes three crucial aspects of science. As follows:

1. It is a systematised body of knowledge that use scientific observational techniques.

2. Its guiding principles have been developed by repeated observation and experiment.

Its guiding principles are precise and have unrestricted global application. The following facts about management may be inferred from the aforementioned qualities of science.

1. Management is a systematised body of knowledge, and its principles have developed based on observation.

2. Since management involves the human element, the kind of experimentation as in the scientific sciences cannot be accompanied.

3. In management, repeating the same circumstances again in order to gather evidence is not a viable method for defining, analysing, and measuring events. The aforementioned finding limits management as a science. Management may be referred to be a inexact science along with other social sciences.

What exactly is Art? The term art describes the way of doing specific things; it indicates how an objective is to be achieved. Management must be an art, just like any other operational task. To ensure action and outcomes, the majority of management actions must be developed as arts to master. The definition provided above includes three crucial aspects of art. As follows:

1. Art is science in practise. It is an application of the idea.

2. After mastering a certain skill, practise is necessary to achieve the pinnacle of excellence.

3. It is done to achieve a goal via conscious effort. From the aforementioned qualities of art, it can be seen that:

i. Management is needed to follow certain underlying principles when executing the tasks of getting things done by others, which are important for every art.

ii. Management can only develop their management skills via constant practice.

iii. Management entails the ability to correctly apply information to issues, situations, and the timely and complete realization of goals. The aforementioned remark elevates administration to the level of a fine art.

Both a science and an art are involved in management. Both a science and an art go into management. The science of management offers some overarching concepts that managers may use to direct their professional work. The art of management entails effectively handling every circumstance. In actuality, neither the science nor the art of management should be overemphasized or undervalued since they work in tandem and are mutually supportive of one another. Therefore, management is both an art and a science. The saying goes, the science of management is an event of the recent past, but the art of management is as old as human history.

Evolution of Management Thought

When man began living in groups, management as we know it now first emerged. One may claim that management evolved into leadership, which was necessary to organise the group members' activities in order to provide for their basic needs. Strong men divided the populace into groups based on intellect, physical prowess, and mental capacity, as history demonstrates. The art of administration, according to Egyptian literature from 1300 B.C., was being practised in various ways by various persons. The literature amply demonstrates the understanding of the significance of administration and organisation in the bureaucratic structure. The same data are available for ancient China.

Classical Theory

The classical theory marks the start of the formal analysis of management and organisation. The conventional hypothesis is another name for it. Its origins may be traced back to the model industrial and military organisations of the 19th century. Early in the 20th century, a number of authors made contributions to classical thinking. In addition to many others, these include Taylor, Fayol, Weber, Luther Gulick, Urwick, Mooney, and Reiley. Three perspectives are included in

the classical theory: Taylor's Scientific Management, Fayol's Administrative Management, and Weber's Ideal Bureaucracy an organisation based on rules and regulations, formal interactions, specialisation, etc. For increased efficiency, all three focused on the organisational structure. The classical idea has also been advanced by a number of additional trailblazers. For instance, Mooney and Reiley wrote 'Onward Industry' in 1931 in an effort to identify organisational principles. Significant contributions afterwards came from Gullick,Urwick, Oliver Sheldon, and several others. All of these theorists were interested in organisational structure, which is why their method is frequently referred to as structural theory of organisation. Important characteristics of the classical method include:

i. The classical theory placed a strong focus on structure, scalar and functional processes, specialisation, and span of control. They focused on the structure of formal organisations as a result.

ii. The organisational structure is emphasised by classical theorists as a means of coordinating numerous activities. The importance of the human factor was disregarded.

iii. The traditional idea disregarded how the organization's operating environment may affect how well it operates. It considered organisations as closed systems as a result.

iv. By making each person more effective, the company as a whole may become more effective.

v. The central mechanism's authority and control help the organisation become more integrated. It is thus founded on the concentration of power.

vi. There is no conflict between the people in the organisation and one another. The organization's interests should take precedence in any disputes.

vii. Considering that they were expected to be rational economic persons, the people at work may be encouraged by the financial benefits.

CONCLUSION

Organisational theory and behaviour principles provide important insights into how businesses might run successfully and efficiently. By dividing up duties among people according to their abilities and expertise, the division of labour promotes specialisation and higher output. Coordination and integration make ensuring that various organisational components cooperate to achieve shared objectives, promoting efficient workflow and reducing disputes. Clear lines of authority and responsibility are established through hierarchy and authority, which encourages accountability and effective decision-making. A manager's span of control determines the ideal number of subordinates they can manage while avoiding overburden and fostering efficient communication and oversight. The informal organisation is aware of the informal networks, connections, and channels of communication that exist inside the formal structure and have the potential to affect organisational dynamics and results.

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SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT APPROACH: MAXIMIZING EFFICIENCY AND PRODUCTIVITY

Ms. Neha Saxena*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-nehasinha@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

A management strategy known as scientific management first appeared in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. It was created by Frederick Winslow Taylor with the intention of enhancing productivity and efficiency in industrial settings by using scientific concepts. This strategy includes examining work processes, standardising systems, and encouraging employees to provide their best effort. Modern management ideas are based on scientific management, which has a considerable influence on industrial practises. The main ideas and objections to the scientific management method are examined in this essay, along with its applicability to modern businesses.

KEYWORDS: *Employees, Experiments, Management, Production, Scientific, Social, Work.*

INTRODUCTION

The first industrial revolution served as the catalyst for the development of the scientific management method. This revolution required the creation of new management ideas and practises since it resulted in an extraordinarily high level of mechanisation of industry. Frederick W. Taylor, Henry L. Gantt, Frank Gilbreth, Lillian Gilbreth, and Harrington Emerson were the leading proponents of scientific management. The first individual to insist on the use of scientific management practises was F.W. Taylor (1865–1915). In the latter decade of the 19th century, he started a new movement called Scientific Management. Taylor is considered as the founder of scientific management because of this. Around the turn of the century, Taylor, an American engineer, replied to the managerial issues[1]–[4]. During that time, industries had frequent strikes and lockouts, very poor production, and severely disgruntled workers. Taylor's contribution was a scientifically based system that allowed for both increased salaries and decreased labour costs. To promote peace in the sector, he recommended that management and employee mental attitudes be changed. Applying scientific principles to management issues is known as scientific management.

F.W Taylor

Taylor promoted standardised materials, equipment, and working environments, scientific worker selection and training, time and motion study-based job planning, and other practises. It should be highlighted that Taylor's ideas were limited to shop-level management. He did, however, show that it is both possible and important to analyse management's many components scientifically. He emphasised the following ideas in summary:

1. Science, not generalisations.

2. Cooperation among group members as opposed to conflict.

3. Maximum output rather than constrained output.

4. Scientific worker recruitment, training, and placement.

5. Work and responsibility are distributed between management and employees almost equally.

The fundamental tenet of scientific management is to alter the management's and employees' mental attitudes towards one another. Three things follow from Taylor's designation of it as a Mental Revolution: All:out efforts should be made to boost productivity, mutual trust and confidence should be fostered, and a scientific approach to issues should be cultivated. Taylor recommended that management look for the best ways to complete diverse tasks and provide standardised resources, tools, and equipment to cut down on wastages. To improve the quantity and quality of output, management should choose the correct sorts of employees and provide them with the necessary training. For the staff to perform as effectively as possible, it must provide a comfortable workplace. To guarantee that work is completed using scientific methods, it should execute the decision-making role and constantly endeavour to get the most cooperation from the employees.

The employees should modify how they feel about the management. They shouldn't be shirkers at work. They should carry out the duties given to them with discipline, loyalty, and sincerity[5]–[8]. They shouldn't engage in resource waste. In order to achieve optimum productivity, management and employees should feel confident in one another and work together. Taylor advocated for management and labour to undergo a mental revolution. It should be highlighted that Taylor's ideas were limited to shop-level management. He did, however, show that it is both possible and important to analyse management's many components scientifically. Taylor and his team recommended the following methods to put the scientific management concept into practise:

1. Scientific task determination of a fair day's labour.

2. Work study to streamline tasks and boost productivity. Methods study, time study, and motion study are all included.

3. The standardisation of supplies, equipment, costing systems, and other things.

4. Employee training and selection based on science.

5. A different piece-wage model to reward the most productive employees.

6. Planning and operational specialisation via functional foremanship. Route clerk, instruction card clear, time and cost clerk, and shop discipliner are examples of foremen in the planning department. Gang boss, speed boss, repair boss, and inspector are examples of foremen in the operations department.

7. Waste elimination and system of control rationalisation.

Criticism of Scientific Management

Taylor's scientific management was criticised by the public, psychologists, employees, and managers in addition to them. Following are some of the primary criticisms:

1. The usage of the term scientific management before the word management was criticised since it simply refers to a scientific management approach.

2. To encourage specialisation in the company, Taylor promoted the idea of functional foremanship. However, in reality, a worker cannot follow directions from eight foremen, therefore this is not practical.

3. Scientific management is production-focused because it places an excessive emphasis on the technical components of work and minimises the role of people in the workplace.

4. Scientific management treats employees like extensions of emotionless machines, oblivious to their social and psychological requirements.

5. Trade unions believed that scientific management concepts were a way to exploit labour since pay for employees did not rise in direct proportion to advances in production. The other contributions to scientific management, including Henri L. Gantt, Frank Gilbreth, Lillian Gilbreth, and Harrington Emerson, eventually addressed many of the aforementioned criticisms. Many of Taylor's suggestions are currently being used by contemporary corporate endeavours. In a nutshell, Taylor was a trailblazer in bringing scientific reasoning to the field of management.

DISCUSSION

Management Process or Administrative Management Approach

According to proponents of this school, management is a process that involves the planning, arranging, directing, and managing of many activities. It is also known as the functional approach for this reason. This school's founding parent is said to be Henri Fayol. Henri Fayol outlined fourteen management principles that, in his opinion, are generally applicable after defining management in terms of certain roles. French CEO Henri Fayol emphasised that management could be learned and taught. His article captures the essence of his extensive practical experience. Administration industrielle et generale management in general and industry. Fayol made an effort to establish a management theory. He presented broad management concepts and made the case that managing skill can be learned just like any other technological skill. He established the Centre for Administrative Studies in Paris, and in addition to advocating for formal management education, he also engaged in it. He was a pioneer in management education as a result. In conclusion, Fayol's management theories still hold up today since they are so in line with what is required of management in the modern day.

Principles of Management

In 1941, Henry Fayol was born in France's Constantinople.In 1860, he earned his mining engineering degree from the National School of Mining. He worked as an engineer for a French coal mining company after graduating.He was elevated to manager after a few years. In 1888, he was named the general manager of his business. The business had sustained huge losses at the time and was on the verge of bankruptcy[9]–[11]. Henry Fayol was able to take his business from a precarious financial condition to one that included sustained earnings and dividend payments. Management concept: The current philosophy of general and industrial management is credited to Henry Fayol.

1. He created six categories to represent general and industrial management: Production, manufacturing, and adaption are examples of technical activity.

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2. Commercial activity, including exchanging, buying, and selling.

3. Financial activities. locating and using capital to its fullest potential.

4. Security activities. safeguarding people and property.

5. Accounting tasks. inventory, cost, balance sheet, and statistics. Planning, organisation, command, coordination, and control are examples of managerial activities. Any kind of company required the proper execution of these six tasks. However, he emphasised that the capacity to manage, the last function, was crucial for managers at the highest levels. The concept of general management by Fayol really serves as the foundation for the management process as a continual managerial cycle encompassing planning, organising, directing, coordinating, and regulating. As a result, it is said that Fayol set out the paradigm for management theory and practise. The management method is still well-known today.

Fayol's Management Principles

The management principles are listed below:

1. Work Division: Specialisation or work division alone may provide the highest levels of productivity and efficiency. Only via the division of labour and specialisation can both technical and management tasks be carried out to the best of their abilities.

2. Authority and Responsibility: The capacity to establish rules is referred to as authority. Responsibility is the quality of having a task to do. The two sides of management are authority and responsibility. Together, they are real. They work well together and are dependant on one another.

3.Discipline: Each member of an organisation must uphold the organization's goals, rules & laws, policies, and procedures. The rules, goals, regulations, and processes must all be agreed upon in a transparent and equitable manner. Punishments must exist for disobedience or lack of discipline. Without disciplinepreferably volunteer disciplineno group can operate effectively.

4.Unity of Command: Every member of an organisation must only take commands and follow directions from one superior in order to prevent confusion and conflict.

5.Unity of Direction: To achieve shared goals, an organization's members must cooperate.

6. Personal Interests: Emphasis on Personal Interests Being Subordinate to General or Common Interests: This is also known as the cooperative concept. All must work for all, and all must work for all. In every cooperative venture, the general or common interest must take precedence.

7.Compensation: The finest incentive or motivator for high performance might be fair compensation combined with non-monetary benefits. Any kind of employee exploitation has to stop. A good compensation plan combines sufficient monetary and non-monetary incentives.

8.Centralization: The centralization and decentralisation of authority and power must be balanced well. Avoiding both extreme centralization and decentralisation is necessary.

9.Scalar Chain: The organization's members are connected from the top to the bottom by a chain or hierarchy of command created by the unity of command. Scalar refers to actions.

10. Order: According to Fayol, everything has its own place. Sound organisational structure and effective management may be produced by order or system alone.

11.Equity: An organisation is made up of a number of individuals working together. Equity, or justice, must thus exist. We cannot have appropriate and sustained cooperative engagement without equality.

12.Stability of Tenure: It takes time for a person to become used to new task and eventually show efficiency. Consequently, both workers and managers need to have job security. Sound organisation and management need job and income security.

13.Esprit of Co-operation: A strong organisation is built on esprit de corps. Strength is in unity. But cooperation is necessary for unity. Good performance is a result of pride, loyalty, and belonging.

14.Initiative: The ability to think creatively and act on our own initiative may help us develop and implement solid management strategies.

Human Relation Approach

Weber, Taylor, and Fayol were among of the classical authors that disregarded the human relations component. Neoclassicists concentrated on the social side of business. By highlighting the fact that organisations are social systems and that people play the most significant role in them, they amended the conventional idea. They explored informal groups, informal relationships, communication patterns, patterns of informal leadership, etc. via several experiments known as the Hawthorne Experiments. The human relations method was developed as a result of this. Most people agree that Elton Mayo founded the Human Relations School. Roethlisberger, Dickson, Dewey, Lewin, and others have also made significant contributions to these institutions.

Recognising the value of the human element in businesses is central to the human relations approach. It demonstrated the significance of psychological and social elements in regulating the output and satisfaction of employees. It had a crucial role in developing a new perception of man and the workplace. The neoclassical or human relations approach placed emphasis on workplace informal groupings and interpersonal relationships. According to the human relations school of thought, achieving organisational goals requires people's voluntarily collaboration, which cannot be automatically secured or directed. It must be actively pursued. The neo-classical approach promoted an organisational structure that is focused on people and integrates both official and informal groupings. The following are the fundamental principles of neo-classical theory or the human relations approach:

1. The corporate structure is a social system.

2. The informal group that a person belongs to controls his or her behaviours.

3. A single employee cannot be driven only by financial rewards. To increase motivation, his social and psychological requirements must be met.

4. In an organisation, a cooperative mentality, not a stronger command style, is ultimately what produces results.

5. In addition to focusing on technical abilities, management must also work to improve social and leadership qualities. It must be concerned about the wellbeing of its employees.

6. In a company, morale and production go hand in hand.

Hawthrone Studies

A group of researchers from the Harvard Business School headed by George Elton Mayo and Fritz J. Roethlisberger were asked to participate in the experiments in 1927 at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago. The trial continued until 1932. In the past, between 1924 and 1927, the National Research Council conducted a study with the Western Electric Company to ascertain how lighting and other factors affected employees and their productivity.The following are some of the key stages of the Hawthorne experiments:

1. Experiments in illumination.

2. Test room experiments for relay assembly.

3. Programme for Mass Interviewing.

4. The Observation Room Experiment with Bank Wiring.

5. llumination experiments, 1924–1927, to ascertain the impact of changes in light on production.

6. Relay assembly test room experiments, 1927–1928. Experiments to determine the effects of changes in hours and other working conditions on productivity.

7. Mass interviewing programme, 1928–1930.

8. Determination and analysis of social organisation at work, bank wiring observation room experiments, 1931–1932.

1. Illumination Experiments

Illumination studies were conducted to see how productivity was impacted by various degrees of illumination the quantity of light in the workplace, a physical issue. The idea was that production would rise with more light. A group of employees was picked and divided into two groups for the first set of tests. One group was exposed to lighting of various intensity. This group was referred to as an experimental group since it underwent experimental adjustments. Another group, known as the control group, continued to operate with consistent lighting levels. The researchers discovered that both groups' output rose when the experimental group's lighting was raised. Production increased in both groups even when the light intensity was reduced. Only when the lighting was reduced to moonlight level did the output in the experimental group decline. Light levels were substantially lower than usual, which caused the drop. As a result, it was determined that something else was impeding production rather than lighting, which had no impact on it. At the time, it was determined that the human component had a significant role in determining productivity, but it was unclear which part was having an impact. Consequently, a new round of testing was conducted.

2.Relay Assembly Test Room Experiments

As the illumination tests were unable to establish a link between the intensity of lighting and production, relay assembly test room experiments were created to ascertain the impact of modifications in different work circumstances on group productivity. The researchers recruited two females and set up a relay assembly test room for this purpose. These girls were instructed to choose additional female coworkers. The task included telephone relay assembly. Girls put together the many elements of each relay to create the completed result. The output was based on

how quickly and consistently the females worked. The tests began with the introduction of a number of alterations in succession, each lasting four to twelve weeks. Girls were assigned an observer to monitor their efforts. The girls were asked for input prior to the introduction of each alteration. They were given the chance to discuss their opinions and concerns with the manager. They were given the authority to make choices in specific situations that affected them.The following were the modifications and their results:

1. The bonus pay for each female was adjusted such that it now depended more on the performance of the other five than it did on the production of a bigger group, such as 100 employees or so. The productivity is higher than it was previously.

2. Two five-minute breaks were added and expanded to 10 minutes, one in the morning session and the other in the evening session. There was a rise in output.

3. While frequency was increased, the rest period was cut in half to five minutes. A minor drop in productivity was seen, and the girls complained that the frequent breaks disrupted the flow of their work.

4. The rest period was cut down to two breaks of ten minutes each, but in the morning, coffee or soup was supplied with the sandwich, and in the evening, a snack was offered. There was a rise in output.

5. Modifications to the workday and working hours were made, including the elimination of Saturday work and the slashing of the day's last hour. Productivity rose when the females were permitted to depart at 4.30 p.m. rather than the customary 5.00 p.m.

Absenteeism dropped, morale rose, and less monitoring was needed as each adjustment was implemented. It was considered that these beneficial characteristics existed as a result of the numerous elements having been improved and made more favourable. The researchers then made the decision to return to their first strategy, which excluded rest and other advantages. Rather of declining, productivity unexpectedly rose.The conclusion suggested that productivity rose not as a consequence of favourable improvements in physical variables but rather as a result of the shift in the girls' attitudes towards work and their work group. This development prompted a significant quantity of thought to be redirected. They gradually acquired a sense of security and kinship. They acquired a feeling of accountability and self-discipline since they had greater independence in their job. The supervisor-employee connection became warm and cordial.

Mass Interviewing Programme

A total of 20,000 interviews were done between 1928 and 1930 as part of the trials to see how workers felt about the business, their managers, insurance plans, promotions, and pay. These interviews were first performed using straightforward questions such, do you like your supervisor? or do you think he's fair or does he favour anyone? etc. This approach was altered to non-directive interviewing, where the interviewer was instructed to listen instead of talking, arguing, or giving advice. This method has the downside of fostering conflict or the simplistic yes or no replies that cannot get to the bottom of the issue. The interview schedule provided insightful information regarding organisational conduct.The following are some of the program's key findings:

1. A complaint is not always a list of unvarnished facts; rather, it is a sign of a deeper-seated personal distress.

2. Social meanings are carried by things, people, or events. Only when the employee starts to consider things in the context of his or her own personal circumstances do they start to connect to employee happiness or discontent.

3. The worker's personal situation is a configuration made up of his or her personal preference, which includes feelings, wants, and interests, and the social context, which includes the person's social background and current interpersonal relationships.

4. The worker attaches meaning and value to the events, objects, and qualities of his surroundings, such as work hours, pay, etc., based on his position or standing within the organisation.

5. The social structure of the organisation functions as a set of values from which the employee obtains happiness or discontent based on how his social standing is seen and the social benefits that are anticipated.

6. Social experience in groups, both within and outside of the workplace, has an impact on a worker's social needs. Interviews revealed that group conduct was having an impact on the behaviour of the employees. The researchers decided to carry out yet another set of studies since this finding was not entirely satisfying. As a result, a thorough investigation into a shop scenario was launched to ascertain the attitude of employees in small groups.

Bank Wiring Room Experiment

These studies were carried out to see how small groups affected people. 14 male employees were assembled into a small work group for the experiment. The workers were working on putting together terminal banks for use in phone exchanges. The task entailed connecting cable with switches for specific telephone exchange equipment. Each employee's hourly compensation was determined based on their average production. Bonuses are also given based on teamwork. Highly effective employees were predicted to exert pressure on less effective employees to enhance productivity and take advantage of the group incentive scheme. However, the plan did not succeed, and employees instead formed their own standards of performance, which they then actively upheld using a variety of social pressure techniques.

The employees gave a variety of explanations for their actions, including fear of losing their jobs, worry about an increase in productivity, a desire to protect slow workers, etc. The Hawthorne tests unequivocally shown that a man's motivation for labour is greater than the satisfying of his material necessities. Management has to understand that individuals are fundamentally social creatures and not just economic beings. They belong to a group because they are social beings, and management should endeavour to comprehend group psychology and attitudes. On the basis of the Hawthorne investigations, Prof. Mayo came to the following basic conclusions:

1. Social Unit: A factory is a social unit as well as a techno-economic unit. Males are sociable creatures. This workplace social trait is crucial in encouraging employees. Due to a social group in the relay room operating efficiently and having a good rapport with its managers, productivity rose.

2. Group Influence: Through informal organisation, the members of a group build a psychological link that binds them together as a unit. These groupings have an impact on their behaviours. The pressure from inside a group, as opposed to managerial requirements, typically has the most impact on how productive employees would be.

3.Group Behaviour: Management has to be aware that common group behaviours may outweigh or even replace individual tendencies.

4. Motivation: Human and social motivation may influence and motivate employee groups much more than simple monitory rewards can.

5. Supervision: The way a person is supervised has an impact on his productivity and attitude towards his task. A manager who is approachable with his staff and shows an interest in their social issues will get their cooperation and produce greater outcomes.

6. Working circumstances: The organization's productivity rises as a consequence of better working circumstances.

7. **Employee Morale**: Mayo emphasised that employees weren't just cogs in the machine; rather, both individual and group employee morale may have a significant impact on production.

8. Communication: Research has shown that including employees in the decision making process and explaining the reasoning behind different choices enhances production.

9. Balanced Approach: Management cannot get the outcomes by focusing on only one component in order to handle the challenges of the workforce. It is necessary to address all the issues and make decisions in order to improve the overall situation. Results may be improved by taking a balanced approach to the whole circumstance.

CONCLUSION

Frederick Taylor was a pioneer of the scientific management technique, which completely changed how businesses handled personnel management and labour operations. It significantly increased production at the time because of its focus on efficiency, standardisation, and incentives. The strategy has, however, come under fire for having the ability to dehumanise people and ignore qualitative components of employment. Many of the scientific management ideas still hold true in modern organisations, notwithstanding these critiques.Organisations nowadays aim for productivity and efficiency, and the scientific management method provides insightful information in these areas. Organisations may improve their operations by incorporating ideas like process analysis, bottleneck identification, and standard operating procedures. Additionally, it's a common practise to provide incentives and prizes to inspire workers.

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CONCEPT OF BUISNESS ORGANIZATION AND ITS FORMS

Dr. Vijayarengam Gajapathy*

*Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-vgajapathy@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

A management strategy known as scientific management first appeared in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. It was created by Frederick Winslow Taylor with the intention of enhancing productivity and efficiency in industrial settings by using scientific concepts. This strategy includes examining work processes, standardising systems, and encouraging employees to provide their best effort. Modern management ideas are based on scientific management, which has a considerable influence on industrial practises. The main ideas and objections to the scientific management method are examined in this essay, along with its applicability to modern businesses.

KEYWORDS: *Business, Company, Legal, Partner, Partnership, Propertiorship.*

INTRODUCTION

An organization that conducts business is one that offers products or services to satisfy the demands of its clients. All corporate organizations have characteristics including formal structures, goals for achieving objectives, resource utilization, a need for direction, and laws governing them.Characteristics of the business organization type known as a sole proprietorship

(a)Single Ownership: A sole proprietorship is a kind of business structure where a single person establishes the company by assembling all the necessary resources.

(b)There is no separation between ownership and management: The owner controls the company on their own, using their own knowledge and abilities. As with a corporate type of business arrangement, ownership and management are not separated.

(c)Less Legal Formalities: There are no formal legal requirements to set up and maintain a sole proprietorship type of company structure. As a result, its creation is quick and straightforward.

(d)No Separate Entity: There is no entity distinct from the owner that governs the business unit. The businessman is accountable for everything that occurs in his business unit since he is both the commercial enterprise and the businessman in one.

(e)No Profit or Loss Sharing: The solitary owner keeps all earnings for themselves. He also bears the full weight of the loss at the same moment. There is no one else there to split the company's gains and losses. He alone assumes the risks and benefits from the gains.

(f)Infinite responsibility: The lone owner is subject to an infinite amount of responsibility. In the event of a loss, his personal property may also be used to settle the firm's debts if the commercial assets are insufficient to cover them.

(g)One-man Control: The single proprietorship business's owner always retains the right to exercise control over it. He/she operates the company according to his/her own whim.

Values of the Sole Proprietorship Form of Company

1. Complete control: Complete control over the whole firm, enabling swift decision-making and complete flexibility to conduct business as desired.

2. There are minimal legal requirements since there is no legislation requiring a sole proprietorship to make its financial reports or any other similar chapters available to the public. This gives the company a lot of secrecy, which may be crucial in the commercial world.

3. Maximum rewards: The firm offers the owner the most incentive. He is not required to distribute any of his earnings. His efforts in the company are so fully rewarded via incentives.

4.No needless processes: Because there aren't many individuals engaged, the standard hierarchical procedures seen in a firm are eliminated. One benefit of running your company by yourself is that you are not held accountable to anybody, and you are not required to share your profits or ask others to take on your losses.

Limitations

(a) Limited Resources: A solitary proprietor's resources are constantly constrained. Being the only owner, he is not always able to get enough funding via his own means. Once again, borrowing money from banks or from friends and family has its own consequences. Therefore, the owner's ability to raise money for his company is constrained[1]–[3].

(b)Lack of continuation: The owner's life and the business's continuation are intertwined. The owner's illness, death, or bankruptcy may cause the firm to close. As a result, company continuation is unpredictable.

(c)Unlimited Liability: As you already know, the firm and its owner are one and the same thing. The owner and the company are considered to be one and the same in legal terms. Therefore, the owner's personal assets may also be utilised to pay off corporate debts and responsibilities.

(d) Unsuitable for Operations on a Large Scale: Because it has limited management and resource capabilities, the sole proprietorship form of company organisation is unsuitable for operations on a large scale.

(e) Limited Management Experience: Lack of managing experience is a constant problem for single proprietorship businesses. One individual probably won't be a specialist in every industry, including buying, selling, financing, etc. Again, due to restricted financial resources and the size of the company, hiring expert managers for sole proprietorship forms of business organizations is not an option.

Partnership Firm

There are certain restrictions on the proprietorship type of ownership, including limited resources, limited competence, and limitless liability. Business expansion entails more risk, as well as demands more resources and management expertise. He is unable to satisfy these conditions, according to a proprietor. This is a call for more people to get together, from various backgrounds, and form a company. For instance, a person has capital but poor administrative abilities. Yet another competent boss who could need resources. Partnership is the term used to

describe when these people join forces, combine their resources and talents, and establish a company. The restrictions or drawbacks of proprietorship are primarily responsible for the growth of partnerships[4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

Main Features

The following summary of the primary characteristics of the partnership type of company ownership/organisation is more logical given the aforementioned definitions:

1.More People: In contrast to a sole proprietorship, a partnership company must have at least two individuals and a maximum of 10 for banking business and twenty for non-banking business.

2. Profit and Loss Sharing: The partners have made a deal to split the gains made and losses suffered from the partnership operation.

3. Relationship established via a written or verbal contract between the couples.

4. The existence of a legal business: A partnership is created to operate a legal business and share its gains and losses. For instance, if the goal is to carry out certain philanthropic services, it is not viewed as a partnership.

5.Absolute Good Faith and Honesty: The foundation of a partnership firm is absolute good faith and trust between the partners.

6. Limitlessresponsibilities: Similar to a sole proprietorship, each partner in a corporation has limitless responsibility. This implies that the partners' private assets will also be utilised for this purpose if the partnership firm's assets are insufficient to fulfil the firm's responsibilities.

7.Share Transfer Restrictions: No partner may transfer his share to a third party without the approval of the other partners.

8. **Principal-Agent Relationship**: Any partner may act on behalf of the other partners or the partnership company as a whole. Each partner has the right to speak for the firm and the other partners when negotiating business deals. A partner serves as an agent for both the business and the other partners in this manner.

Benefits of partnership as an ownership structure for businesses include the following.

1.Simple Formation: A partnership is an agreement between partners to operate a business. As a result, it is rather simple to construct. There are not many formalities related to formation. Although registering a partnership is preferable, it is not required.

2. More Capital Is Available: As we just saw, sole proprietorships are constrained by a lack of funding. Because more than one individual now contributes money to the business, partnership effectively solves this issue. Additionally, it boosts the company's ability to borrow money. Additionally, since the risk of loss is shared among many partners as opposed to just one, financial institutions see financing to a partnership as less risky than to a proprietorship[7]–[9].

3. Combining Talent, Judgement, and Skill: Because there are several owners in a partnership, decision-making involves all of the partners. Typically, partners are brought together from several specialist fields to complement one another. One partner may be an expert in manufacturing, another in finance, and the third in marketing, for instance, if there are three partners. The

company now has the benefit of pooled experience to make wiser judgements. Therefore, the adage two heads are better than one is applicable to partnerships.

4.Diffusion of Risk: As you just saw, a solo owner is solely responsible for the firm's losses, but in a partnership, each partner contributes to the losses in accordance with their agreed-upon profit:sharing ratios. As a result, each partner's loss-sharing percentage will be lower than it would be in a sole proprietorship.

5. Flexibility: The partnership company is versatile, much like the sole proprietorship. The partners are able to recognise and respond to shifting circumstances with ease. No enormous corporation can restrict such swift and innovative answers to fresh possibilities.

6.**Tax Benefit**: Partnerships often have lower tax rates than sole proprietorships and corporations do.

Disadvantages

Despite the benefits mentioned above, the partnership type of company structure has certain disadvantages as well. The following are descriptions of various drawbacks/disadvantages:

1. Infinite Liabilities: Partners in a partnership business are subject to an infinite amount of liabilities. Similar to a sole proprietorship, if a partnership fails to pay its obligations, the members' personal assets may be at danger[10], [11].

2. Division of Authority: In certain cases, the adage two heads are better than one might really mean too many cooks spoil the broth. Each partner is free to do their duties in the areas that interest them. However, there is a risk for disagreements between the partners in cases like formulating corporate strategy. Many partnerships have been dissolved as a result of disagreements between the partners on business issues.

3. Lack of Continuity: When one partner passes away or quits, the relationship ends. So, the future of the cooperation is still questionable.

4. Risk of Implied Authority: Each partner acts as an agent for the partnership business, which poses the risk of implied authority. As a result, his choices affect all of the partners. Sometimes, an inept partner might cause problems for the company by making poor judgments. Decisions made by one partner carry risk, which the other partners must also bear. Therefore, selecting a business partner is similar to selecting a life partner for marriage.

Joint Stock Company

A joint stock corporation is a voluntarily organised group of people with perpetual succession, distinct legal existence, and a common seal. Divided into transferable shares is its capital. Features:

1. Separate Legal Existence: It is a separate legal entity that is independent of its members and was established by law. It is able to possess property, sign contracts, and bring legal actions in its own name.

2. Permanent Existence:A company's life is unaffected by death, bankruptcy, insanity, or a change in its membership. It can only be ended by following the established legal process. Limited Liability: Each member's liability is limited at the nominal value of the shares he purchased or the sum for which he provided a guarantee.

3. **Share Transferability:**Shares of publicly traded companies are readily transferrable. However, there are several limitations on the transfer of private firm shares. The common seal, which is attached to all of the company's key chapters, serves as its official signature.

4. **Separation of Ownership and Control:** Elected shareholders' representatives, referred to both individually as directors and together as the board of directors, are in charge of managing the firm.

Merits

1. **Limited Responsibility**: A shareholder's limited liability lowers the amount of risk he assumes.

2. **Interest Transfer:** The simplicity with which shares may be transferred makes them more appealing as investment vehicles.

3. **Perpetual Existence**: A company's existence is unaffected by a member's death, insanity, bankruptcy, or change in membership. Only in accordance with the terms of the Companies Act may a company be dissolved.

4. **Scope for Expansion**: Due to limited liability, simple transferability, and the potential for large returns, a business may raise a significant amount of money from an infinite number of members.

5. **Professional Management**: A firm may afford to hire highly skilled professionals in several business management fields.

Limitations

1. **Legal Formalities**: The process of forming a business is quite drawn:out, costly, and time-consuming, and it requires the completion of several legal formalities.

2. **Lack of Secrecy**: In the case of a public corporation, it is exceedingly difficult to retain secret since the firm is compelled to disclose and submit its annual reports and financial statements. Lack of motivation is caused by the separation of ownership and control and the absence of a clear connection between effort and reward.

3. **Delay in Making Decisions**: Quick choices and rapid actions are prohibited by red tape and bureaucracy. There isn't much room for independent thought.

4. **Oligarchic Management**: Although a company claims to be democratically run, the Board of Directors really controls it. Sometimes they make judgments without considering the interests of the company's shareholders or the company's financial well-being.

CONCLUSION

Frederick Taylor was a pioneer of the scientific management technique, which completely changed how businesses handled personnel management and labour operations. It significantly increased production at the time because of its focus on efficiency, standardisation, and incentives. The strategy has, however, come under fire for having the ability to dehumanise people and ignore qualitative components of employment. Many of the scientific management ideas still hold true in modern organisations, notwithstanding these critiques. Organisations nowadays aim for productivity and efficiency, and the scientific management method provides insightful information in these areas. Organisations may improve their operations by

incorporating ideas like process analysis, bottleneck identification, and standard operating procedures. Additionally, it's a common practise to utilise incentives and prizes to inspire workers.

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DESIGNING THE FRAMEWORK: EXPLORING ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

Mr. Venkatesh Ashokababu*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-ashokababu@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

An organization's performance and efficiency are greatly influenced by its organisational structure. It includes how connections, jobs, and duties are set up inside the organisation. This essay investigates the value of organisational structure in promoting member cooperation, decision-making, and communication. The pros and disadvantages of several organisational structure types, including functional, divisional, matrix, and network structures, are studied. Additionally, the effect of organisational structure on worker motivation, creativity, and flexibility is examined. The chapter ends by emphasising the need for organisations to routinely assess and modify their structural layout in order to satisfy changing customer expectations and maintain competitiveness in fast-paced business contexts.

KEYWORDS: *Division, Functional, Organization, Project, Staff, Structure.*

INTRODUCTION

First and foremost, we must keep in mind that the organising process produces an organisational structure. The description of the scope of control, management, and authority is included with the definition of the different positions, departments, and duties in the organisation. The interactions between different enterprise participants are also included. An organisational structure is, in essence, a framework for carrying out management and operational duties. This is due to the fact that it specifies the scope or depth of management. In other words, it clearly states who is a superior's subordinate and to whom he or she is a subordinate in order to specify power[1]–[3]. In essence, this draws attention to the many levels of management within an organisation and enables correlation and cooperation amongst people. When it comes to the importance of organisational structure, it helps an organisation develop and evolve. In the changing corporate environment, an organisation with a static structure and a consequent aversion to change may quickly become obsolete. Therefore, it's crucial to understand that an organisation has to adapt its organisational structure anytime it develops and becomes more complicated. Additionally, effective organisational design supports efficient commercial operations. And last, it helps with responsibility control and coordination inside the company. As a result, this makes it possible for the business to work as a cohesive whole[4]–[6].

Key Elements of Organizational Structure

An organisational structure is made up of the following five components: job design, departmentalization, delegation, span of control, and chain of command. These components make up an organisational chart and establish the actual organisational structure. The term

departmentation describes how a company sets up its positions to organise work. The number of people who report to a manager is referred to as the Span of Control. A line of authority is referred to as a chain of command.

Organisation Structure Types

The organisational structure is divided into two categories based on the kind of activities carried out.

(i) Functional Organisation.

(ii) Divisional Organisation.

Functional Organization

In a functional structure, grouping is based on functions, as the name implies. This implies that related tasks are combined into functions, and important functions are further divided into departments, each of which is directed by a coordinating head. These departments may also include sections. A basic and straightforward organisational structure is the functional structure.

Advantages

1. Functional structure is organised so that each employee completes a certain set of responsibilities as part of his daily duties since functions are at the centre of it. This effectively makes space for job specialisation and effective labour use.

2. Again, this structure makes it easier to coordinate and regulate things since related jobs are put together under a function and focus is placed on certain functions.

3. We keep related activities close together and dissimilar jobs apart in a functional framework. This suggests that duplication is not possible.

4. This really brings down costs. The emphasis is mostly on a narrow set of abilities, making staff training simpler.

5. Additionally, this raises management effectiveness, which raises profit margins. Finally, it makes sure that all of the various jobs get an equal amount of attention.

Disadvantages

1. The specification of the functional structure itself is a significant flaw. It emphasises separation based on an enterprise's functions, as was previously indicated. As it focuses on the many roles, there is often a greater focus on departmental interests than the interests of the company as a whole. Technically, this might result in the rise of functional empires and even a decline in the importance of organisational goals.

2. Again, communication between the departments is quite difficult since their operational models are so dissimilar.

3. There may be a conflict of interest among various departments, each of which is actively pursuing its own objectives. Conflicts of this kind may impede an organization's expansion. Such disputes may also develop if there is no distinct division of responsibilities.

4. People's perceptions become limited and they lose appreciation for other points of view when they are constantly dealing with the same chores. As a result, they fail to grow as people and continue to be hooked on certain concepts. Overall, this results in rigidity.

DISCUSSION

Divisional Structure

As its name implies, a divisional structure sees an organisation as the fusion of several divisions. We must keep in mind that such a structure is used in big, complicated businesses that deal with a variety of goods. This is due to the fact that an organisation may deal in a broad range of diverse items even while it generates a homogenous set of products. Once again, the company takes this action to handle complexity.We must keep in mind that with a structure like this, the company is broken up into discrete business units or divisions that operate somewhat independently and with a variety of functions. At the top of each unit is a divisional manager who oversees all divisional activities. Additionally, each division handles the majority of the tasks like manufacturing, finance, etc. to accomplish a single objective. In essence, any business is split up into several divisions that further customise the functional structure. For instance, the Reliance group offers a variety of product lines, including those for electronics, clothes, and communications[7]–[9].

Advantages

1. Each divisional leader in this instance is responsible for managing every part of the division. As a consequence, the divisional head develops a variety of skill sets rather than being fixated on specialty, which eventually makes him a qualified candidate for higher job positions.

2. Once again, the division head is solely accountable for each division. As a result, the division head oversees all activities within the division. Consequently, this aids in performance evaluation. A division's bad performance is also the fault of the division chief. This makes it easier to take prompt corrective action.

3. Each division operates as a self-sufficient, independent entity. As a result, it encourages initiative, flexibility, and quicker decision-making.

4. The divisional organisation has the significant benefit of encouraging growth. Evidently, if a company wants to join the market for a new product, it can easily do so by creating a new division for that product line without affecting the current structure.

Disadvantages

1. A company's organisational structure encourages the development of independent divisions. As a result, a division could attempt to compete with other divisions in order to increase its earnings, which would impede the expansion of the organisation as a whole.

2. Similar sets of operations are carried out by every unit. In the situation, there is a duplication of tasks, which raises total spending.

3. Finally, a divisional manager has a lot of influence under this arrangement. An autonomous manager may emerge as a consequence, one who may prioritise the interests of the division above those of the company.

1.Line Organisation: The simplest and earliest kind of organisational structure is the line organisation. It is referred to as a departmental, scalar, or military kind of organisation. In this

structure, power is distributed horizontally and directly from the top of the administrative hierarchy to lower-level managers and employees, and finally to the operative level of workers. At each level, authority, responsibility, and accountability are clearly defined by line organisation. The employees of the Line organisation have a direct role in fulfilling the organization's goals.

a. The line organisation structure is relatively easy to comprehend and use, which is one of its benefits.

b. Feedback can be addressed more quickly and communication is quick and simple.

c. Authority and accountability are set and consolidated at every level, so everyone understands who they are ultimately accountable to and who they are liable to in law.

d. It offers more control and discipline inside the organisation and is particularly helpful when the firm is small.

e. It enables quick decision-making and efficient cooperation. It is thus affordable and efficient.

f. In a line-based organisation, employees get to know one another better and often develop a strong sense of community.

g. The system can adapt to shifting circumstances simply because each executive is in charge of just one area of duty.

Line organisation has a number of drawbacks, including the fact that

a. It is a rigid and inflexible structure.

b. Line authority has a propensity to take on a dictatorial nature.

c. It overburdens the executive with urgent tasks, leaving long-term planning and policy creation often unattended.

d. Specialisation and experts are not allowed, which is crucial for growth and optimisation.

e. Instead of the interests and welfare of the whole organisation, certain departments may be more concerned with their own self-interests.

f. It is probably going to promote nepotism.

g. It doesn't provide any mechanisms for rewarding outstanding employees and punishing bad ones.

Line and Staff Organisation

Large businesses often use this kind of organisational structure. The line in line and staff organisation is expanded to include the functional experts. Simple staff often has little command power over line managers and is mostly consultative in nature. The following is how Allen defined line and staff organisation. The staff refers to those organisational components that enable the line functions to operate most efficiently in achieving the main goals of the businesses. Line functions are those that have direct responsibility for achieving the objectives of the companies. Staffs support line managers in their tasks in a line and staff organisation in order to achieve high performance. Therefore, in a company that manufactures textiles, the production manager, marketing manager, and finance manager may be considered line executives, and the departments they oversee may be referred to as line departments. The executives who handle staff duties

include the public relations manager, the quality control manager, and the personnel manager, who deal with the hiring, training, and placement of employees, respectively. Here, it is preferable to examine the potential staff members of an organisation.

Types of Staff

All of the aforementioned employee organisations have one thing in common: they support the company's core operations. But there are several employee categories. The following three primary divisions might be listed:

1. Personal employees.

2. Professional Staff.

3. General Staff

1. **Personal Staff**: A personal assistant or advisor assigned to the line executive at any level is referred to as personal staff. His primary responsibility is to support and counsel the line executive as well as complete any other tasks delegated to him. The private secretary is a common example of a personal staff member in company. This individual may manage the executive's personal chequebook, purchase him holiday gifts, and schedule his appointments. On the same rationale, personal staff aides are assigned to general or corporate leaders. Their time is too important to be used on mundane tasks associated with everyday life[10].

2. **Specialist Personnel**: The specialist personnel are experts in their respective disciplines. The personnel who conduct the particular tasks are known as the specialised employees. Taking accounting, human resources, engineering, and research as examples. One guy can no longer become proficient in all the several specialties required in the current huge corporation. As a result, the general, the business president, and maybe the department head are given access to specialists in each field to advise them on the many specialties available. These experts might fill any of the following roles. Advisory Capacity: Its goal is to provide management with expert guidance and support as required. Legal, public relations, and economic growth are a few common topics handled by advisory personnel. Service Capacity. This group has the ability to deliver a service that benefits the company as a whole rather than just one department or function. An example would be the human resources division, which assists businesses by finding and preparing the required staff for all divisions. Research and development, buying, statistical analysis, insurance issues, etc. are other service areas. c. regulates Capacity: This refers to the ability to enforce standards and regulate quality via the use of quality control personnel.

3. **General Staff**: The Chief Executive must make any decisions that transcend departmental boundaries. It cannot be assigned to a line department head or the head of a specialist staff group since such department heads would naturally object to meddling in their department from someone who is not in any sense their superior. A common example would be a modification to the company's overall organisational structure, such as combining two departments under one leader or creating a new top-level department. The general staff members may help and free up the top man's time by doing certain tasks that cannot be assigned. True, the chief cannot assign any of these duties to a member of the general staff, but he often may assign portions of each. The general staff member's job description most often refers to assistance to the firm president or other executive.

Benefits of Line and Staff Organisation:

Line officers may focus primarily on the doing function since staff members handle the planning and investigative tasks. Specialisation offers professional guidance and managerial efficiency.

1. Decisions may be made with ease since the organisation includes both line and staff roles.

2. The staff officers provide the line police with comprehensive factual information on behaviour both within and outside of their respective units. It will facilitate better coordination.

3. It gives employees a good chance to enhance their careers.

4. Training grounds for the various roles are offered by the staff services.

5. With proper structure, it is simple to achieve a balance between the different activities.

6. The system is adaptable, allowing staff members to engage in new activities without having to immediately modify their queue arrangements.

7. Staff experts have a conceptual orientation towards the future, the time to prepare programmes and strategies, and the ability to evaluate the implications of anticipated future occurrences.

Disadvantages of Line and Staff Organization

Confusion and disagreement may develop between line and staff, which is a drawback of the line and staff organisational structure because staff employees at lower levels may be misled by a variety of line instructions and staff recommendations and because the division of power and duty is unclear.

1. Staff usually give the lines advice, but the lines make decisions and take action. As a result, the personnel often feel helpless.

2. The firm may not benefit from relying too much on staff officers since line employees risk losing much of their discretion and originality.

3. Staff members often possess specialist knowledge and expertise. Despite staff recommendations, Line makes the ultimate judgements. Therefore, staff officers may be disliked.

4. Staff officers often have advanced degrees;therefore, their opinions may lean more towards the theoretical and intellectual than the practical.

5. Although professional guidance is accessible, it only gets to the staff members via the managers. Here, it runs the risk of causing further confusion and misinterpretation.

6. It is costly because staff experts seek greater compensation.

7. Due to a lack of power, the staff is unable to carry out its strategy or suggestions. As a result, they sometimes lose their effectiveness, which makes them thoughtless and uninterested in their work.

8. Because the lines are carried out in accordance with the advice given by the staff, if things go well, the staff is given credit, and if they don't, the lines are held accountable.

Project Organization Structure

The specialists from various functional departments, such as production, engineering, quality control, marketing research, etc., will be brought together to work on the project of achieving the

goal of developing new product. This organisational structure is temporarily formed for specific projects for a specific period of time. Once the project is over, these professionals return to their original responsibilities. In reality, the project organisation is built up to address the key flaws in the functional organisation, including the lack of coordination, the lack of a single chain of command, and the delay in making decisions.

Benefits of Project Organisation

1. It is an excellent example of how environment, strategy, and structure are related.

2. The organization of operations according to each project leads to the establishment of new authority structures.

3. The professionals from several departments are brought together to work on the project, which aids in coordination.

4. It promotes meaningful control and a preoccupation on personal accountability.

Disadvantages of Project Organisation

1. The varying professional backgrounds of those assigned to the project may be responsible for the uncertainty.

2. In the lack of clearly defined areas of responsibility, clear communication channels, and standards by which to evaluate performance, the project manager finds it challenging to inspire and govern the employees in a conventional manner.

3. There might be a delay in the project's completion.

4. Top management may also obstruct effective project management because they may not fully understand the issues at the project core.

Matrix Organization Structure

Any organisation that uses a multiple command system, including not only the multiple command structure but also related support mechanisms and an associated organisational culture and behaviour pattern, is said to be a matrix organisation, according to Stanley Davis and Paul Lawrence. The multiple command system, often known as a matrix organisation, has two chains of command. Functional chains of command have a vertical flow of authority. The second chain is horizontal and is represented by a project team that is managed by a group manager who is an authority in the specified field of expertise for his team. The vertical and horizontal lines of authority are a mix of the authority flows both down and across because the matrix structure merges the efforts of functional and project authority.

Advantages of Matrix Organization

1. The vertical and horizontal communication included in a matrix organisation enhances coordination, which in turn results in stronger and more effective control over activities.
2. Because the matrix organisation is managing many projects, resources will be fully used.
3. It allows for better planning and control since it concentrates organisational resources on the designated tasks.

4. It is quite adaptable when it comes to following regulations, processes, etc. The greatest method for defining rules and procedures in this case is experience.
5. Employees are successfully motivated since each department or division must focus its efforts on completing a single project.

Disadvantages of Matrix Organization

1. The fact that there is more than one supervisor for each employee makes it difficult to maintain effective control and breeds confusion.
2. There is constant horizontal and vertical communication, which adds to the amount of chapterwork and expenditures.
3. It is challenging to strike a balance between the technical and administrative parts of the project.

CONCLUSION

An essential component that affects an organization's operations and results is its organisational structure. We have examined the many facets of organisational structure and how they affect organisational effectiveness throughout this work. Our study yields many significant conclusions.First off, a strong organisational structure encourages open lines of communication and speeds up decisionmaking. The organisation reduces uncertainty and improves information flow across various levels and departments by defining roles, responsibilities, and reporting lines. This encourages teamwork and makes it possible to act quickly when opportunities and difficulties arise.Second, the unique requirements and goals of the organisation determine the organisational structure to be used. Divisional structures provide flexibility and autonomy for various product lines or geographical areas, while functional structures are appropriate for organisations focusing on specialised activities. To take advantage of cooperation and knowledge, matrix architectures blend functional and divisional characteristics. On the other hand, network architectures allow organisations to engage with outside partners and use outside resources.

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FORMAL AND INFORMAL ORGANIZATION: A FRAMEWORK

Dr. Bipasha Maity*

*Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-bipasha@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Organisational structure has two separates, although related, facets: official and informal organisations. In an organisational setting, this essay examines the traits, functions, and interconnections of formal and informal organisations. The chapter examines each form of organization's concept and goal in depth, stressing its distinctive qualities and contributions. Additionally, the chapter looks at the advantages and disadvantages of formal and informal organisations, as well as how they affect internal communication, teamwork, and decision-making. The conclusion of the chapter emphasises how crucial it is to recognise and use both formal and informal structures in order to increase organisational success and employee engagement.

KEYWORDS: *Civil, Governments, Informal, Local, Organizations, Society.*

INTRODUCTION

An informal organisation is a network of personal and social relationships, while a formal organisation is a framework that has been purposefully created. The definition of formal organisation given by Sharma and Sadona is as follows: The organisation as intentionally planned, created, and properly sanctioned by competent authoritative authority. While an informal organisation is a shadow organisation that only exists to serve the needs of its members, it has no set goals. The following list covers formal bodies' distinctive qualities. A formal organization's stability is a crucial quality. As a result, over time, the formal organisation develops and flourishes.Rather than the other way around, the formal organization's structure is based on the tasks that each employee will complete. Roles are hierarchical, and tasks are allocated to people based on their skills and abilities.

To carry out the organisational purpose, a formal organisation is structured and organised. The absence of structure is illogical, cruel, wasteful and inefficient, according to one proponent. This characteristic helps organisations clarify the duties and responsibilities of each employee. Due to the way the organisation is set up, business activities are ongoing. They have a lengthy lifespan and continue to expand with time. Rules and regulations are followed by formal organisations. People who work for official organisations don't just do things whenever they feel like it. Instead, they adhere to the guidelines established by the organisation. For instance, before authorising a loan to a Panchayat for its growth, the management of the cooperative bank must follow certain rules.

Types of Formal Organization at Grassroots

Following is a description of some of the significant formal organisations at the grassroots level.

Cooperativists Farmers may connect with consumers and interact with the market by joining a club or cooperative that is specifically designed for this purpose. Additionally, by joining cooperatives, individuals may share their skills and experiences and strengthen their negotiating position when buying inputs.Dairy Cooperatives. In several Indian states, dairy cooperatives constitute a significant source of growth. After adding value, milk producers market the milk products of the milk produces. Additionally, they get technological assistance for raising milk output.Tribal cooperatives. they are being established to receive development aid from the government and other organisations. Financial aid is provided by the National Cooperative Development Corporation. Fishing cooperatives. The fisherman for the benefit of fisherman, cooperatives are being created. Fishermen get assistance from cooperatives to develop their skills and learn about technology, the market, and management. Fishermen may benefit from cooperatives' increased capacity for production, processing, storage, and transport as well as their financial assistance[1]–[4].

Informal OrganizationCharacteristics

Below are a few essential characteristics of informal organisation.

a. It is a natural process for informal organisations to emerge. These organisations are created by groups of people who have similar beliefs, moral standards, and aspirations.

b. Participation is optional. There is very little coercion in the informal organisation, which is focused on interpersonal interactions. One individual may join many unofficial organisations. According to William H. Form and D.C. Miller, informal organisations are built on a network of social and personal ties that aren't outlined or regulated by official organisations.

c. Autocratic leadership is not permitted in informal organisations. Successful leaders of an informal organisation may be found among those with comparable goals and amiable personalities.

d. Adhere to norms. Informal organisations create their own rules for rewarding and punishing members. Since it's focused on relationships between people, the common norms are flexible and have less strict provisions.

Types of Informal Organization at the Grassroots

Some informal organizations at the Panchayats and municipality level are given below.

a. A Traditional Panchayats.

b. Caste Associations.

c. Temple Committees.

d. Sports Groups.

e. Cultural Groups.

f. Festival Committees.

g. Neighborhood Associations.

DISCUSSION

Local Organization and Local Development

The demands of a local society are varied. Local governments may provide some of the demands of the community. Local governments, however, are unable to provide all of the requirements of the populace alone. Some of the needs of the people cannot be met by local governments since they are not related to them directly. Local governments are ill-equipped to meet the unique and specialised demands of certain groups of people. Local communities create independent local organisations to meet these requirements. Both official and informal organisations make up this group. Local businesses have sometimes developed via tradition. Religion-based organisations in particular have developed via tradition. It's possible that these groups lack established hierarchies and regulations[5]–[7]. They are controlled by cultural customs and conventions.

Some of the locally based organisations with a strong sense of community operate on their own. It's possible that local governments won't be able to supervise or regulate how these organisations operate. Objectives shared between local governments and certain of the organisations are possible. In such circumstances, local governments and local organisations might collaborate to promote the growth of the neighbourhood. Local organisations and local governments sometimes may have a conflict of interest. Only some segments of the local community are served by certain local organisations. These groups sometimes work to further their own narrow interests while giving little consideration to the interests of the public at large. Some local organisations specifically oppose social justice and the empowerment of women and Dalits.

i)Influence of Local Government Election Processes

The outcomes of local government elections are influenced by both official and unofficial local organisations including caste associations, religious movements, and groupings. These organisations put out candidates for local body elections and campaign for their success. These organisations often recommend women for restricted jobs, especially in rural regions.

ii)Management of Elected Officials

The elected legislators are significantly influenced by local organisations. in a rural Local governments and community organisations have the power to influence elected officials. Local political party units may regulate the conduct of elected officials in places like Kerala. Caste organisations attempt to regulate the functioning of rural local governments across the majority of the state.

iii)Assistance to Regional Governments

Various local community organisations must help local governments for them to operate effectively. Without the assistance of the local communities, local governments are unable to carry out certain of their duties. Local community organisations must work together to carry out certain tasks, particularly those pertaining to drinking water, sanitation, and environmental concerns. In various regions of the nation, local community organisations have helped fund these initiatives by the local governments.

iv)Carrying out Development Initiatives

Local community organisations are crucial to the execution of development initiatives managed by local governments, especially those involving libraries, hospitals, and schools. With the assistance of neighbourhood organisations, initiatives like complete cleanliness, enrollment in schools, and job guarantees may be successfully carried out. You may have developed a better understanding of local growth and 79rganization after reading this section.

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Civil Society Organization and Local Self-Governance

The area of human activity and associations that are unrestricted by the authority of the state is known as civil society. Public concerns are handled by civil society, not domestic or private ones. Tocqueville defined civil society as the area of intermediary relationships between the state and the people. Through non-government and non- market organisations, civil society promotes public engagement in public problems. A network of independent, unrestrained organisations known as civil society may have an impact on governmental decisions[8], [9].

Examples of Civil Society Organizations

The following organizations in India can be given as examples of civil society organizations.People's Union for Civil Liberties. Gandhi Peace Foundation.

Professional Associations

Indian Medical Association

Service Organizations

Red Cross Society

Trade Unions

Indian National Trade Union Congress

Sports Organization

Indian Olympic Association

Local Civil Society Organizations

The following are examples of Local Civil Society Organizations

a. Resident's welfare associations.

b. Rotary Club.

c. Village festival committees.

d. Friends of Police.

e. Schools' committees.

f. Walker's clubs.

g. Merchant's associations.

h. Senior citizen's clubs.

i. Library committees.

j. Children's Parliament.

k. Local consumer forum.

Some of the Possible Benefits from Local Civil Society Organizations

a. Protecting the interest of' consumers.

b. Working for welfare of senior citizens.

c. Developing the standard of' the local schools.

d. Helping the police in maintaining law and order.

e. Spreading voters' awareness.

f. Promoting reading habits.

g. Protecting the environment of the area.

h. Protecting human rights of the local people.

i. Promoting blood donation in the local community.

Role of Civil Society in Local Governance

Markets and government agencies alone cannot provide all of the requirements of the populace. People may create collective acts independently of the state and the market thanks to civil society. The two strong tools that the state and the market use to regulate people's lives sometimes go against what the people want. In order to change the social structure in favour of the poor and marginalised, civil society may play a significant role. In India, civil society organisations have helped women, Dalits, and Tribals gain more influence. For local government to be successful, there must be substantial public engagement. People in the countryside are unable to gather in a public forum and jointly address their shared concerns for a number of reasons, including poverty, illiteracy, caste differences, and gender prejudice. Based on caste and religion, they are classified into a large number of groupings and subgroups. People from scheduled castes and tribes are barred from public involvement, while women are often discouraged from it. All of these groups, especially marginalised ones, may be included in the public participation process thanks to civil society organisations. Civil society may affect social change in villages via projects to raise knowledge and sensibility. By introducing fresh concepts to the communities.

CS may contribute to the development of village society. SC connect local government with the community. Local governments may become more transparent and accountable thanks to CS. Minority, female, SC, and ST rights may be upheld by CS, enabling them to take part in local governanceAdditionally, CS may guarantee justice when local governments provide these underserved groups with assistance. Organisations like user groups, watershed committees, village education committees, village health committees, and village environment committees may be built with the use of computer science (CS). At the local level, civil society may assist in advancing issues that are in the public interest. The state agencies often do not encourage the villages to bargain with them jointly. The inability of marginalised people to band together to seek their rights and justice is a result of their poverty, caste, religion, and illiterate differences. They each strive to fight for what they need for a living. They do not insist that local governments and government organisations offer services more effectively. A crucial part in training the populace for such actions may be played by civil society.

CONCLUSION

Each having certain tasks and purposes, official and informal organisations are crucial parts of the larger organisational framework. We have looked at the traits and dynamics of these two organisational aspects throughout this study. Explicit rules, hierarchical structures, and officially assigned roles and duties are characteristics of formal organisations. They provide a structure for planning and coordinating activities while assuring effectiveness, transparency, and

accountability. Through defined channels and processes, formal structures enable communication and decision-making. They also create the basis for defining objectives, evaluating performance, and allocating resources.Contrarily, informal organisations develop naturally inside an organisation as a result of social contacts, common interests, and interpersonal connections. They are distinguished by social networks, unofficial lines of communication, and unspoken conventions and beliefs. Beyond the confines of official positions and departments, informal arrangements may promote creativity, innovation, and cooperation. They promote problem-solving, foster trust, and allow information to flow swiftly.

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STAFFING STRATEGIC: BUILDING A HIGH-PERFORMING TEAM

Dr. Vankadari Gupta*

*Associate Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-chithambargupta@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The recruitment, selection, and deployment of people to different tasks and positions within an organisation is a crucial process known as staffing. The major elements of staffing are briefly summarised in this chapter, along with their significance, difficulties, and implementation tactics.Organisations may improve performance and accomplish their objectives by recognising the importance of personnel and using the right strategies.The supply of enough human resources, or proper personnel, is thus a crucial necessity for the success of any firm.

KEYWORDS: *Employee, Human, Management, Organization, Resource, Staffing, Training.*

INTRODUCTION

The core of every business is its brilliant and dedicated workforce, which is its most valuable resource. It is a well- known reality that a company must constantly hire top talent if it wants to expandTherefore, it is considered that an organisation can only accomplish its goals when it has the appropriate people in the appropriate roles. The next phase in the management process is to fill the different positions offered in the business, after planning and selection of the organisational structure[1]–[3]. This is referred to as the staffing function management. Simply simply, staffing is the process of putting people to work. It starts with workforce planning and covers several additional tasks including hiring, selecting, training, developing, promoting, paying, and rating the performance of the workforce. In other words, staffing is the step in the management process that deals with finding, using, and keeping a happy and productive workforce. Today, staffing may entail any mix of workers, including contract workers, daily wage earners, and consultants.

Staffing acknowledges the value of each and every person a company employs since the worker himself or herself is the ultimate performance. The administrative task of filling and maintaining the roles in the organisational structure is referred to as staffing. This is accomplished by first determining the labour force requirements, then by hiring, selecting, placing, promoting, appraising, and developing employees to fit the roles intended for the organisational structure. The staffing role comes after the planning and arranging activities of a new business. The management is in a position to know the human resource needs of the company at all levels after defining what has to be done, how it should be done, and after creating the organisational structure. Management begins the processes related to hiring, selecting, and training people to meet the needs of the organisation after the quantity and categories of workers to be chosen are decided. Staffing is a constant process in an established business since new roles might be created and some current workers can decide to quit the company[4]–[6].

Importance of Staffing

There is a need for employees to do work in any organisation. This need is met by management's staffing function, which identifies the best candidates for each open position. In essence, staffing involves filling the jobs indicated by the organisational structure. Any business's cornerstone is its human resources. The wrong people may ruin your company, while the proper ones can help you grow it. Therefore, the most basic and important factor influencing organisational effectiveness is staffing. Due to the fast growth of technology, the expansion of organisations, and the complexity of human behaviour, the staffing function has grown in significance in recent years. The most valuable resource in a company is its human capital. The calibre of an organization's human resources determines its capacity to meet its objectives. As a result, staffing is a crucial administrative task. No organisation can succeed unless it can hire the proper individuals for the different jobs specified in the structure and retain them there. The following advantages of proper staffing are ensured for the organisation:

a. Aids in finding and obtaining qualified personnel for various jobs.

b. Leads to higher performance by placing the right person on the right job.

c. Ensures the ongoing survival and growth of the business through succession planning for managers.

d. Aids in ensuring the most effective utilisation of the human resources. Overmanning is avoided, which eliminates understaffing and expensive labour expenses.

e. Raises employee morale and job satisfaction by providing objective evaluations and fair compensation for their contributions.

It does this while preventing interruption of work by letting workers know in advance when there will be a staffing shortage. All organisations must effectively carry out the staffing function. Lack of the correct sort of workers will result in wasting of resources, including time, effort, and energy, which will reduce productivity and degrade product quality. The company won't be able to financially market its goods. Therefore, it is crucial that the correct individuals are accessible in the right numbers at the right times. To reduce waste, they should get proper training. Additionally, by providing them with the right incentives, you may get them to exhibit greater productivity and quality[7]–[10].

Staffing as part of Human Resource Management

It is a task that all managers must complete. It is a distinct and specific duty, and various facets of human connections must be taken into account. Managers are responsible for hiring competent candidates to fill open jobs within their firm. Since individuals must fill these jobs once the structure and positions have been defined, staffing is intimately related to organising. They must thus be instructed and inspired to cooperate with the organization's objectives. As a result, management's general role of staffing is recognised. The management function's human component is addressed by the staffing function. Since the effectiveness of an organisation relies on how successfully this job is carried out, managing the human component of an organisation is the most crucial duty.

The skill, drive, and output of an organization's human resource are major determinants of its success in attaining its objectives.All managers have a direct responsibility for dealing with and

choosing employees for the company. The manager's role while handling personnel is rather constrained. A few of these duties will include matching the appropriate person with the right position, integrating new hires into the company, training staff and enhancing performance, developing staff members' talents, maintaining staff morale, and safeguarding staff members' physical and mental health. In small businesses, managers may handle entire responsibilities for the wages, welfare, and working conditions of their staff.But when businesses expand and the number of people employed rises, a new division known as the human resource departmentwhich includes experts in managing people**is** created. A lot of people's knowledge is needed in the specific field of human resource management. For a very big corporation, the Human Resources Department itself will comprise experts for each function of this department. The number of human resource specialists and the size of this department also offer an indicator of the size of the organisation.

Evolution of Human Resource Management

The conventional ideas of labour welfare and personnel management have been supplanted by human resource management. The current form of human resource management (HRM) is the result of a number of important, connected advances that began during the industrial revolution. An individual who could serve as an effective liaison between employers and employees became necessary with the rise of the trade union movement. As a result, the idea of a labour welfare officer was born. His involvement was minimal and focused on staff welfare. He was really despised by both the owners and the employees. The industrial system made it possible for thousands of people to work together under one roof. One guy was given the task of recruiting employees for the organisation; he was eventually given charge of the recruitment, selection, and placement of staff. As a result, the first personnel officer and then the personnel manager were created.

The human element is acknowledged as the most crucial component of success in an organisation by the human relations approach. However, rapidly evolving technological advancements called for the training of workers and the creation of new skills. People started to be seen as a precious resource that could be exploited further. The replacement of the personnel manager with a human resource manager was caused by the expansion of the project. You may have noticed that all these factorsas opposed to the technical part of the businessare focused on the human element in industry. Therefore, staffing is a fundamental component of human resource management as it involves identifying, assessing, and developing a working relationship with individuals with a specific purpose. Understanding that staffing is both a management function, much like planning, organising, directing, and regulating, as well as a separate functional area of management, much like marketing management and finance management, is crucial. Therefore, staffing is referred to as both a line activity and a staff activity, i.e., an important managerial responsibility as well as a consulting function performed by the Human Resource Department.

DISCUSSION

Staffing Process

As you are now aware, the staffing function's main focus in the management process is the prompt satisfaction of an organization's workforce needs. These criteria could be needed when beginning a new firm or growing an existing one, or they might be necessary to replace workers who leave their jobs, retire, get moved, promoted, or dismissed. In any event, the phrase the right

person for the right job doesn't really need to be emphasised enough. Finding the right person for the right job may be compared to the saying water, water everywhere, and not a drop to drink, which emphasises how difficult it is to obtain drinking water despite the fact that 2/3 of the world is covered with water. As a result, it's crucial to realise that hiring is a process that begins with assessing the organization's personnel needs and identifying prospective sources from which they may be satisfied, either from inside the organisation or from the outside. The necessity to market the position and the company to the public also arises from the difficulty in finding the right person.

It might be difficult to choose the best applicant, even in cases when a single job opening attracts a few hundred candidates. People who have just been hired can require orientation or training to get them used to how things work in an organisation. Additionally, they may need training in certain abilities if they were merely chosen based on their academic credentials and capacity for learning. For instance, if an individual is chosen by a Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) unit because they are outgoing and fluent in English, they must undergo training in the pertinent business procedures, telephone conversation etiquette, and diction adaption before to being placed in their position. The employee's 'initial impression' of the company is shaped by his or her experiences during orientation and placement. Employees require training even when they are working to improve their knowledge and abilities and become ready for more responsibility. Consequently, employee training and development is yet another crucial component of the hiring process.

(i) Calculating the Required Manpower

As you are aware, we analyse choices and the levels of decision-making, activities, and relationships among them as we create the organisational structure with the goal of developing the horizontal and vertical dimensions of the structure. As a result, different work roles are established. It is obvious that the appointment of a person with a certain set of educational requirements, talents, previous experience, etc. is necessary for the execution of each position.As a result, understanding manpower needs involves understanding both the quantity and kind of people we need. There is a need to comprehend, and if necessary, redefine manpower requirements in accordance with, the need to encourage women, people from underdeveloped communities, and people with special abilities such as physically challenged, visually impaired, and hearing impaired to assume responsible positions in our organisations.

Operationally, both a workload analysis and a workforce analysis are both necessary to comprehend the labour needs. An evaluation of the workload would make it possible to determine how many and what kind of human resources are required to carry out different tasks and achieve organisational goals. An examination of the available workforce would show how many and what kind. In reality, such a test would show if our staffing levels are adequate, excessive, or just right. It should be noted that neither an overstaffed nor an understaffed scenario is ideal. If there are too many employees someplace, they must be removed or transferred. The hiring procedure would have to be started in the event of a workforce shortage. But before that can happen, it's critical to convert the personnel needs into a precise job description and the ideal candidate profile for the position, including the ideal credentials, experience, personality traits, and so on. This information serves as the starting point for finding suitable personnel.

(ii)Recruitment

The process of finding potential workers and encouraging them to apply for employment inside the firm may be referred to as recruitment. The data gathered when creating the applicant profile and job description may be utilised to create the'situations vacant' advertising. The advertising may be posted on the entrance of the factory or office, published in print publications, or flashed on electronic media. Locating the possible candidate or identifying the sources of potential candidates is the task at hand in this stage. In truth, a corporation has access to a wide range of recruiting options, which will be covered later when we consider the many sources of recruitment. The primary goal is to build a pool of potential employment applicants. It is possible to look into internal and external recruiting sources. A little number of internal sources may be used. External sources are employed to provide new talent and a larger selection.

(iii)Selection

Selection is the process of making a decision from a group of potential employees gathered during the recruiting phase. The thoroughness of the selection process serves two important goals, even in cases of highly specialised jobs where the pool of candidates is very small, It ensures that the organisation hires the best candidate among those who are available. It raises the self-esteem and prestige of those chosen and shows them how seriously things are taken in the organisation. The rigour includes several exams and interviews, which are covered later. Those who pass the exam and the interviews are given the opportunity to sign an employment contract, which is a formal agreement detailing the offer of employment, the terms and conditions, and the starting date.

(iv)Placement and Orientation:

Beginning a job is the first step in an employee's socialisation process at work. The employee is presented to his supervisors, subordinates, and coworkers after receiving a short presentation about the business. He is shown about the office and given the responsibility for the position for which he has been chosen. This familiarisation process is very important and might have a long-term effect on his choice to remain as well as his performance at work. Thus, orientation involves introducing the chosen employee to other workers and acquainting him with the organization's norms and regulations. The term placement refers to the employee taking up the job or role for which they were chosen.

(v)Training and Development

People want a career, not just a job. Everyone must be given the chance to succeed. The most effective method to provide such a chance is to encourage staff learning. To guarantee that their personnel continue to learn, organisations either have internal training centres or have formed partnerships with training and educational institutions. The organisations also gain as a result. Employees perform better, have stronger abilities, and contribute more to organisational effectiveness and efficiency when they are highly motivated. Organisations are able to recruit and keep their best employees by providing them with possibilities for professional progression.

(vi)Performance Evaluation

There is a requirement to assess the performance of the workers after they have completed a period of training and have been working for some time. Every firm has a formal or informal system in place for evaluating employee performance. Performance evaluation refers to comparing a worker's recent and/or historical performance to a set of benchmarks. The employee

is required to be aware of the expectations, and the superior is expected to provide the employee feedback on how well he or she performed. Therefore, defining the task, evaluating performance, and delivering feedback will all be part of the performance evaluation process.

(vii) Planning Your Career and Promotion

All firms must now handle employee career-related challenges and opportunities for advancement. Activities must be planned by managers to also benefit long-term employee interests. Employee development and realising their full potential must be encouraged. People's careers depend heavily on promotions. They speak about being given jobs with more authority. More salary, responsibility, and work satisfaction are often the results.

(viii)Compensation

All businesses must create pay and compensation structures for their staff. Depending on the value of the task, different compensation plans may be prepared in a variety of ways. Basically, it is necessary to calculate the job's cost. Therefore, the term compensation refers to all remuneration or benefits given to workers. It could take the shape of cash payments—direct ones like wages, salaries, incentives, commissions, and bonusesas well as indirect ones like insurance and vacation benefits provided by the employer.Direct payments may be either performance-based or time-based. Salary and earnings are paid on a daily, weekly, monthly, or yearly basis under a time-based schedule. Performance-based plans include piecework-based payment of salaries and wages. For instance, a worker may get compensation based on the quantity of units they generate.

The remuneration under different incentive systems to reward success may be calculated in a number of ways. It is possible to develop pay structures that combine time-based compensation with rewards for improved performance. Employee compensation may take many different forms, including time-based pay or salary, performance-based financial incentives and bonuses, and employee perks. Other considerations that affect the design of any compensation plan include the law (labour laws), unions, business policy, and equality. As a result, we understand that staffing is a process that involves acquiring, reteaching, developing, evaluating performance, promoting, and compensating an organization's most valuable resourceits human capital. It is important to keep in mind that a variety of factors, including the supply and demand for particular skills on the job market, the unemployment rate, labour market conditions, legal and political issues, company image, policy, the cost of human resource planning, advancements in technology, and the general economic climate, among others, will affect how recruitment, selection, and training are actually carried out.

Aspects of Staffing

There are three aspects of staffing: recruitment, selection and training.

Recruitment

The process of locating potential applicants for a position or a function is referred to as recruitment. It is described as the procedure of seeking out potential workers and encouraging them to submit applications for positions inside a business. The recruiting process often includes advertising, which may take place in a variety of ways, including via newschapters, publications for professionals, ads posted in windows, employment centres, campus interviews, etc.

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Sources of Recruitment

The goal of recruiting is to find candidates who have the appropriate skills or qualifications in a sufficient quantity to fill the open positions. It finds qualified candidates and invites them to apply for the position inside the company. Prior to choosing the best applicant for a job inside a business, recruiting must take place. Recruitment is to attract qualified candidates to open positions. The many steps in the recruiting process include

1. Identifying the various labour supply sources.
2. Evaluating their reliability.
3. Selecting the source or sources that are most appropriate.
4. Asking potential applicants to submit applications for the open positions. The necessary posts may be filled either internally or outside. As a result, there are two sources for hiring: internal and external.

Internal Sources

Transfers and promotions are two crucial internal recruiting sources, and they are covered below:

(i)Transfers: It is moving a person from one position to another, from one department to another, or from one shift to another without making a significant change to their duties or status. Changes in tasks and obligations, working conditions, etc., although not necessarily in pay, may result. Transferring workers from overstaffed departments to vacant positions is an excellent way to fill the positions. There is essentially horizontal mobility among the workers. Transfers from another branch or department may be used to fill a vacancy in one branch if there is a lack of qualified employees. Job transfers may also assist prevent termination and resolve personal issues and complaints. It should be confirmed that the employee who will be moved to another position can handle it at the time of the transfer. Employees might be trained to learn new occupations via transfers as well.

(ii)Promotions: Businesses often fill higher positions with personnel who have previously held lower positions. An employee who is promoted moves into a job with more authority, benefits, prestige, and compensation. Employees are vertically moved when they are promoted. Employee motivation, loyalty, and satisfaction are all increased as a result of this practise. Because a promotion at one level might result in a series of promotions at lower levels in the organisation, it has a significant psychological influence on the workers.

Merits of Internal Sources

The following benefits may be achieved by filling higher-level job openings internally or via internal transfers:

(i) The desire to do better among employees. A chain of promotions at lower levels in the organisation might result from a promotion at a higher level. The personnel are encouraged by this to raise their performance levels via practise and learning. Workers that are dedicated and committed to their occupations are happy in their positions. Promotional opportunities also contribute to the company's overall tranquilly;

(ii) Internal recruiting also makes the selection and placement processes simpler. It is possible to assess applicants more correctly and inexpensively if they are currently employed by the company. Since the applicants are already familiar to the company, this method of hiring is more dependable;

(iii) Transfers are a tool for training personnel in order to get them ready for higher-level positions. Additionally, employees hired from within the organisation do not require any kind of induction training;

(iv) Transfers have the advantage of moving workers from departments with excess staff to those with a staffing shortage; and

(v) Hiring employees from within the organisation is less expensive than hiring from outside sources.

Limitations of Internal Sources

The following are some drawbacks of utilising internal sources of recruitment:

(i) There is less opportunity for the introduction of new talent when positions are filled via internal promotions. Therefore, relying only on internal hiring increases the risk of inbreeding by preventing the infusion of new blood into the organisation;

(ii) Workers may become apathetic if they are confident in time-bound promotions;

(iii) A new business cannot rely on internal hiring. No organisation can fill all of its open positions with personnel from inside;

(iv) Employee rivalry may be restricted; and

(v) Frequent employee transfers may often lower an organization's productivity.

CONCLUSION

Because it directly affects an organization's productivity and performance, personnel is a crucial role. The correct individuals with the relevant abilities and competences are put in the appropriate roles thanks to effective staffing, which improves productivity and efficiency. Finding suitable applicants, managing workforce diversity, and adjusting to shifting labour markets are just a few of the difficulties that come with hiring. Organisations may use a variety of tactics to solve these issues, such as comprehensive recruiting and selection procedures, the implementation of training and development programmes, and the promotion of an inclusive and diverse culture. Organisations may develop a solid workforce that sustains their development and competitive advantage over time by giving priority to good staffing practises.

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TAPPING INTO TALENT: EXTERNAL SOURCES OF STAFFING

Dr. Jayakrishna Herur*

*Associate Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-jayakrishna.udupa@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The techniques and avenues that businesses use to recruit and hire workers from outside the organisation are referred to as external sources of staffing. An overview of the many outside sources of staffing, such as employment agencies, job boards, social media sites, and business networks, is given in this chapter. It emphasises the need of a well-rounded strategy to external staffing and shows the benefits and difficulties related to each source. Organisations may access a larger talent pool, acquire specialised talents, and increase the diversity of their workforce by efficiently using external sources.

KEYWORDS: *Development, Employment, Hiring, Job, Training, Workers.*

INTRODUCTION

An organisation must employ outside resources to cover a variety of roles since internal hiring cannot fill every opening. It's possible that the current workforce is inadequate or that they don't meet the requirements for the open positions. External hiring offers a variety of options and infuses the company with fresh talent. The following is a discussion of the often utilised outside sources of hiring. A notice outlining the specifics of the positions offered is posted on the enterprise's noticeboard via the direct recruiting method[1]–[3]. On the designated day, applicants gather in front of the organization's offices, and candidates are chosen right then and there. Direct hiring is often used to fill temporary openings for unskilled or semiskilled positions. These employees are referred to as casual or badli workers, and they are paid on a daily salary basis. This hiring process is relatively affordable since there are no expenses associated with posting job openings. When there is a rush of work or when several permanent staff are away, it is appropriate for filling casual positions.

Many reputable companies maintain a database of unsolicited candidates at their offices. These job seekers might be a great supply of labour. To fill open positions, a list of these job searchers may be compiled and vetted. The main benefit of using this source of hiring is that it is less expensive than using other sources for staffing.When a larger selection is necessary, advertisements are often placed in newschapters or trade and professional magazines. This process is used to fill the majority of senior jobs in both business and industry. Advertising open positions has the benefit of allowing for the inclusion of additional details about the company and position. The management has a greater selection of individuals to pick from when positions are advertised. Leading newschapters allow for the placement of advertisements. Its drawback is that it may attract a deluge of responses, often from individuals who are utterly inappropriate[4]–[6].

Governmentrun employment exchanges are recognised as a reliable source of hiring for both

skilled and unskilled labourer positions. In certain situations, the law mandates that job openings be voluntarily reported to employment exchanges. As a result, by acting as a conduit between job seekers and businesses, employment exchanges aid in the alignment of human demand and supply. Unfortunately, the job exchange's data are often out of current, making it possible that many of the applicants they recommend may not be acceptable. Placement Agencies and Management Consultants. Private agencies and professional organisations seem to be carrying out significant activity in technical and professional fields. Matching the supply and demand of workers is a service offered by placement agencies on a national scale. These organisations aggregate the biodata of many individuals and suggest appropriate prospects to their customers.

These organisations demand a fee for their services, although they are helpful when thorough screening is needed. By offering the appropriate offers, these qualified recruiters may lure the required top executives away from competing businesses. Organisations may hire technical, professional, and managerial staff with the aid of management consulting companies. They concentrate in placing middle: and senior- level executives. They have a database of people with various qualifications and talents, and they even post job openings on behalf of their customers to find the best candidates.Colleges and schools of technology and management have grown in popularity as a source of hiring for managerial, professional, and technical positions. In order to hire skilled personnel for diverse tasks, many large organisations have tight links with universities, vocational schools, and management institutes. Businesses often use educational institutions for their hiring processes. Campus recruiting is what is happening here.

Candidates recommended by current workers, as well as their friends and family, may prove to be effective sources for hiring. These candidates are more likely to become excellent workers since enough is known about their backgrounds. As a result of current workers' familiarity with both the business and the applicants, some preliminary screening occurs[5]–[8]. Labour contractors keep tight relationships with employees and can quickly provide the necessary number of unskilled labours. Through labour contractors, who are also employees of the firm, workers are hired. The system's drawback is that if the contractor chooses to quit the company, all of the employees hired via him will do the same.Nowadays, it is becoming more and more common to broadcast open positions on television. Along with the organization's profile where a vacancy exists, certain employment criteria and qualifications are made available.These days, recruiting is often done online. There are particular websites created and devoted with the intent of offering information about job searchers and available positions. In truth, websites are often frequented by both potential workers and businesses looking for qualified candidates.

Merits of External Sources

The following are some benefits of hiring from outside sources:

(i) Qualified Personnel: The management may attract qualified and trained candidates to apply for open positions in the company by utilising external sources of recruitment.

(ii) More Options: When positions are extensively posted, many people from outside the company apply. When choosing candidates for employment, management has more options.

(iii) New Talent: The current staff may not be enough, or they may not meet the requirements of the positions to be filled. External hiring offers more options and infuses the company with fresh talent. But it is costly and time-consuming.

(iv) Competitive Spirit: If a business uses outside resources, its current employeeswill have to compete with the outsiders. They will put forth more effort to do well.

DISCUSSION

Limitations of External Sources

1. Dissatisfaction Among Current Workers: External hiring may cause resentment and discontent among current employees. They could think that their prospects of being promoted have decreased.

2. Protracted Procedure: Finding employees takes a lot of time. In order to start the hiring process, the company must announce open positions and wait for applicants.

3. Expensive Procedure: Hiring workers from outside sources is a highly expensive process. The cost of advertising and processing applications is significant.

Selection

The process of selecting the most qualified applicant from a pool of potential employees is known as selection. The applicants must pass a battery of exams and interviews as part of the hiring process. Until the ideal kind is established, many are rejected at each step and only a small number advance. The screening of the applications may be the first step in the procedure. Even after the applicant accepts the job offer and joins, it could still go on. This is the case since selection entails a judgement call on the candidate's performance potential, just like any other management choice. The selected person's performance at work would eventually be used to gauge how well the selection procedure worked[9]–[11].

Process of Selection

The following are crucial phases in the selection process: (i) Preliminary Screening: Based on the data provided on the application forms, preliminary screening aids the manager in excluding unqualified or unsuitable job applicants. Initial interviews aid in the rejection of misfits for reasons that were not stated on the application forms.Selection tests (ii) An employment test is a tool (either a written exam or an activity) that aims to gauge particular personality traits in job candidates. These qualities span a variety of aptitudes, including physical dexterity, intellect, and personality.

Important test used for Selection of Employees

(a) Intelligence Tests: This is one of the crucial psychological assessments used to gauge a person's level of IQ. It serves as a gauge of someone's capacity for learning or for making judgements.

(b)An aptitude test: It evaluates a person's aptitude for picking up new abilities. It reveals a person's potential for growth. These exams serve as reliable predictors of a person's future achievement.

(c)Personality testing: These exams provide insight into a person's emotions, responses, maturity, and value system, among other things. These exams look at a person's whole personality. As a result, they are challenging to develop and deploy.

(d)Trade Tests: These assessments evaluate a person's current skill set. They evaluate one's degree of expertise and understanding in a certain field of study or technical training. Aptitude tests and trade tests are different in that the former assesses potential for skill acquisition while the latter assesses current skill possession.

(e)Interest tests: Every person is more fascinated by one kind of employment than another. Tests of interest are used to determine a person's pattern of interests or engagement**.**

An employment interview is a formal, in-depth discussion held to assess an applicant's fitness for the position. The interviewer's job is to gather information, and the interviewee's job is to provide it. However, in modern times, the interviewee also asks the interviewer for information.Reference and background checks. To confirm information and learn more about a candidate, many companies ask for the names, addresses, and phone numbers of references. References might come from previous employers, well-known individuals, teachers, and professors at universities.

Final Selection Decision. Candidates who pass the exams, interviews, and reference checks will be considered for the position. Since the concerned manager is ultimately in charge of the new hire's performance, their opinions will normally be taken into account. The applicant must pass a medical fitness exam after the selection decision but prior to receiving a job offer. The applicant who is found to be qualified after the medical examination receives the job offer. Job offers are sent to candidates who have cleared all prior barriers as the next stage in the selection process. A letter of appointment/confirmation of his acceptance serves as the job offer. Typically, such a letter specifies a deadline by which the new employee must report for work. A fair amount of time must be granted for the appointee to report.

After a job offer is made and accepted by the applicant, the employer and candidate must sign a few chapters. The attestation form is one of these records. This form includes some important information about the candidate that has been verified and certified by that person. The attestation form will serve as a reliable record for future use. The creation of an employment contract is also necessary. Depending on the job's level, different basic details should be included in a written contract of employment, however the following checklists outline the standard sections: Job title, responsibilities, and duties Date when continuous employment begins, the method used to calculate service time, rates of pay, allowances, hours worked, sick leave policies, grievance procedures, disciplinary actions, work policies, and termination of employment.

Training and Development

Sowing seeds is a good way to make a year's worth of plans, as someone once stated. Plant trees if you want to have a 10- year strategy. Develop people if you want a lifelong strategy. By boosting a worker's capacity for performance via learningtypically by altering the employee's attitude or enhancing his or her skills and knowledgetraining and development aims to enhance current or future worker performance.The significance of development and training There was no need for workers to update or adjust their abilities when professions were straightforward, simple to learn, and only little impacted by technological advancements. However, due to the quick changes our highly developed and complex society has undergone over the past 25 years, organisations are under more pressure than ever to update the goods and services they produce, the ways in which they are produced and offered, the jobs they need to fill, and the skills they need to do those jobs. Thus, the value of employee training has risen as tasks have become more complicated. The company and the person benefit from training and development.

Benefits to the Organization

The following are some advantages of training and development for an organisation:

(i) Training is a methodical kind of learning that is always preferable to trial-and-error techniques that waste time and money.

(ii) It increases staff productivity in both quantity and quality, which raises earnings.

(iii) Training prepares the aspiring manager to assume control in an emergency.

(iv) Training boosts employee morale and lowers turnover and absenteeism.

(v) It aids in attaining an efficient reaction to a technical and economic environment that is rapidly changing.

Benefits to the Employee

The following are some advantages of training and development activities for employees:

(i) A better career for the person is the result of improved abilities and knowledge gained via training.

(ii) A person's improved performance enables him to earn more money. Training improves an employee's machine handling efficiency

(iii) Less prone to accidents as a result.

(iv) Training boosts employee happiness and morale.

Training Development and Education

The process of improving an employee's attitudes, skills, and capacities to do certain occupations is referred to as training. However, the word development refers to an individual's overall progress. While growth is a continuous activity, training is a one-time event. Development also includes training. It's also important to note that, despite some overlap, training, education, and development are all separate concepts.Any method that increases an employee's aptitude, skill, and ability to do a certain profession is referred to as training. It involves applying information and picking up new abilities. It makes an effort to enhance their performance in the work at hand or to get them ready for any future employment. Increasing an employee's knowledge and comprehension is done via education. It is the comprehension and application of information. Instead of offering concrete solutions, it fosters the development of a logical and reflective mind that can identify connections between relevant factors and, as a result, comprehend a phenomenon.

Education develops the mental and character traits as well as the knowledge of fundamental concepts and the abilities to analyse, synthesise, and be objective. Training has a narrower focus than education. More so than personal ambitions, training is linked to organisational goals. The learning opportunities created to support workers' development are referred to as development. It includes not just activities that enhance professional performance but also those that help people develop their personalities, mature, and reach their full potentialcapabilities so that they become better people overall, not just excellent workers. Designing and delivering learning to enhance performance inside firms is the focus of the training and development industry. To underline the value of learning for both the person and the company, the phrase Learning and Development is

often used in place of Training and Development in certain organisations. The phrase human resource development also used in different organisations.

Training Methods

There are several training techniques. On-the-Job and Off-the-Job techniques are the two basic categories into which they may be divided. techniques used at work while a person is actively working are referred to as on-the-job techniques. OfftheJob techniques are used outside of the workplace. The former refers to studying as you go, while the later refers to learning beforehand.

On the Job Methods

(i)Apprenticeship Programmes

In an apprenticeship programme, the student is guided by an experienced worker. These are intended to help you develop more advanced skills. People who want to pursue specialised occupations, such as that of a plumber, electrician, or ironworker, sometimes need to complete an apprenticeship programme. These trainees are called apprentices, and they work with an experienced mentor or trainer for a certain period of time. Trainees are given a consistent training time during which both quick and slow learners are grouped together. Slow learners may need further instruction.

(ii)Coaching

In this approach, the superior acts as a coach, leading and instructing the learner. The trainer's progress is frequently reviewed, and the coach or counsellor makes any necessary adjustments to behaviour and performance. The coach or counsellor also proposes ways to accomplish the objectives. A senior manager supervises the trainee closely, and the manager assumes entire responsibility for the trainee's instruction. Traditionally, the senior manager is relieved of part of his responsibilities and replaced by the trainee. This offers the opportunity for the trainee to learn on the job.

(iii)Internship Training

This cooperative training plan between educational institutions and commercial enterprises. Candidates that are chosen continue their normal studies for the required time. Additionally, they work in a factory or office to develop their skills and knowledge in the real world.

(iv) Position Rotation

In this kind of training, the learner is moved from one department or position to another. As a result, the trainee may get a more comprehensive grasp of the operation of the company as a whole. The trainee has the opportunity to actively participate in the activities of the department and to assess her own skills and aptitude. By interacting with other workers during job rotation, trainees may foster future departmental collaboration.

Off the Job Methods

(i)Lectures and Conferences in the Classroom: The lecture or conference technique is best suited for disseminating particular knowledge, rules, or methodologies. A formal classroom lecture may often be made more exciting by the use of audiovisuals or demonstrations, which can improve recall and provide a means of elaborating on more complex ideas.

(ii)Movies: They can explain concepts and openly display abilities that are difficult for other

methods to do. In certain circumstances, it is a particularly successful technique when combined with conference discussions.

(iii)Case Study: Using real-world examples from companies, cases are efforts to correctly illustrate genuine issues that managers have encountered. The examples are studied by the trainees to identify issues, assess their causes, come up with potential solutions, choose what they think is the best option, and put it into practise.

(iv)Computer Modelling: This technique simulates the workplace by instructing a computer to mimic some of the realities of the job. It enables learning to occur without the danger or high expenses associated with making a mistake in a real-world setting.

(v)Vestibule Training: Employees get their training away from the real work floor, utilising the same equipment they will be using to perform their duties. Employees utilise the same resources, files, and tools in a classroom simulation of real work contexts. When workers are needed to operate complex machinery and equipment, this is often done.

(vi) Programmed Instruction: This approach includes a planned and suggested learning of certain particular skills or general information. To create a logical and sequential learning package, or one that progresses from basic to complicated, information is divided into understandable components and then placed in a suitable order. By responding to questions or filling in the spaces, the learner moves through these sections.

CONCLUSION

In order for businesses to fill skill gaps and promote expansion, external employment sources are essential. Companies may broaden their reach and draw in a larger pool of eligible people by using a variety of external sources, including recruiting agencies, job portals, social media platforms, and professional networks. A wider talent network, access to specialised expertise, and new views are just a few benefits of using external sourcing. However, it also brings with it difficulties including heightened competitiveness, the need for careful applicant vetting, and significant expenses related to external recruiting. Organisations should implement a well-rounded strategy that combines different sourcing techniques and uses efficient recruiting and selection tactics in order to maximise the advantages of external hiring. By doing this, businesses may develop a competent and varied staff that supports their success in the cutthroat business environment of today.

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OPTIMIZING HUMAN RESOURCES: THE IMPORTANCE OF MANPOWER PLANNING

Dr. Lakshmi Prasanna Pagadala*

*Associate Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-lakshmi.prasanna@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

In order to achieve organisational goals and objectives, manpower planning is a strategic process that forecasts, acquires, and deploys the appropriate number and kind of personnel. An overview of personnel planning, including its significance, the essential procedures involved, and the difficulties organisations encounter, is given in this chapter. In order to maximise labour utilisation, save expenses, and assure the availability of trained workers, it emphasises the need of comprehensive manpower planning. Organisations may align their staff with business demands and achieve a competitive edge by putting effective manpower planning techniques into place.

KEYWORDS: *Forecasting, Labor, Manpower, Planning, Requirements, Resource.*

INTRODUCTION

Planning is the cornerstone of achieving an enterprise's goals. The management has chosen certain trajectories along which it wants to organise group effort. The process by which a management decides how an organisation should improve from its present is known as manpower planning or human resource planning[1]–[3]. To the desired human resource job in human resources. In other words, manpower planning may be seen as the process of creating a set of choices on the growth of human resources for future action by human resources. Human resource planning and manpower planning are interchangeable terms. In order to execute the organization's integrated strategy, Coleman defines manpower or human resource planning as the process of determining human resource requirements and the means for meeting those requirements. Manpower Planning is separated into two phases by Gordon McBeath.

The first stage entails the thorough planning of human resource needs for all classes and levels of employees over the course of the plan, and the second stage is focused on planning of human resource of manpower supplies to give the organisation the right kinds of people from all sources to meet the planning requirements. Therefore, it is evident from the definitions above that manpower planning entails forecasting and preparing future human resource needs. Plans for human resources or manpower are needed to carry out the forecasts. In other words, it is true that manpower planning is a crucial instrument for an organization's effective acquisition, use, and growth of its people resource. The technology is still relatively new in the business world compared to some other scientific management strategies, but numerous organisations, both foreign and Indian, have thoroughly tested its value. However, the majority of Indian industries have forgotten to plan their workforce[4]–[6]. This component is not utilised to create human resources; rather, it is used to estimate the overall number of employees needed.

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Need of Manpower Planning

In today's industrial economy, planning for personnel resources is a key management duty. With the fast advancement of technology and the ongoing need for ever-higher levels of ability, workforce planning has become a top issue in the contemporary period of industrialised countries. In other words, competent labour is required for the organisation to achieve its goals, as opposed to unskilled labour, and manpower planning is essential for the following reasons:

i. Human resources with the required education, training, practical experience, and aptitude are essential for an organisation to operate and survive.

ii. To determine where losses have occurred in terms of demands, resignations, fatalities, dismissals, transfers, promotions, etc.

iii. Predicting the amount and extent of worker turnover and starting the appropriate remedial actions early.

iv. To adapt to the rapid technological changes occurring inside and outside of an organization.

v. To identify places where there are shortages of workforce and redistribute the available labour force to address the imbalance.

Objectives ofManpower Planning

The following are the major goals of manpower planning:

a) To guarantee the best utilisation of the current workforce.

b) To predict the future need for labour.

c) To implement control measures to guarantee that the requisite workforce is accessible when needed.

d) To integrate organisational planning with personnel planning.

e) To evaluate the availability and demand for labour.

f) To foresee how technology will affect employment and human resources.

g) To figure out training and recruiting levels.

h) To calculate the price of labour and the housing requirements of workers.

i) To act as a foundation for management development initiatives.

j) To make productivity negotiating easier.

k) To support the growth and diversification program's requirements.

Process ofManpower Planning

a) Predicting the requirement for labour is a step in the human resource process.

b) Creating job descriptions and requirements.

c) Analytical abilities to identify the kind of labour, required.

d) Selecting reliable sources for hiring.

The following four techniques are often used to determine the number of employees needed.

i. Minimum man specifications that are fixed.

ii. An annual estimate of open positions.

iii. Estimates for specific positions as well as long-term vacancies.

iv. A thorough understanding of the operation of the human resource system or manpower system is necessary for effective manpower planning, with a focus on the flow supply and demand of people into, through, and out of the organisation.

On the supply side, precise information on qualitative and quantitative aspects like skill invention and public policy towards human resource is needed for manpower planning. On the demand side, elements like productivity, technological advancements, and sales projections are taken into consideration. Within the parameters of organisational objectives and priorities, supply and demand are continually balanced[7]–[9]. Below is an approach for planning human resources:

i. Forecasting the Wastage.

ii. Reconciling Demand and Supply.

iii. Manpower Demand Forecasting.

iv. Manpower Supply Forecasting.

v. Manpower Inventory.

DISCUSSION

Manpower Demand Forecasting

The predicting of the demand for labour is the first step in the human resource planning or manpower planning process. This forecasting has to be in accordance with the goals or plans of the organisation. The forecasting of the needed manpower is done in terms of the quantity of extra workers, the category to which the additional employees will belong, and the education, expertise, aptitudes, and experience of the additional employees.Under these techniques, there are some conceptual issues which need elaboration which are:

i. Manpower Forecast.

ii. Need for Manpower Forecast.

iii. Types of Forecasts.

iv. Data Base for Manpower Forecasting.

Manpower Forecast

It is important to distinguish between projection and forecast when discussing manpower forecasting. The term projection may be used to describe an outcome that results from spontaneous forces, happens without external causes, or is predicted in the regular sequence of events without external stimuli. On the other hand, a forecast is a prediction of what will happen when external influences have an impact on and modify the path of normally occurring events[10].

Need for Manpower Forecast

The primary underlying reason for developing personnel projections is the significant delay in the

generation of highly qualified professionals. Manpower forecasts are created in advance to help with planning for education and training in an attempt to guarantee that the skilled labour necessary is accessible when it is needed. The second main reason for implementing this method is due to flaws in the labour market, which are caused by markets for labour with long lead times for production are characterised by cobweb cycles because of long lags in the supply side and short lags on the size of demand. As a result, the labour market may ultimately lead to distortion in occupation and education correspondence, which could either result in a significant amount of educated unemployment or people taking those occupations.Forecasting the availability of workers would make it easier to remedy labour market imbalances. The third justification for using these strategies is that the production of products and services requires a certain number of different types of skilled labour. If there is a lack of competent labour, it will have a negative impact on the economy's ability to produce products and services. And personnel predictions would aid in anticipating skill shortages and supporting the appropriate planning of skill supply, helping to avert such a catastrophe.

Types of Manpower Forecast

Types of manpower estimates based on the objectives of the projections. Here is a quick description of some of the most common forecast types:

1.Short-Term Projections: These projections are prepared for a time frame of no more than two years. This projection is intended to make it easier to estimate the financial resources needed for wages and salaries in projects that have already begun or are anticipated to begin soon. It is helpful in allocating resources among competing programmes that will soon be put into action. At the micro level, or let's say corporation level, it is quite helpful.

2.Medium-Term Projections: In most nations, these forecasts are generated over a period of two to five years. It is helpful in departments that advise ministers or create backup plans for unexpected changes in the political landscape, the economy, or world events.

3.Long-Term Predictions: Long-term projections are those made for a time frame longer than five years. In terms of educational planning for the high skilled professional categories of people, these projections are highly helpful. They are helpful in developing company strategies that include positive improvements. substantial organisational advances and technological advancements.

4.Policy-conditional Forecasts: These projections are made in response to the variables that affect the demand for labour and may be based on a generalisation, expert opinion, an explicitly stated model, or any combination of the three.

5.Observers' Forecasts: This prediction was created by making the assumption that the variables affecting the demand for labour would continue to operate as they have in the past. Observer predictions may also be derived using a general rule, expert opinion, a well-defined model, or a mix of the three.

6.Forecast Optimisation: In this approach, the quantities of different types of labour are needed in such a way as to either maximise overall benefits or reduce resource costs associated with reaching pre-established end goals.

7.Macro and Micro Predictions: Macro and micro forecasts are two additional categories of manpower projections, and it's crucial to distinguish between them since they have different

objectives, methodology, and data bases.

Manpower Demand Forecasting

Manpower demand forecasting techniques used at the macro level are as follows:

i. Employees Opinion Method.
ii. Normative Method.
iii. Component Method.
iv. International Comparisons Method.
v. Mediterranean Regional Project (MRP) Method.

Method Using Employee Opinion

Employees are asked to rate the future personnel requirements in many categories in their particular organisation using this approach. combining all personnel while accounting for migration, career mobility, mortality, and retirement. The future demand for labour may then be calculated per skill type. In the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Sweden, and France, this technique is extensively employed. It has also been noted that the approach has proven far more helpful in creating short-term manpower estimates than medium-term and long-term forecasts. This method is especially helpful in the case of highly trained professional categories of personnel.

Normative Approach

The normative approach employs standards for the utilisation of labour while producing products and services. Norms are often represented as ratios of the amount of labour used to create a certain amount or dollar amount of products and services. Based on either the current condition or the ideal state, these ratios The production ratio, employment-fixed capital ratio, teacher:student ratio, and engineer:technician ratio are a few examples of ratios.

Component Method

In the component technique, the needs for each category of manpower are further separated into several components, and the prediction of manpower requirements for each component is then made using a different norm applicable to each component. The forecasts for each component are then combined to predict the future manpower needs for the relevant manpower category. The normative approach is essentially the component method. The main distinction is the application of various standards to various components.

Method of International Comparison

Utilising solid standards is often made easier by international comparison. The worldwide comparisons technique involves a significant amount of subjective judgement of global experiences, and it is not always simple to support an objective assessment. Consequently, this approach has not been especially well-liked.

MRP Approach

In order to make the forecasts directly applicable to educational planning activities, the MRP approach is created to predict personnel requirements by educational category. Forecasting the

number of workers needed based on education requires five processes. In the case of planned economics, the first stage is to arrive at the target year GDP predictions set by an economic plan. The second phase is estimating the sectoral contributions to GDP in the target year by key industries such manufacturing, trade, services, transport, and communication. To estimate employment in the target year by sector, sector-specific average employment output ratios are applied to the sectoral composition of GDP in the third stage. Fourth, using either the base year or any desired sector-occupation distribution, sectoral employment predictions for the target year are then dispersed across a set of mutually incompatible occupational categories. In the third phase, the educational structure of the target year's occupational structure of manpower projections is converted using a standard measure of the amount of formal education training needed to effectively complete the duties listed under each occupational title. This process provides for actual workforce requirements, not replacement requirements.

Techniques of Micro-Forecasting

Regarding micro forecasting in demand forecasting, there are three methods/steps that are as follows:

1. Evolving manning norms based on an analysis of workload structure.
2. Forecasting workload.
3. Relating workload to manning norms.

1. EvolvingManning Norms Based on An Analysis of Workload Structure

It begins by taking a complete look at an organization's work, which is then broken down into functions. The tasks are then created from the functions, and work groups are defined for each job. The tiers and the number of positions at each level for each category. The work descriptions for each level of employment, as well as the incumbents' performance in relation to job requirements, for each level of position. are assessed, the number of levels and jobs needed at each level, skill gaps for each post, and the education, training, and experience requirements are determined based on this research. In order to establish acceptable standards, the micro-level process of manpower forecasting necessitates a prediction and study of future workload patterns.

2.Forecasting Workload

Workload Prediction If work consists of only one kind of activity, then the total output serves as a gauge for how much work was done. Workload is a function of population in sectors like the provision of healthcare. In the delivery of healthcare, population estimates derived from demographic techniques may be regarded as workload forecasts. As a result, we forecast the workload for each task individually before adding the workloads of each task to get the forecast for the whole workload (work consists of a variety of jobs). Procedure is quite arduous if the duty is many. Therefore, in this instance when all the tasks are fully connected with one another, it could be feasible to lower the size of the issue. If the tasks are not fully linked, it is still feasible to minimise the dimension by using these two statistical procedures. It would be sufficient to use only one task or the average of all tasks for projection purposes. • Factor analysis and principal component analysis.

3. Relating Workload to Manning Norms

According to historical data and knowledge of the factors impacting productivity, if workload is

supplied as w and worker productivity is given as p, then the following manpower estimates in numerical form are possible:

Numbers required in future = w/ρ.

Database for Manpower Forecasting

The approaches that may be used in manpower forecasting are determined by databases, which is why they are so important. For macro and micro, there is a distinct database, which is as follows:

Macro Forecasting Database

It would be good to have similar data on the following things collected over a number of years in the past for macro forecasting.

Demographic Information

It requires the country's population broken down by age, sex, education, economic activity, status, migration, marital status, region, and distribution between rural and urban areas.

Economic parameter data

Data on inputs, outputs, capital, investment, wages, productivity, value added, depreciation by industry, consumption, savings, and health expenditures by income starta of population in rural-urban regions of each region are needed under it on a time series basis.

Details about technologies Industry needs information on current technologies that specifically outlines the effects of each technology on investment, investment generation, and employment. Industry also needs similar data on upcoming technology.

Micro Forecasting Data Base

In light of this, an enterprise: or company-level Manpower Information System (MIS) is required. The following module is part of MIS.

Personal Data Module Information

About your identity, your schooling, and your credentials. Date of recruitment, scores on aptitude and leadership exams, overall grade, career preference and choice, etc. are all included in the recruiting module.

Job Experience Module

Job placement information, grade advancements, grade-level activities completed, notable contributions, etc.

Performance assessment Module

Performance assessment at each position held, job evaluation based on the work description, communication rating, interpersonal connection rating, group behavior commitment rating, etc.

Miscellaneous Module

Person assessments of training requirements in relation to tasks presently being done, kind of training obtained at each level, efficacy of training as evaluated by the person, etc. Records of wages and benefits received, health status details pertaining to issues with the individual that need the authorities' attention, security requirements, etc.

CONCLUSION

Organisations must do personnel planning in order to fulfil their goals effectively. By anticipating and adapting to shifting workforce needs, it enables businesses to make sure that the correct talent is available when it's needed. Effective personnel planning entails a number of activities, including evaluating the skills of the present staff, projecting future demands, identifying skill shortages, and putting recruiting and development programmes into place. However, organisations may encounter difficulties such ambiguous market circumstances, technology improvements, and demographic shifts, which may affect the results of workforce planning. Organisations should develop a proactive and adaptable strategy to meet these problems, using data and analytics to guide decision-making. Organisations may maximise resource utilisation, boost productivity, and react to changing business conditions by integrating their staff with their strategic objectives.

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UNDERSTANDING THE MEANING OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Dr. Akhila Udupa*

*Associate Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-akhila.udupa@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Organisations use performance evaluation as a critical tool to measure and evaluate workers' job performance. This essay seeks to provide a general review of performance evaluation while emphasising its significance, advantages, and difficulties. The article addresses several performance appraisal methodologies and procedures, including rating scales, 360-degree feedback, and self-evaluation. It also examines how feedback and good communication play a part in performance reviews. The research also looks at possible biases and limits in performance evaluation, highlighting the need for fairness and objectivity. The value of performance evaluation in fostering employee growth, recognising top performers, and coordinating personal aspirations with organisational objectives is highlighted in the chapter's conclusion.

KEYWORDS: *Appraisal, Approach, Assessment, Employee, Evaluation, Performance, Rating.*

INTRODUCTION

Members of a work group may form opinions on one another knowingly or unconsciously. The viewpoint could relate to their abilities, demeanour, methods of operation, etc. Such a viewpoint serves as the foundation for interpersonal communication. In a similar manner, supervisors build opinions about their subordinates in order to decide on a variety of factors, including wage increases, promotions, transfers, etc. This procedure is institutionalised and takes the shape of performance reviews in big businesses. The New York City Civil Service implemented performance evaluation in its current form in 1883. Since then, and notably after World War I, the majority of big companies, particularly in the business sphere, have implemented performance evaluation in a formal manner. Large firms use the formal appraisal process as well in our nation.

The assessment of value, quality, or merit is called an appraisal. Performance reviews are systematic evaluations of employees' work by supervisors or other people acquainted with their work in the context of an organisation. When one person is rated as better or worse than others, this is known as a merit rating or performance evaluation. The main goal of this merit rating is to determine a worker's promotion eligibility. However, since its use goes beyond determining eligibility for promotion, performance evaluation is a more complete phrase for similar operations. In addition to promotion, these actions might include training and development, pay raises, transfers, and discharges. The following is a formal definition of performance appraisal. It is the process of evaluating the performance and qualifications of employees in terms of the requirements of the job for which he is employed, for administrative purposes including placement, selection for promotion, providing financial rewards, and other actions which require differential treatment among the members of a group as distinguished from actions affecting all me Performance appraisal is the systematic evaluation of the individual with regard to his or her

performance on the job and his potential for development, according to Beach.As a result, performance evaluations are a methodical and impartial tool to assess an employee's relative value or capacity for doing his work. It promotes methodical and objective characteristics. When all performances are assessed uniformly and using the same techniques, the assessment is methodical and allows for the comparison of ratings for various individuals. Such an evaluation is conducted on a regular basis in accordance with a strategy; it is not random. As a result, the mechanism and timing of the performance assessment are known to both raters and ratees. Appraisal is also objective. Its key characteristic is that it makes an effort to account for human biases and preconceptions in order to assess things accurately[1]–[3].

Merit Rating

One way to think about performance evaluation is as a merit ranking, where one person is rated better or worse than others. Therefore, even if they vary in terms of aims and the scope of activities covered throughout the assessment process, merit rating and performance appraisal are essentially equivalent. According to Flippo, Merit rating is a systematic, periodic, and, to the extent that it is humanly possible, an impartial rating of an employee's excellence in matters pertaining to his present job and to his potential for better job. According to the definition given above, merit rating and performance evaluation share several components. It employs several of the performance assessment approaches, including comparison, the grading system, the checklist method, the critical event method, and others. In order to better understand how merit evaluation and performance appraisal are different.

Merit Rating and Performance Appraisal

Let's take a quick look at how the idea of assessment developed and altered through time before comparing merit ratings with performance appraisals. Since it was first established formally in the 1920s, appraisal has experienced a significant transformation in terms of goals and procedures. During the First World War, the US Army established an appraisal system that involved comparisons for the assessment of military personnel and took the form of merit rating. This idea came from the army and was only applied to hourly employees when it reached the commercial world. Industrial units implemented relational pay structures for hourly:paid employees throughout the 1920s, and each worker was scored against others to determine wage rates[4]–[6].

Merit rating was the name of this system. The idea of assessment was introduced to technical and management staff in the early 1950s. These employees were first evaluated using a merit rating system, albeit other variables were taken into account. Such a rating included pay modifications, promotions, and transfers as its goals. The assessment method was expanded to include personnel appraisal, which placed a focus on a person's total evaluation—his performance, conduct, abilities, and potentialswhen the necessity for training became apparent in corporate companies. Performance appraisal, merit rating, behavioural assessment, employee evaluation, personnel review, staff assessment, and employee annual confidential report are just a few of the words that have been used to refer to appraisal in the past.

Objectives of Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal practises reveal that organisations use performance appraisal to achieve specific goals, such as salary increases, promotions, identifying areas for training and development, giving employees feedback, and applying pressure for improved performance. Performance evaluations are taken into consideration when deciding whether to raise salaries. An

employee's compensation rise often relies on how well he does his job. His performance is continuously evaluated, both officially and informally. Performance evaluation may be an informal procedure in a small firm since there is direct communication between the employee and the person who decides whether to enhance their pay. Formal performance evaluations must be conducted, nevertheless, in huge organisations where such interaction is rare. This may reveal how well a worker is functioning and how much of a wage boost he merits[6]–[9]. Where promotion is, performance evaluation plays a key role. For promotions, the majority of firms often combine merit with seniority. An employee's performance is evaluated, and this information reveals both his strengths and weaknesses in the context of his current position. These may be used to determine if he qualifies for promotion to the next higher job and what extra training he will need. Similar to promotions and terminations, performance reviews may be used to transfer or demote employees.

Performance evaluation aims to pinpoint an employee's advantages and disadvantages in his current position. This data may be utilised to create training and development plans that are suitable for helping workers overcome their deficiencies. In reality, a lot of firms utilise performance reviews to determine which staff require training.Employees get feedback on their performance via performance appraisals. They are informed of their position. Knowing how one is working and how one's efforts are assisting in achieving organisational goals helps one work more effectively. Two approaches are involved in this. First, the individual receives feedback on his performance, and he could make an effort to correct his shortcomings in order to perform better. Second, the individual may link his job to the goals of the company when he receives feedback on his performance. He is satisfied that his work has value as a result. He will thus do his utmost to offer as much as possible to the company, assuming the right organisational atmosphere[10].

Pressure on Staff. Employees are under some pressure to perform better as a result of performance reviews. When workers are aware that they are being evaluated based on certain criteria and that this evaluation will have a significant impact on their future, they are more likely to perform in a way that is favourable and acceptable. Therefore, evaluation may function automatically as a control device. The aforementioned performance evaluation functions are quite significant. However, these jobs can only be filled when there is a systematic performance review process in place, and different pertinent judgements are made objectively in light of the review's findings. Managers must have a thorough awareness of the different complexities involved in performance evaluation, including the technique of performance appraisal, issues in performance appraisal, and solutions to these problems.

DISCUSSION

Methods of Performance Appraisal

There are several ways to evaluate performance. Actually, any firm could have its own distinct system and technique of evaluation. In one company, it can be ongoing and informal, with a superior's personal view of his subordinates serving as the foundation for evaluation. In another, it may be clearly laid out and all managers might adhere to a certain structure and methodology. Regardless of the approach used, performance evaluation typically has two bases. Trait-based evaluations of workers, also known as the trait approach. Outcomes-based evaluations of employees' performance, work, and objectives attained, also known as appraisal by results. However, these two strategies may be combined and are not mutually incompatible. Either the

trait approach, outcomes approach, or a mix of both may be used in many ways, leading to several techniques of evaluation that may be categorised in various ways.

For instance, Decenzo and Robbins divided these into three categoriessingle-trait, single subject, in which an appraisee is compared with others, single-trait, multiple subject, and multipletrait, single subject, in which the first classification's methodology is used but with multiple traits. Beatty and Schneier have categorised different appraisal techniques into four groups: comparative methods, where an appraisee is compared to others; absolute standards, where the appraisee's performance is compared with the standards fixed for him; goal setting, where the appraisee's goals are set through mutual participation between appraiser and appraisee, and direct indices, where the appraisee is assessed directly against the standards set; Various performance evaluation techniques now in use are based on characteristics, outcomes obtained, or a mix of both.

Appraisal Based on Traits

The appraisee's varied characteristics and the behaviours he exhibits while executing his work are highlighted in appraisals based on characteristics and behavioural patterns shown in job performance. The results of such behaviours, or the performance attained, are not considered. There are many techniques for evaluating performance based on attributes.

Ranking Method

The earliest and most basic kind of evaluation is ranking, which compares one individual to another based on certain attributes and characteristics. This is comparable to setting the rankings of different test takers. According to the ranking system, different people are ranked according to their personality qualities. When there are few people to rate, this is a fairly straightforward way because rankings must be made on the basis of characteristics that are difficult to determine, unlike scores on a test. Furthermore, the approach has limited relevance for performance evaluation since disparities in rankings do not imply absolute or equal variances in ability across people.

Paired Comparison:

A small modification of the ranking system, the paired comparison technique is intended to improve the utility of the ranking system for usage in large groups. Each individual is compared to others using this procedure, taking only one at a time. Typically, just one qualitygeneral fitness for the jobis taken into account. A number of slips with a pair of names on each are given to the rater. The rater marks the candidate he believes to be the superior of the two, and the ultimate ranking is based on how often that candidate is deemed superior to others. This approach allows for better person comparisons. However, the sheer volume of comparisons makes this more difficult. There will be 1,225 comparisons, for instance, to rank 50 people using paired comparison. N is the total number of people to be compared, and the formula to compute this is N (N — 1)/2.

Grading

Using this system, individuals are assigned to a certain category based on their qualities and characteristics and specific categories of skills or performances are determined well in advance. Such categories may be letter-based (A, B, C, D, etc.), with A being the best and D denoting the worst, or they may be definitional outstanding, good, average, poor, extremely poor, etc. Based on these ratings, the workers' real performance is evaluated. Generally speaking, this approach is

helpful for performance-based promotions. However, this system has a fundamental flaw in that the rater may give the majority of the workers higher scores.

Forced Distribution approach:

This approach has been used to control the propensity for most appraisees to be rated at the high end of a rating scale. In this procedure, the appraiser is compelled to evaluate the appraisees in accordance with a normal curve's shape. This approach makes the fundamental premise that employee performance levels follow a normal statistical distribution. For instance, 10% of workers may be considered great, 20% might be above average, 40% would be considered normal, 20% might be below average, and 10% might be considered terrible. This approach may be used to assess job performance and promotion potential. The main benefit of this approach is that it gets over the issue of adopting a core propensity to give most staff ratings that are very high or close to high in order to placate them.

Forced-choice Method

Choices that are forced the forced-choice rating technique includes a number of groups of statements, and the rater determines whether each statement accurately characterises each person being rated. The statements and procedures may vary, but the most popular forced-choice approach uses two assertions, either of which may be positive or negative. Although each of them lists the traits of an employee, the rater is compelled to choose just the one that seems to describe the employee's traits better. Only one of these two assertions is taken into account for the rating's final conclusion. A rater could be given the two assertions listed below, for instance: The worker puts forth a lot of effort. The employee offers his subordinates precise instructions. Both of these assertions are true, but the rater is only expected to give a good rating to the one that best describes the actions of his subordinate. To eliminate subjectivity in ranking, this is done. Only one of the aforementioned two assertions should be taken into account when determining the final grade. The rater cannot become subjective since he does not know which statement will be used for the final rating. For rating, a number of sets of such statementsboth positive and negativeare provided. On the basis of all statement sets, the final rating is determined. Although this approach may be more objective, creating such collections of assertions may be quite challenging.

Critical Incidents Method

In this technique, only critical events and the conduct they are linked with are used for assessment. There are three phases in this process. A test of remarkable workplace conduct is in the works. Then, a committee of specialists gives them scale ratings based on how desirable they are for the position. A list of situations that distinguish between excellent and poor workers is then finalised. This checklist is provided to the rater for rating. Since most workers perform similarly under everyday circumstances, the fundamental goal of this rating is to identify those individuals who can perform effectively under pressure. Finding prospective workers who can contribute in urgent situations may be done extremely effectively using this strategy. A circumstance like that can be crucial for the job. You may get a better picture of a supervisor's leadership skills and situational management by looking at how he or she managed a sudden employee disruption, for instance. This approach has certain advantageous qualities. It evaluates actions that are crucial to doing the task successfully. If the critical incident record is properly maintained, it offers a solid indicator of whether a person is a good match for the position. However, this approach has significant operational and psychological drawbacks. Burack and

Smith have discovered the following restrictions:

1. In general, negative experiences stand out more than happy ones.

2. The superior's fundamental responsibility is to record incidences, yet this task is often postponed and forgotten.

3. Excessive oversight could ensue.

4. During the yearly performance review process, the managers could air a number of grievances about incidences. The rate may feel punished if they get too much feedback all at once. Instead, the management need to take advantage of instances of subpar performance to provide quick training and counselling.

Graphic Scale Method

The most often used kind of performance evaluation is the graphic scale, usually referred to as the linear rating scale. For each appraisee, a printed appraisal form is used in this manner. Various employee attributes and his work performance are included on the form. Depending on the level of the employee, different qualities may include initiative, leadership, reliability, cooperation, excitement, creative capacity, analytical ability, decisiveness, emotional maturity, etc. Job performance covers the amount and quality of work produced, the level of responsibility taken on, the accomplishment of certain goals, the regularity of attendance, etc. The rating is carried out using a scale that is on a continuum. The main goal of this scaling is to provide the rater a continuum that represents different levels of a certain quality. Each quality's level of possession by the rater's subordinates is estimated.

Quality is rated on a scale that ranges from three to many points, depending on the situation. The majority of practises, meanwhile, use scales. Some businesses utilise even numbers to counteract the rater's propensity to highlight key spots with a checkmark. Degrees may have a number or a definition. As a result, the numbers 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 may be used to indicate points for different levels of high-low, good-bad, and so on. The adjectives excellent, very good, average, poor, and very poor, or very high, high, average, low, and very low, may be used to convey these figures. Sometimes definitions and descriptions of attributes may be used in place of numerical representations of varying degrees. The graphic scale approach is effective for evaluating an employee's varied work behaviours. It does, however, include some rater bias. In identifying and assessing different qualities, issues may arise.

Field Review Method

In the field review approach, a worker is not evaluated by his immediate supervisor but rather by a different individual, often from the personnel department. The fundamental premise is that because he is not under the same pressure as the employee's boss, he can evaluate the employee with greater objectivity. In this instance, the rater evaluates the employee based on his production records and other quantitative data, such as absenteeism, lateness, etc. To find out more about the qualitative components of work performance, the rater also conducts interviews with the employee and his supervisor. This approach is more suited for marketing objectives. Additionally, this approach offers data for comparing workers from various places and units.

Due to the need that personnel department staff get training in the assessment process, the likelihood of bias is significantly minimised. The rater may be able to identify areas that need

training and development support even when a supervisor or other relevant parties provide biassed information. However, the field review technique has two drawbacks. An outsider is often unfamiliar with the circumstances in an employee's workplace that might impair his capacity and drive to succeed. The outsider only has the chance to examine the employee's conduct or performance during a very brief, artificially constructed interview. They are unable to study the employee's behaviour or performance over time or in a range of settings.

Assessment of Appraisal Based on Traits

The different performance evaluation techniques that have been presented so far all evaluate the appraisees using a variety of qualities. Despite the fact that each approach has its own drawbacks, which have been discussed in the context of each of them, they all provide some relevant data, particularly for training and development. The trait method to performance evaluation, however, has the following drawbacks:

1. This method is more susceptible to biases. A trait is a distinctive attribute in a person that cannot be seen via simple observation. Appraisal based on observation is likely to be inaccurate without certain testing. Therefore, because performance is such a crucial topic, honest and responsible managers do not want to use their plainly subjective judgements. Employees who obtain a rating below the best nearly always believe they have been treated unjustly.

2. Finding the characteristics that should be examined is another issue that the trait method faces. For instance, roughly 300 qualities have been found by psychologists. Therefore, choosing which attributes to include in the assessment is a challenging task. However, if the attributes are chosen based on the job description, which aims to prescribe the characteristics of people in light of the nature of the work, this issue may be handled to some degree.

3. Employee resistance to being judged on the basis of their characteristics is another significant issue in the road. They believe that the company just cares about how well they do at work, not how they think or value themselves personally. Similar opposition could also come from superiors. Because people must rate without completely understanding how to rate, they could object. They see it as just a piece of chapterwork that has to be completed because someone requested it. People usually go through the chapterwork and try to make the ratings as pleasant as possible when this occurs. As a result, they often have exceedingly high standards. The fact that the trait approaches of performance evaluation have a number of drawbacks does not imply that they are useless or that they are not used. Although not exclusively, but rather in conjunction with other things, they are in use. Modern techniques relate to a variety of innovative strategies that have developed to address the constraints of previous ways of assessment. Although they provide improved possibilities for evaluation, they are not without limits. Because of the complexity of human conduct and individual diversity, no system may be flawless. Results are the foundation for many modern performance assessment methods.

CONCLUSION

Organisations may analyse and successfully manage employee performance with the help of performance appraisal. Organisations may acquire detailed information on a worker's job performance, strengths, and areas for development using a variety of approaches and procedures. The procedure promotes a culture of ongoing learning and growth by allowing for feedback and discussion between staff members and supervisors.While performance reviews provide many advantages, there are also some drawbacks. Biases and subjectivity may affect how fair and

objective assessments are, which might result in employee demotivation and discontent. To reduce these biases, organisations must build strong assessment processes, educate their managers, and set precise evaluation standards.Performance evaluation is essential for finding high-performing individuals, creating possibilities for career advancement, and coordinating individual performance with organisational objectives, notwithstanding its shortcomings. It offers a foundation for making knowledgeable judgements on requirements for promotions, awards, and training. Organisations may raise staff morale and motivation by praising and rewarding performance, which will eventually result in higher output and organisational success.

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PROMOTION EVALUATION: APPRAISING FOR ADVANCEMENT

Dr. Nalin Chirakkara*

*Associate Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-nalinkumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Organisations use the evaluation for promotion process to assess individuals' eligibility and preparedness for progression within the corporate structure. This essay tries to provide a general overview of the assessment for promotion process, highlighting its importance, essential components, and difficulties. The necessity of precise criteria and impartial evaluations in establishing promotion eligibility is discussed in the study. It examines several assessment techniques, such as performance reviews, skill evaluations, and prospective evaluations. The function of efficient communication and feedback in the process of promotion assessment is also examined in the article. Additionally, it highlights the value of fairness and equal chances while examining possible biases and factors related to promotion assessments. The need of a well-designed and open system for evaluating candidates for promotions is highlighted in the chapter's conclusion in order to encourage employee development, motivation, and organisational success.

KEYWORDS: *Assessment, Evaluation, Performance, Promotion, Seniority, System.*

INTRODUCTION

Performance reviews have two goals: to evaluate an employee in his current position and to help him improve performance in that role while also preparing him for work. It is not required for an employee who is doing well in his current work to perform as well in a job since the performance of this higher-order job relies on his potential in light of the requirements of the new job. Therefore, prospective evaluation is used to estimate an employee's chances of succeeding in their new position. From this vantage point, prospective evaluation is distinct from performance assessment since the former is connected to a possible position, while the latter is connected to a current one[1], [2].

People are like icebergs, according to K. Ramchandran, Director and Senior Vice-President (Human Resource and Operational Policy), Philips India Limited, where potential evaluation is carried out in a highly methodical manner. Only a tiny portion of the performance is visible on the surface. The qualities I refer to as potential, which are essential for doing well in the future, are mostly concealed below the surface. This concealed aspect of a person is uncovered via potential evaluation. While many businesses conduct potential assessments independently, others include them into their performance evaluation programmes. The majority of these businesses are subsidiaries of global corporations like Philips, Hindustan Lever, Glaxo, P&G, etc. Promotion includes more than just prospective evaluation, however.

Types of Promotion

A transition from one position to another that is superior in terms of status and responsibilities is often referred to as promotion within an enterprise. Normally, moving to a higher position is accompanied with a rise in income and perks, but this isn't always the case. An increase in responsibility and prestige without a salary rise is referred described as a dry promotion. Promotion may be divided into two types: horizontal promotion and vertical promotion, depending on the variables involved. In a horizontal promotion, the employee's position is enhanced but his work classification stays the same. An individual crosses his work classification when promoted vertically, like when a lower division clerk becomes an upper division clerk with the same job assignment and responsibilities. His prestige and responsibilities are elevated as a result[3]–[6]. As an example, a superintendent may supervise a department. William Spriegal divided promotions into three categories based on where an employee was sent after receiving a promotion: inter-departmental, departmental, and inter-plants.

Need for Promotion

Organisations should have a comprehensive and organised promotion strategy, it is highlighted. What particular objective is met by promotion, then? The advancement is really quite desired for the firm and its employees. Organising requirements: No company can fill all of its positions only via external hiring. While it is true that certain occupations are comparable across most firms, most positions also call for some specialisation, which may be learned inside a specific company. Even less unusual professions could involve acquaintance with the staff, processes, rules, and unique qualities of the organisation where they are conducted. As a result, the organisation needs promotional ladders to move employees with extensive expertise up the ranks. Offering Inspiration. Individuals' conduct inside a company is influenced by their chances for promotion.

This encourages companies and more capable people to advance. Promotion is utilised as a reward, an incentive for greater job performance, and for other forms of behaviours that are sanctioned by the firm. People will exert more effort if they believe it will result in a promotion[7]–[10]. If people believe that higher employment are only for foreigners, they lack drive. Providing Satisfaction: Modern firms provide their members a wide range of advantages. For both their inherent advantages and their symbolic implications of success ideals, promotions are greatly desired by people. Employee happiness is increased by providing opportunities and clear advancement procedures in the following ways: Employees at the company experience job satisfaction. Promotions help workers grow morally and economically. They constantly seem to find methods to advance. They may become more productive in order to advance, which fosters the habit of learning new things. Their morale stays strong, which is beneficial to both the firm and the personnel.

Basic for Promotion

In a promotion system, many intricate and interconnected elements are taken into account. Choosing someone to promote is a challenging assignment for management since there are often more contenders than positions. Merit and seniority are the criteria that might be used to determine promotions. Promotion based on merit: In general, management people favour merit, which is established by work performance and an examination of an employee's advancement prospects. By doing this, they guarantee that skill will be the primary factor in development. The top performing employee should be promoted if promotion is to be a reward. Efficiency in the workplace is assured when merit is used as the basis for advancement. However, unless careful and methodical measures are made to quantify merit, the case for merit has no support. The

absence of objective standards makes evaluating merit when deciding who gets promoted the most challenging. Test results, performance reviews, and behaviour analysis may all be taken into account, but there is no reliable evaluation method that is judgment-free. Lack of understanding of the standards used to determine effectiveness or fitness for fulfilling promotion requirements is another issue with merit-based promotions.

Despite having a personality that may not be ideal for higher roles, a person may be highly competent in their current position. He may not succeed in a higher position if he is promoted based just on current knowledge criteria. By a ratio of 10 to 1, personality deficiencies rather than knowledge deficiencies are the primary causes of management failures. The significance of personality traits suggests that current knowledge is not crucial for purposes of advancement. The precise characteristics, attitudes, personalities, and talents that comprise merit and ability are usually confusing when determining comparative merit for advancement. Because of this, certain firms often depend on objective metrics, including years of schooling. Executive achievement is mostly determined by two factors. These are the rankings for each organisation and its overall efficacy. As a result, these two characteristics may be used to gauge promotion potential. These two criteria, however, are both theoretically flawed and exceedingly difficult to implement. Despite the many challenges involved in determining merit, it is used as the foundation for promotion decisions.

DISCUSSION

Promotion on Seniority Basis

It is as ancient as civilization itself to distinguish people based on seniority. All groups, including those in the military, the government, and industry, accept seniority. However, management and labour unions often disagree on the degree to which promotions should be determined by seniority. The duration of acknowledged service in an organisation is a definition of seniority. Despite being frequently related, seniority and experience are not always equal. Except when applied to specific people who make the experience relevant in ongoing circumstances, experience measured in years has limited value.

Establishing Seniority: The rules should be clearly stated before assessing an individual's seniority inside the organisation. If they are not, seniority may cause more issues with the workforce than it solves. The creation and design of a seniority system involves four main tasks:

1. **Accumulation of Seniority**: The capacity of seniority to objectively discern between all employees is its greatest advantage. The company must thus recognise the precise term of service. When seniority builds up, it might be difficult to determine when it starts and how service disruptions affect seniority. There should be clear guidelines to determine seniority in these situations.

2. Special Groups: Choosing which groups will get special treatment in the form of rule exemptions is the second step in creating a seniority system. It is referred to as super-seniority. The labour unions often demand that officials be granted super-seniority above everyone else. The super-seniority is given in order to preserve the seniority of certain categories of employees. In some circumstances, a corporation should have complete and accurate seniority records of every employee.

3.Seniority Unit: The firm, plant, division, department, or vocation may be used to determine

seniority. There are several uses for each of these regions, whether one or all of them. Seniority is often restricted to an occupational field for promotion reasons, although it may apply to vacation decisions throughout the whole organisation. However, it is crucial to highlight the specific units in which seniority may be gained, and the organisation should keep precise and accurate seniority records for every employee.

4.Employee Benefits: Management should explicitly underline the employment advantages that seniority may impact and the magnitude of that effect while creating the seniority system. Seniority has an impact on a number of workplace variables, including promotion, transfer, layoff, shift preference, vacation preference, separation, etc.The following benefits of seniority-based promotions:

1.Seniority as a criterion for advancement is based on fairness and objectivity. Many workers believe that promotions are not decided fairly as a consequence of the usage of factors including performance reviews, selection exams, and superiors' opinions, which eventually leads to a decline in morale and productivity. It is sometimes argued that promotions should be based on seniority that is assessed objectively to prevent this issue.

2. In a way, giving promotions based on seniority is like rewarding workers for their loyalty. Nobody would contest the merits of reward for loyalty. A form of guaranteed promotion plan could be a successful personnel strategy for organizations that wish to keep their staff members and prevent expensive turnover.

3. If experience is relevant, it may help with ability. Up to a certain point, an employee's qualification for promotion to the next higher position increases with the length of time he spends in that job. According to studies, workers with the longest tenure are often more qualified for promotion than management is first ready to acknowledge. Beyond a certain point, however, prolonged servicing yields very little benefit.

Promotion based only on seniority has several restrictions and flaws. Because workers are guaranteed advancement after a specific number of years of sustained service, it leaves room for inefficiencies. Experience and aptitude may sometimes be unrelated. The capacity for growth via experience varies greatly amongst people. Some people just accept their regular encounters, while others actively seek out and design possibilities for new experiences.

Merit vs Seniority: Striking a Balance

Each foundation for advancement has comparable advantages and disadvantages. Every company must choose the proportional weights it will assign seniority and merit when deciding who gets promoted. In order to maintain a balance between merit and seniority, many businesses use a mix of both criteria rather than using one aspect as the primary basis. In certain companies, promotions in the lower job classes are entirely determined by seniority, whereas promotions in the higher job classes are entirely determined by merit. The amount of influence one individual may reasonably be expected to exercise in two different sorts of occupations is the main driver behind this arrangement. Knowledge elements are more significant in lower-level employment where the employee is more constrained and managed, while personality variables are more significant in higher-level positions where the employee has more discretion over how the task is carried out.

Barriers to Effective Appraisal

Every firm uses formal or informal methods of evaluating employees' performance and potential. This, however, has several flaws and restrictions. A few obstacles prevent efficient assessment systems from working. particular of these obstacles are more obvious in particular types of evaluation techniques, while others could be less obvious. It is crucial to identify these obstacles so that appropriate action may be taken to minimise their negative effects. Three categories may be used to classify the obstacles to successful evaluation.

1. Faulty Assumptions.

2. Psychological Blocks.

3. Technical Pitfalls.

1.Faulty Assumptions

The evaluation system does not function effectively or objectively because of the incorrect assumptions made by the two individuals involvedthe superior and his subordinate. These presumptions undermine an evaluation system in the following ways. It is unjustifiable to assume that managers innately want to evaluate employees fairly and accurately. In their various job responsibilities, both superiors and subordinates have a tendency to shun formal assessment procedures as well as to pay attention to them. Their resistance is caused by a combination of psychological traits, organisational roles, technological shortcomings, and careless administration of assessment rules and processes.

Managers mistakenly believe that a specific assessment method is excellent and that once they start a programme, it will stay that way forever. They put excessive demands on it, depend too much on it, or hold it responsible for their mistakes. It should be acknowledged that no method can provide a faultless, completely justifiable, objective evaluation. Managers may believe that an informal evaluation is preferable to a formal one and seldom employ systematic evaluation and review processes. However, this management by instinct tenet is false and results in prejudice, subjectivity, and erroneous judgements based on incomplete or false information. Employees do not desire to know their true standing and what their managers think of them, contrary to what managers assume. In actuality, subordinates oppose appraisals and often respond with strong hostility. As a result, they often provide information that is as hidden as possible, defeating the fundamental goal of evaluation.

2.Psychological Blocks

Any tool's use, including performance evaluation, depends significantly on the user's abilities. Therefore, regardless of the technique chosen, the usefulness of performance rating relies on the psychological traits of managers. However, research reveals more about the stifling than the enabling traits of individuals. There are a number of psychological barriers that prevent an appraisal system from being effective. These include managers' feelings of insecurity, appraisal as an additional burden, their being overly modest or sceptical, their perception that they should be held accountable for their subordinates' failures, their dislike of subordinates' feelings of resentment, their dislike of communicating poor performance to subordinates, and others. These psychological hurdles make it difficult for managers to be unbiased or objective while assessing their employees, which undermines the fundamental goal of assessment.

Technical Pitfalls

Psychologists have given careful consideration to the design of performance assessment forms, but the issue of identifying appropriate criteria is still present. At best, evaluation techniques are subjective and only quantify performance in the broadest sense. The criteria difficulty and distortions that lessen the result's validity are the two fundamental technical challenges in assessment. A criterion is the performance level that a manager expects from his employees and uses to measure their actual performance. The weakest link in the assessment process is this. It might be challenging to specify criteria in quantitative or even objective terms. Criteria that are ambiguous, unclear, or too generic are challenging obstacles for any process to overcome. Too many traits are ambiguous. A specific attribute might be difficult to describe, and managers who use them may perceive them differently.Biases and evaluation mistakes are two examples of distortions. Whether intentionally or unintentionally, the evaluator may create such distortions. The following distortions may occur in an assessment system:

The Halo Effect

Occurs when the rater's evaluation of the overall performance is tainted by the ratee's one or two very strong (or weak) performances. Another sort of halo effect is when a subordinate's affiliation with a work team or unofficial group has an impact on the rater's assessment. In addition to the group's performance, this attitude may affect how the members of the group are rated if they are disliked. This mistake happens when the rater assigns an average rating to all or almost all of his employees. He doesn't distinguish between those who are better and worse. This might be the result of the rater's ignorance about the people he is assessing, as well as from haste, disinterest, or carelessness.

In every stage of life, there are easy raters and harsh raters. Some raters prefer to give everyone a high rating, while others do not. Some people judge based more on potential than on previously recorded performance. The outcomes of two raters are seldom similar in this circumstance.Managers have strong likes and dislikes for individuals, especially close friends and colleagues. Personal characteristics and emotions have an impact on the assessment, and raters may give more weight to personality features than they understand. Raters often give high ratings to people they like and bad ratings to those they don't.

Overcoming Barriers to Appraisal

Systematic execution as a measuring procedure, assessment must be dependable, which calls for accuracy and consistency. Reliable assessment systems face two key challenges: the technical aspects of the system itself, as well as the appraiser's capacity to employ the tools offered and exercise impartial judgement. If not completely eliminated, the effect of these impediments may be lessened by taking the proper steps in this direction. The following actions might be taken: By comparing the ratings of two people for the same person, one may determine the dependability of the rating system. It may also be discovered by contrasting the supervisor's current rating with another rating at a later time. Furthermore, since an evaluation system fundamentally attempts to objectively assess and deals with more ethereal themes, its degree of dependability cannot be as high as that of a psychological test. Therefore, one should only choose levels of dependability that are adequate.

The assessment system may be created to minimise negative outcomes. The system should put a lot of effort into analysing performance objectively in terms of particular incidents, successes, or failures. The raters can be expected to provide their evaluations based on as much ongoing, close

observation as they can.The staff department may take on the duty of overseeing the system, but the immediate superiors must make the ratings. Despite being unable to alter ratings, the staff department may alert raters to discrepancies such as harshness, leniency, central trend, and so forth.

The ratee and the rating should be discussed. In many respects, this procedure isbeneficial. Knowing where he stands, what is expected of him, his strengths and shortcomings, and the next steps he should take are all helpful. If the right environment has been established, this not only gives subordinates a chance to enhance their performance but also lessens their resistance to appraisals.An effective feedback mechanism, which is sometimes absent from assessment systems, is necessary for them to be successful. If the post-appraisal feedback is withheld or becomes threatening, employees often feel afraid. Managers need to understand that performance reviews are not merely a way to point out problems; rather, they are designed to help employees perform better by identifying their weaknesses and providing solutions.

The supporting management attitude is the last but most crucial aspect for a successful appraisal system. The success of an assessment system depends on having a sound fundamental concept that inspires the ongoing support of all management. Top management must provide a positive example for the ideology across the firm. It should be kept in mind that it takes time and perseverance to create an environment conducive to accurate and dependable evaluations. Effective performance assessment techniques are more likely to be developed in an environment that is goal-oriented and where informality characterises all interactions, communications, and commercial dealings among workers of all levels.

CONCLUSION

The evaluation process for promotions is a crucial one that enables businesses to find and reward workers who have shown they have the abilities and ability to rise within the organisation. Organisations may determine whether individuals are appropriate for promotions by assessing their performance, talents, and appropriateness for higher-level positions. Promotions are important for career growth and employee motivation. In the process of evaluating candidates for promotions, precise and objective criteria are crucial. Employees should be clearly informed of these standards to ensure they are aware of the qualifications and expectations for advancement. In addition to an employee's effectiveness on the job now, evaluations should take into account their potential for advancement. This may be accomplished by combining performance reviews, skills evaluations, and prospective assessments, which will give you a complete picture of the talents of each person.

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CAREER PROGRESSION: PROMOTION AND TRANSFER STRATEGIES

Dr. Pramod Pandey*

*Associate Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-pramodkumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Moving people to more senior roles or new divisions is a crucial procedure in organisations called promotion and transfer. This essay seeks to provide an overview of promotion and transfer while emphasising its importance, advantages, and difficulties. The elements that affect choices about promotions and transfers are discussed in the study, including performance, abilities, potential, and organisational demands. It investigates how justice, opportunity for professional advancement, and efficient communication may all contribute to a pleasant employee experience across these procedures. The essay also looks at possible obstacles including prejudice, favouritism, and change resistance. It also looks at how crucial clear regulations and processes are for fostering openness and fair opportunity. The report ends by highlighting the significance of well thought out promotion and transfer procedures in promoting employee development and organisational success.

KEYWORDS: *Employee, Job, Promotion, Transfer, Work.*

INTRODUCTION

Promotion is the act of moving an individual up the organisational structure to a new position. The employee's compensation, status, level of responsibility, and job or classification grade all change with the new position. The organisation as a whole believes that filling a vacancy will be more valuable than keeping the person in their current role. 'Upgrading' is the term for when an employee's income is raised without a corresponding change in the job grade, as opposed to 'promotion'. However, a promotion is referred to as a dry promotion if the compensation does not change. Internal mobility is accomplished by promotion[1]–[4].Promotion is a two- edged sword. When done properly, it boosts employee motivation and satisfaction. If managed improperly, it causes staff dissatisfaction and unhappiness. The HR manager is responsible for developing a solid promotion policy and ensuring that it is followed

Promotion policy

It must be made clear by the HRM if higher roles will be filled internally via promotions or outside through hiring. Top roles are often filled via external recruiting in organisations. Promotions from inside are used to fill the lesser ranks. When it has been determined to fill higher positions with promotions, HRM should next decide on the criteria for the promotion. Promotions may be made based on merit, seniority, or both. The decision of whether to promote workers in response to open positions or not is one of the most crucial aspects of the promotion strategy. After a certain amount of time in service, promotions are often given out without a vacancy. These promotions are time-limited and not merit: or opening-based. The other method is to

connect job openings with promotions. These openings are sometimes established to prevent promotion candidates from becoming discouraged. A job analysis and performance evaluation should come before a promotion. A job analysis is crucial to understanding what is expected of the employee, and performance reviews help management determine if the individual in issue is capable of meeting those expectations. The labor unions should be consulted on the promotion strategy, and an agreement securing their support is required. Openings for promotions that are based on competence should be posted in a number of locations so that interested parties may submit applications.

Bases of Promotion

Depending on their nature, size, management strategy, and other factors, different organisations use various basis for promotion. Seniority and merit are the two widely accepted criteria for advancement.

Seniority Based Promotion

If seniority is used as the basis for promotion, the person with the longest tenure will obtain the job, whether or not he is qualified.

Advantages

1. It's simple to administrate.

2. It is simple to calculate service time and determine seniority.

3. With seniority as the foundation, there is no room for favouritism, prejudice, or subjective evaluation, and everyone is certain to be promoted at some point.

4. Employees are more ready to work for an elderly boss who has devoted many years to the business.

Disadvantages

1. The ability of senior (older) personnel to learn may decline.

2. It lowers employee morale and increases turnover among younger, more capable workers.

3. Due to technical improvements and a multi-cultural organisation, the firm lacks foreign talent, which is very important.

4. As issues such job seniority, company seniority, regional seniority, service in many organisations, trainee experience, research experience, etc., would arise, judging seniority is quite tough.

DISCUSSION

Merits or Competence-Based Promotion

Promotions made on the basis of merit take place when an individual performs better than average in their present position. Merit refers to a person's knowledge, talents, and abilities as determined by his or her educational background, experience, training, and previous career history.

Advantages

1. The benefits Promotion based on merit is a benefit given to workers who successfully work to advance their knowledge or skills and who consistently produce a lot of work.

2. Focusing on skilled individuals may help the company see their abilities and appreciate their efforts.

3. Efficiency is praised, acknowledged, and encouraged. Competent workers are kept around because greater opportunities are available to them.

4. It motivates other workers to raise their performance standards by actively participating in all activities and exerting greater effort.

Disadvantages

1. Merit is difficult to quantify.

2. Promoting the top performance may be hampered by personal biases, prejudices, and union demands.

3. Senior workers get irritated when younger employees advance in the organisation ahead of them. They experience insecurity and can even leave the company.

4. An employee's future success may not be guaranteed by prior performance.

5. Longevity of service and loyalty are not fully rewarded.

Advantages of Promotion Plan

1. It gives current workers the chance to transition into positions that provide higher levels of prestige and personal fulfilment.

2. It gives management the chance to reward and motivate the more effective workers, to fix any early hiring errors, and to freeze ineffective people.

3. It acts as an organised, rational, and fast source of recruiting for management to fill openings when they occur.

4. It creates within an organisation favourable demand on job performance and desirable conduct of all its members.

5. Promotion allows workers to finally realise long-held dreams.

Disadvantages ofPromotion Plan

1. Promotion encourages inbreeding, preventing the organisation from bringing in fresh talent and innovative ideas. Old behaviours and viewpoints are maintained.

2. The process becomes monotonous, repetitive, and quite traditional.

3. In areas where they have less effect, the newest staff are presented.

Demotion

The opposite of promotion is a promotion. It is the progression of a worker down the organisational ladder with a lesser rank, income, and workload. It is often used as a corrective action for incompetence or as a stepping stone to termination. Employees go through a degrading process when they lose a lot financially and emotionally[5]–[8].

Causes of Demotion

1. The new job's demands might be too much for the individual to handle.
2. He may not have strong managerial abilities.
3. A company may decide to downgrade certain employees and lay off others due to unfavourable business circumstances and ongoing losses.
4. It is sometimes used as a disciplinary measure against disobedient workers.

Transfer

A transfer denotes an employee's lateral shift in the hierarchy of roles while maintaining the same status and compensation. Transfers may be requested by either the employer or the employee. A transfer is really a change in work assignment. It could include a promotion, a demotion, or absolutely no change in position and accountability.

1. Permanent or temporary transfers from one position to another are also possible. Temporary transfers might result.
2. Temporary absence.
3. Task changes.
4. Vacations.
5. Permanent transfers may result.
6. Changes in workload.
7. Openings needing the moved employee's specialised competence.
8. Employee illness.

Requests for transfers may originate from the employee, his supervisor, the head of a different department, or they may be prompted by changes in the amount of trade operations. When an employee requests a move on their own, it usually means that they do not like their job, their workplace, or their coworkers.Transfer requests should be given favourable consideration, particularly if they originate from an employee. Employee dissatisfaction is more of a liability than a strength. It's true that no business can accommodate every transfer request.Different Types of transfer are listed below:

Production Transfer

Production transfers refer to moves made by resignation or otherwise from positions where labour needs are dropping to ones where they are rising. By offering them alternate roles inside the same company, this sort of transfer helps prevent the layoff of capable workers.

Replacement Transfer

These are transfers when a long-serving employee is moved to a position where he bumps or replaces a worker with less experience. When all operations are in decline but management wishes to keep the long:term employee around as long as feasible, this form of transfer is undertaken[9], [10].

Versatility Transfer

'Rotation' is a better term for the versatility transfer, which is done to provide management a more versatile workforce. By switching the employee between jobs, this kind of transfer will boost his adaptability. The worker has the chance to get a variety of work experience. This benefits the employee by expanding their employment.

Remedial Transfer

Transfers like this are created to fix the problem. Remedial transfers provide management a process for improving a bad placement. It's possible that the first placement was flawed or that the employment didn't fit his health. In such circumstances, the employee would profit from a change in line of employment.

Benefits of Transfer

1. Enhance employee abilities.
2. Correct poor placement choices.
3. Get the worker ready for a demanding future.
4. Raise employee happiness.
5. Strengthen employee-employer relationships.

Problems with Transfer

1. Employees may or may not adapt to the new environment.
2. Shifting experienced workers may have an impact on production.
3. Discriminatory transfers may also have an impact on employee satisfaction.

Employee Separation

When an employee leaves an organisation, this is known as employee separation. Agreement between the employer and employee expires. Employees choose to quit the company, or the company requests that they do so. Employee terminations might be for voluntary or involuntary reasons. In the former, the employee initiates the separation on their own. When an employer takes the initiative to terminate an employee, it is known as an involuntary termination.

Voluntary Separation

Quits

When a worker's degree of unhappiness with the position is high or another, better opportunity is waiting for them, they make the decision to leave. Companies often provide financial incentives to employees who leave. These programmes, sometimes referred to as voluntary retirement plans (VRS), are provided by organisations when they are facing losses. They turn to cost cutting, and they think that the greatest way to decrease costs is to lower employee compensation. Since VRS are forced upon employees by management, they fall under involuntary separations.

Retirements

When an employee reaches the end of their career, they retire. Different ages apply to superannuation for employees. Retiring is distinct from giving up. When a superannuated

employee retires from the company, they take a number of perks with them. The employee who leaves their job is not granted such a right. Second, while retirement marks the end of an employee's career, quitting may happen at any moment. Third, superannuation is supposed to prevent ill sentiments from lingering with the retiree, yet quitting is likely to cause friction with the employer.

Involuntary Separation

a. Employers often use one of at least three grounds to terminate an employee's employment agreement:

b. Organisation is going through a lean phase and is unable to keep the current workforce.

c. An initial recruiting error that led to a mismatch between the individual and the position.

d. Employee displays odd behaviour that renders the workplace unproductive.

e. Employer-sponsored separations are often conducted via discharges, layoffs, retrenchment, and VRS.

Discharge or Dismissal

When an employer determines it is no longer desirable to retain an employee, a dismissal occurs. Discharge, also known as termination, is to be avoided at all costs. Termination costs money since the company has to find a successor, recruit them, and train them. An employee who has been fired is likely to criticise the business. When all other attempts to save the employee have failed, termination is the final recourse. An employee may be fired for the reasons listed below:

a. A lot of absences.

b. Serious infractions.

c. False certifications made at the time of hiring.

d. Theft of corporate assets.

Layoff

A layoff is an employer-initiated temporary separation of the employee. Layoff is defined as the failure, refusal, or inability of an employer to give employment to a worker whose name is present on the rolls but who has not been retrenched (kkk) of The Industrial Disputes Act, 1947. A layoff may be for a certain amount of time after which the company will call the worker back to work. Employees who are let go by their company must get compensation for the time they were out of work. Employers are required by Section 25 of the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947 to compensate employees for all days of layoff. If the employee had not been let go, the remuneration must be equivalent to half of the usual salary the employee would have received.

Retrenchment

It refers to the dismissal of an employee owing to the substitution of labour by machines or the closure of a department due to a persistent decline in the demand for the goods produced in that specific organisation department. Management and staff must permanently depart the factory if it is shut down. Retrenchments, like layoffs, entitle workers to compensation, which, according to section 25(f) of the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947, is equal to 15 days of average salary for each completed year of continuous service. Retrenchment, on the other hand, differs from layoff in that

the employee's relationship with the firm is severed immediately. In a layoff, the individual remains in the organization's employ and is likely to be recalled after the term of layoff. Dismissal and retrenchment have different meanings. When a person is fired, it is typically because of their own mistake. Retrenchment, on the other hand, entails the forced termination of several workers and affects both the business and the individual.

Voluntary Retirement Scheme

Companies in the public and commercial sectors have been voluntarily retiring employees for good reasons since the early 1980s, popularly known as the golden handshake plan. This innovative programme is termed the Voluntary Retirement Scheme (VRS). The departing staff are given a nice payout. VRS is regarded as a quick and simple way to reduce workforce size and get rid of older, ineffective employees. Numerous companies, including Hindustan Lever, Siemens, and TISCO, have implemented this programme with remarkable success. In 1997, TISCO put allocated Rs. 100 crores for its VRS. In order to increase efficiency, the corporation planned to reduce its workforce from 68,000 to 55,000 in five years. This decision was well appreciated.

Resignation

A resignation refers to the end of employment at the employee's request; in this scenario, it is voluntary. However, if the termination is forced by the employer due to the employee's failure to perform his duties properly or due to significant allegations made against him, it is no longer voluntary. An employee may leave for a variety of reasons, including when they find a suitable job elsewhere, get sick, or have personal issues.

CONCLUSION

Processes for promotions and transfers are essential components of a company's people management plan. Organisations may take use of workers' abilities, experiences, and potential by elevating them to higher positions or moving them to new departments to fulfil changing business requirements.Transfer and promotion choices are influenced by a number of variables. Identification of high- potential workers, performance reviews, and skill evaluations are essential in determining whether personnel are prepared for promotion. To ensure a seamless transition during promotion and transfer, managers and workers must communicate effectively about expectations, growth opportunities, and career goals.Processes for promotion and transfer provide both possibilities and difficulties. On the one hand, they provide workers possibilities for advancement, bigger obligations, and fresh learning experiences. However, prejudice, favouritism, and opposition to change may undermine the efficacy and impartiality of these procedures. Clear rules and processes must be established by organisations to provide openness and fair opportunity for all workers.

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NURTURING TALENT: THE IMPORTANCE OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

Mr. Ram Srinivas*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-ramsrinivas@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Organisations benefit much from training and development since it increases workers' knowledge, capabilities, and ability to satisfy both present and future job needs. This essay gives a general review of training and development, emphasising its importance, goals, and techniques. The article examines several training programmes, such as elearning, workshops, mentorship, and training. It talks about how crucial requirements analysis, programme design, and assessment are to making sure that training programmes are successful. The report also looks at how training and development may enhance employee productivity, job happiness, and organisational output. It also takes into account prospective difficulties including expenses, time restraints, and opposition to change. The importance of training and development in promoting employee development, engagement, and organisational success is highlighted in the chapter's conclusion.

KEYWORDS: *Development, Employee, Learning, Performance, Trainer, Training.*

INTRODUCTION

The term training and development refers to the formal, continuing efforts made by organisations to enhance the productivity and sense of fulfilment of their workforce via a range of instructional strategies and courses. These initiatives have a wide variety of applications in the contemporary workplace, from training in very specialised job skills to long-term professional development. In recent years, training and development have become a recognised profession with unique ideas and approaches, a formal company function, and a crucial component of strategy[1]–[3]. Companies of all sizes are adopting continual learning and other training and development strategies as a way to foster employee development and build a highly trained workforce. In reality, it is now commonly acknowledged that good personnel and ongoing training are essential components in assuring the success and profitability of small firms over the long term. Create a corporate culture that supports continual learning, said Charlene Marmer Solomon in Workforce. To stay current, employees must have access to ongoing training of all kinds. You will regress if you don't aggressively counter the momentum of skill deficiencies. Your company will lose the competence race if your employees remain still[4]–[7].

Philosophy of Training

According to S Chandra, the organization's management strongly believes that, in contrast to other assets, human resources cannot depreciate and must instead be valued over the course of their whole employment. Training is thus seen as an investment rather than a cost. Even long-term intangible benefits, such a shift in perspective, should be regarded as worthwhile returns. Training

is seen as a means of efficient collaboration and communication. In every man management matrix, training is a catalyst for cohesion, compatibility, and collaboration in any organisational undertaking. The management declares that the direction of training and development is a permanent component and element of operational process, not an experiment conducted in isolation. The management is completely devoted to providing training duties with its full support and is dedicated by actively participating in every aspect of this activity.

Concept of Training

It focuses on fostering individual growth in workers to help them become competent and self-assured at work and, subsequently, in their personal lives. As a result, it is a structured procedure for improving the workers' knowledge and skills. As a result, it is a process designed to alter behaviour in a manner that the results will be advantageous for the advancement of the organisation. Training is a structured programme intended to increase performance at the individual, group, and/or organisational levels, according to Wayne F. Cascio. Improved performance, in turn, denotes that knowledge, skills, attitude, and/or social behaviour have changed in a quantifiable way. HRD uses training as one of its tools. Training has enormous potential for transferring and utilising the most recent technical know:how, developing leadership, organising people, forming self:help groups, mobilising people and resources, empowering resource:poor rural masses, developing entrepreneurship, etc., which are all considered essential HRD components[7]–[9]. Training is the process of learning a series of preprogrammed behaviours, claims C B Memoria. It is knowledge application that aims to enhance employee performance on the present work while preparing them for the desired job. Non-managerial staff members get technical knowledge and abilities via training, which is a brief process using a methodical and organised technique. Instructions in technical and mechanical tasks, such as operating a machine or piece of equipment, are referred to as training. The objective of training is directly tied to the work.

Concept of Development

Enhancing an employee's conceptual skills can help them become more mature and realise their potential. This is what development is all about. According to Michael Armstrong19, employee development, also known as human resource development (HRD), is the process of providing learning, development, and training opportunities in order to enhance performance on an individual, as a team, and within an organisation. Alan Mumford defines development as an effort to increase management performance via a planned and intentional learning process in paragraph 20. Development indicates the nature and change brought about among workers via the process of education and training, according to Bernard M. Bass & James A. Vaughan. In the words of Cyril O. Donnel and Harold Koontz. The process by which a person develops the abilities whose application will increase the efficiency and effectiveness with which the desired outcomes of a certain organisational segment are realised is known as managerial development. Training and development are the area of human resource management that deals with organisational activities intended to improve individual and group performance in organisational settings. Employee development, human resource development, and learning and development are just a few of the names it has gone by. Harrison, Rosemary[10].

Distinction between Training and Development

Despite the fact that the phrases training and development seem to be interchangeable, there is a

known distinction between these notions, according to Yoder. Earlier training programmes placed a strong emphasis on becoming ready for better performance in mostly specialised rank and file occupations. As organisations grew, a number of issues, particularly at the supervisory level, emerged. As a result, training courses for supervisors were introduced to prepare them to handle specific issues. The necessity for boss raining became apparent to the supervisors throughout their training.

As a result, middle managers-specific development courses were organised. Later, senior management was included in the development initiatives. These programmes demonstrated the importance of the notion of development, and it therefore seemed that the term training was inappropriate for describing the acquisition of a broad range of intricate, challenging, and ethereal management people duties. As a result, the idea training suffered. Training is for dogs, humans are developed, as managers themselves noted. The phrases education and development are more appropriate now than training. The entire development of a person's personality, not training, is what allows them to use their ability to the fullest.

As a result, training and development courses are integrated in order to build fundamental attitudes as well as skills, which promotes ongoing personal development. Employee development, often known as human resource development (HRD), is the process of providing chances for learning, development, and training in order to enhance team and organisational performance, according to Michael Armstrong. Employee development efforts are done to help them reach their greatest potential for development.

Learning, education, and training are all included in employee development programmes. Learning refers to a generally long-lasting behaviour change those results from practise or experience. Instead of just one specific activity, education refers to the acquisition of information needed for several daily activities. Training is a systematic, organised method of changing behaviour via education. Employees may achieve the degree of knowledge, skills, and competence necessary to do their jobs successfully via training.

DISCUSSION

Need for Training

According to Price, there is a need for training whenever there is a discrepancy between the performance of an individual employee or group of workers and what is wanted. Increasing corporate performance is an ongoing process, not its goal. The ups and downs of employee performance affect how well company operations go. Therefore, the HR managers began searching for ways to improve the productivity and effectiveness of their employees to complete the task at hand today and to prepare them for achieving tomorrow's objectives. Training programmes were created many years ago, but now, with specific goals in mind, it has become an essential component in businesses. Performance should be improved, and workers' skills, knowledge, and expertise should be developed via training and development practises. The main goal of training is to develop the necessary skills and abilities in the labour force so that they can perform to satisfy the demands, preferences, and anticipated returns of the employers. The need of Training may be necessary for the following reasons: to increase employee productivity; to decrease time and money wasted; to produce quality work; to reduce supervision; to have preventive maintenance; to achieve optimum performance; to boost employee morale; to prepare the workforce for future challenging work; to reduce absenteeism; to reduce complaints; to

advance one's career through personal development.

Training Objectives

According to Saiyadain, the goals of training vary depending on the workers' degree of organisational affiliation. However, the fundamental goal of training is to match a person with their work.

With improved knowledge, abilities, and attitudes, the person will be better equipped to do his current work successfully or become ready for a new assignment. Individual development should not be seen as a goal nevertheless.

Individual development is seen from the perspective of an organisation as a way to organisational performance. The main goal of the training and development division is to make sure that an organisation has access to a trained and willing staff. Four more goals are also present: societal, organisational, functional, and individual.

Individual Objectives

They aid workers in reaching their own objectives, which improves the value each person brings to an organisation.

Organizational Objectives: By providing individual performance, they help the organization achieve its main goal.

Functional Objectives: They keep the department's contribution at a level that is appropriate for the demands of the organization.

Societal Objectives: These goals make sure that a company is morally and socially responsive to the demands and issues of society.The following may be summed up as training goals.

a. To constantly reinforce the industry's purpose, objectives, and ambitions in the thoughts of all employee groups.

b. To promote teamwork and the growth of a proper work ethic in the industry by encouraging self-development to accomplish organisational objectives with a feeling of belonging and dedication to the organisation.

c.To determine the training requirements for the whole industrial workforce in accordance with company goals and after consulting with the user departments.

d. To convey the information and abilities required for carrying out the work efficiently and effectively, and to maintain the employees' acquisition of the management, technical, human, and conceptual skills essential for making decisions and addressing problems.

e.To provide enough skilled labour in a sufficient quantity to fulfil the various demands of a fast-expanding industry.

f. To plan specialised training courses to enhance job prospects and career chances for members of SC/ST, minorities, people with disabilities, ex-servicemen, etc.

g. To plan training activities that will help with: o Career Planning and Development of Planning for succession.

h. To inform and prepare the staff to meet customer expectations and take duties to feel a feeling of accomplishment.

i. To maximise the efficacy of training by using both internal and external training resources in a balanced way in order to build internal faculty support across all levels and disciplines.

Importance of Training

Characteristics of Learning

a. Education serves a purpose. The majority of individuals are rather clear about what they want to do and accomplish.

b. Experience is the best teacher. Learning is a highly personal process that the participant must carry out on his own; the teacher cannot accomplish it for him.

c.Learning is a complex process. A trainer who believes that all he has to do is work on improving a participant's memory is squandering both his and the trainee's time.

d. The process of learning is active. The better a participant's chances are of both learning and remembering, the more actively he participates in the class. Laws of Education The majority of learning circumstances are appropriate for the five rules of learning. When organising asession, the trainer may improve the learning environment for the participants by keeping these rules in mind.

Law of Learning

Learning is most effective when a person has the required background, a positive attitude, and is prepared to learn. If he does not see a need for learning, he does not learn much

Law of Exercise

The Law of Exercise states that repetition makes for better learning. Drills and practise are built on this principle.

Law of Primacy

Being first often leaves a lasting impression. This implies that the teacher has to be accurate the first time. This aids in giving the rest of what comes after a solid basis.

Law of Intensity:

An intense learning environment imparts more knowledge than one that is dull or monotonous. According to this rule, a learner will get more knowledge from the genuine article than from a copy. Classroom education is sharpened and given more life through the use of mockups, videotapes, interactive courseware, presentations, charts, and a variety of other training aids. Students' learning experiences are greatly enhanced by demonstrations, skits, and role-playing.

Law of Recency

Under similar circumstances, knowledge gained most recently will be best retained. When creating a strong summary, the trainer must be aware of the rule of recency. He has to reiterate, restate, or repeat the training goals. Additionally, he reiterates material that the audience should remember.

Role of Trainees

A training program's trainee is a key stakeholder. The whole training curriculum was created with the trainees alone in mind. Because one participant's attitude towards the training influences the other participants, each candidate plays a crucial part in the transmission of knowledge. Additionally, each applicant may help by increasing the learning process to achieve the training goals. The rewards of the learning that the trainee could anticipate are closely correlated to their motivation to engage in the course. Every person develops their own perspective on training. Depending on how the participant evaluates the course, certain impressions persist throughout the programme while others vanish. Learning is influenced by a variety of personal factors, including the trainee's learning style, KSA, previous training experiences, family situation, personal problems, relationship between the training programme and personal goals, level of self-esteem, benefits anticipated from training, and desire for professional development.

Several environmental elements that influence how well a learner learns. Relationships with coworkers and superiors; the training team; the trainer team; the training objective; the content of the training; the training design, which includes methods, techniques, and strategies; the environment in the programme; the makeup of the training group; and the infrastructure, such as dining options, tea and coffee breaks, etc. No matter how effective the training session, in the end, only the individual has the power to alter his behaviour. Simply because someone tells a trainee what to do won't force them to modify their behaviour. They alter when they see a need for it. They carry it out according to their own learning preferences. The organisation and the trainer can only make an effort to break down the student's mental barriers; the rest is up to the trainee.

Impact of Training

Execution

Training implementation is the process of putting a training programme into action in accordance with a set plan or method. The toughest element of the method is implementing the training since if one step is done incorrectly, the whole training programme might fail. One incorrect action might cause even the finest training regimen to fail. The execution of training may be divided into: Realistic administrative arrangements. Executing the instruction.

Implementing Training

The training is put into practise after the personnel, course, material, equipment, and themes are ready. The task is not over after training design is finished since the implementation phase calls for ongoing modifying, redesigning, and refining. To taste success, preparation is the most crucial element.

The Role of a Trainer

Trainers are essential both before and after an employee is selected for a course when it comes to training. The participation of a trainer in examining coursework represents the company's return on its investment in training.A trainer has to be aware of the abilities of his squad. He has to be aware of the team's vulnerabilities as well as those of each individual team member. He must compare his team's talents to the organization's demands and have a comprehensive understanding of the initiatives that are in the works for them. This allows him to evaluate fast which courses are worthwhile and which are not for his team to pursue. A trainer should look into the training options that are offered in the sector. He may research the personnel departments of reputed businesses. When a worker requests training, he may decide with knowledge thanks to this list.

He should advise his staff to take training. Frequently, a trainer won't agree to do training until a worker approaches him. Instead, to determine who needs training in what areas, a trainer should be proactive and research the company requirements and employee skill sets. In this manner, he'll have the team more prepared to deal with technology when a project hits a rough patch.A trainer has to create training standards. A trainer should have places where he checks in on the progress of a worker who wishes to complete multiple courses to get certification or a degree. He should make sure to explain both those ideas and the training requirements to the employee. Has the individual, for instance, shown how the training benefited the business? Has the teacher given the employee any encouraging words? Or has the worker specified a career path inside the business? All of these inquiries should be made in the real world when progress is being checked.

A debriefing with the trainer should take place once an employee completes training. Was the project-specific training on schedule? Will the worker need more training? Was the teacher a good one? Was the coursework suitable for the circumstances? Must other team members enrol in the course? How will the worker use what they've learnt to strengthen the network? Will the employee be able to pass on their knowledge to the other team members? The employee's report or a encounter with the trainer might provide the trainer with the answers they need. He should then inform his top management of the findings to ensure that the training budget is maintained or increased in the next fiscal year. He should also let human resources know if the employee thought the training was good or not. The whole business can benefit from knowing this knowledge.

Outcome of Training

In an organisation, there are excellent reasons to need training and development, and there are negative ones to authorise training. In some situations, there are both good and poor reasons to decline training. You may spend your limited training budget wisely by making the appropriate choices at the right moment when you are aware of what training can and cannot do. Training has a variety of benefits. It may assist individuals in picking up the fresh abilities need to live up to new standards, both official and informal.

For instance, a member of the support staff may have been chosen initially based on his or her abilities to type, answer the phone, etc. However, due to the increasing workload, we want that individual to be able to do much more. For example, they should be able to utilise desktop publishing tools, manage more difficulties, and potentially even tackle client concerns. People may embrace the challenge of their changing occupations with the aid of training.

Training as a Tool

The ideal method to approach training is as a managerial tool, similar to a carpenter's tool. The management should choose training because it is the appropriate instrument for the task, just like a carpenter chooses a hammer rather than a screwdriver to hammer a nail. To continue the example, only the ignorant carpenter would try to hammer the nail into the wood and expect it to assist if the underlying structure (the wood) is rotting. The management is in the same situation. If a manager anticipates that training will result in better conditions, he or she must make sure that the tools are available for usage and that there are no other issues that are unrelated to training.

To sum up, training may be a useful tool for the organisation and the management if it is used to solve a problem or address problems that have been discovered. Even then, the organisation has to have supported in place for the training to be successful.

CONCLUSION

Organisations must invest in training and development programmes if they want to provide their staff the information and abilities they need to flourish in their jobs and change with the times. Training and development initiatives that are successful help to boost organisational productivity as well as employee performance and work satisfaction. Onjob training, workshops, mentorship, and e- learningis just a few of the approaches that organisations might use to give training. The kind of training required, the resources available, and the workers' preferred learning styles all influence the technique selection. In order to identify skill gaps and choose the best training solutions, needs analysis is crucial. Effective training programme design and delivery need careful consideration of the learning goals, content, delivery strategies, and assessment metrics. Organisations may identify areas for improvement, determine the effect of training and development efforts, and assure a return on investment by using evaluation. Organisations may improve their training tactics and modify their programmes to suit changing demands thanks to ongoing assessment and feedback.

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A BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUTTRAINING METHODS AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

Dr. Srinivasan Palamalai*

*Associate Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-srinivasanp@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Programmes for organisational learning and development that seek to improve workers' knowledge, skills, and competencies must include effective training approaches. In this essay, numerous training techniques are briefly discussed along with their benefits, drawbacks, and applicability to specific learning goals. The study examines contemporary methodologies, such as learning, simulations, and training, as well as conventional ways, such as classroom training and lectures. It looks at how technology may be used to offer training as well as the value of engagement and customisation in efficient training techniques. The research also looks at factors like material kind, target audience, and resource availability that should be taken into account when choosing a training approach. The importance of a blended strategy, which combines several training approaches, is highlighted in the chapter's conclusion to maximise learning outcomes and promote organisational success.

KEYWORDS: *Business, Development, Learning, Management, Techniques, Training.*

INTRODUCTION

According to Bernardin and Russell, there are two types of training methods. Techniques with an informative or transmittal focus. They generally employ one-way communication to provide information to the students. Lecture, audiovisual, individual study, and programmed instructions are a few of the common techniques. Experiential methods, in which the student interacts with the teacher, a computer or simulator, or other students to practise the skills. training, computer- based training, simulation, games, case study, roleplaying behaviour modelling, and sensitivity training are a few of the key techniques. Training techniques are instruments that aim to provide a learning environment for the participants. These techniques connect to the participants' learning goals. Using methods, individuals may learn what is expected of them and understand their roles and responsibilities within the organisation.

Methods are based on the knowledge, skills, and attitude goals of training, which are the three main components[1]–[3]. In certain training situations, knowledge may be transmitted only via informational delivery. Other times, it could include the development of social and technical skills, while other times, it might involve an effort to influence the participants' attitudes. These elements could be present in various amounts in certain software. Knowledge transmission may be the main focus in one, skill development and knowledge transmission in another, and knowledge transmission and attitudinal transformation in yet another. One must consider the information to be provided, the learning that is to occur, and the training goals before choosing

the techniques for a certain course. Choosing the relevant techniques is simple once the modules' content is understood. Here is a quick rundown of popular training techniques[4]–[6].

Orientations

It's crucial to provide new hires with orientation training if you want them to succeed. New employees should receive information on the company's history and strategic position, the important figures in the organization, the structure of their department and how it contributes to the company's mission, and the company's employment policies, rules, and regulations, whether the training is delivered through an employee handbook, a lecture, or a one meeting with a supervisor.

Lectures

Lectures are a verbal presentation approach that are especially helpful when the objective is to teach the same knowledge to many individuals at once. Lectures are among the most economical training techniques since they do not need individual instruction. However, there are significant limitations to the lecture approach. Since lectures often just entail one-way communication, they may not be the most engaging or useful form of instruction. Additionally, it could be difficult for the instructor to determine the degree of grasp of the subject matter among a large group.

Case Study

The case method is a non-directed study technique where students are given real- world case studies to examine. A comprehensive account of a hypothetical or actual circumstance is provided in the case report. Students may be taught to think freely rather of depending on an instructor's guidance by helping them analyse the issues raised in the case report and generate potential solutions. A group discussion may be used to augment an independent case analysis. The case method's utilisation of actual circumstances is its key advantage[7]–[9].

Role Playing

In role playing, students take on a part that is not their own and act it out in a group. A facilitator develops a scenario that the participants are to play out while following the facilitator's instructions. Even if the circumstances seem to be staged, the human interactions are real. Additionally, the facilitator and the situation itself provide rapid feedback to participants, helping them to better understand their own behaviour. This style of instruction is economical and is often used for management and marketing training.

Simulations

Games and simulations are organised contests and operational representations that mirror real-world situations. Games and simulations may help students learn how to solve problems and make decisions better. They can also help them grasp how an organisation functions as a whole, explore real-world issues, and pique their curiosity.

Computer-based Training

Computers and computer-based instructional materials are used as the main teaching tools in computer-based training (CBT). Computer-based training courses are made to organise and deliver educational information and to make it easier for students to learn. The ability for workers to study at their own speed and at suitable times is one of the key advantages of CBT. CBT is mostly used for teaching computer hardware, software, and operational tools. The final point is

particularly crucial since CBT may provide students a simulated experience using a specific piece of machinery or equipment while reducing the chance that trainees or even inexperienced users would harm expensive equipment[10], [11].

DISCUSSION

Web-Based Training

Web-Based Training is a kind of CBT that is gaining popularity. This kind of CBT is made feasible by the rapidly growing number of businesses that have high-speed Internet connectivity. The training materials are made available on a Web page that can be accessed by any Internet browser, making CBT available to any business with a Web connection. When referring to WBT, the words online courses and web-based instruction are sometimes used interchangeably.

Self-Instruction

The term self-instruction refers to a teaching strategy where the students take the lead in managing their own education. Contrary to instructor: or facilitator-led training, students have more control over the subjects they learn about, how they learn them, and how quickly they learn them. Students may acquire a better level of customised learning depending on how the educational materials are structured. Programed learning, individualised education, personalised instructional systems, and learner-controlled learning are all types of self-instruction.

Avoidance Training

Television, films, and videotapes are all examples of audiovisual instruction approaches. They may be used, in a time: and money-efficient way, to expose staff to real world circumstances, much as case studies, role playing, and simulations. The fundamental disadvantage of audiovisual training techniques is that they cannot be tailored for a specific audience and that participants cannot engage or ask questions while the content is being presented.

Teamscape Activities

The active formation and maintenance of productive work groups with comparable aims and objectives is known as team building. Team building is a systematic process of creating work teams and articulating their aims and goals, often assisted by a third-party consultant. It should not be confused with the informal, ad hoc development and usage of teams in the workplace. Poor group dynamics, labor-management relations, quality issues, or productivity issues are often addressed via team building initiatives. Team building recognises the issues and challenges involved in the formation and growth of work teams and offers a structured, guided process with advantages such as improved ability to manage complex projects and processes, flexibility to adapt to changing circumstances, and increased motivation among team members.

Internships and Apprenticeships

Apprenticeships are a kind of on-the-job training where the student spends time learning from a more seasoned employee. Eventually, the learner will be qualified to execute a new job or function. In roles that focus on manufacturing, apprenticeships are often employed. Internships are a kind of apprenticeship that combines in-class learning with training under a more seasoned professional.

Job Rotation

Job rotation is another sort of experience- based training in which individuals switch between several positions to have a thorough grasp of each one's needs. In small enterprises, where roles may be less specialised than in bigger organisations, job rotation may be very beneficial.

Counselling

Employee Counselling at Workplace is the most recent trend in corporate HR that is gaining traction worldwide. Employee counselling has arisen as the newest HR tool to recruit and retain its finest workers as well as to improve the quality of the workforce in a world of ever-increasing complexity and stress in people's lives, particularly in their workplaces. Employee counselling may be defined as offering assistance and support to help workers confront and get through challenging moments in their lives. People encounter issues from time to time in their lives or careers, whether at work or in their personal lives, and these issues may have an impact on their performance and raise stress levels. When necessary, counselling involves directing, comforting, advising, sharing, and assisting people address their difficulties. Technically speaking, psychological counselling, a kind of therapy, is used by specialists to assess how well workers perform and behave at work and to assist them in coping with the situation, resolving problems, and reinforcing the intended outcomes.

Mentoring

In a mentoring relationship, a senior management in an organisation takes on the task of developing a junior employee. In such a connection, the more experienced individual often imparts technical, interpersonal, and political abilities. A mentor serves as a young person's teacher, spouse, counsellor, intellectual and skill-development partner, host, example, guide, and, most significantly, supporter and facilitator in the realisation of the vision they have for the sort of life they wish to lead as adults. The basic goal of mentoring is to assist a worker in achieving psychological maturity, effectiveness, and integration into the company. Depending on the existing work culture and the commitment from top management, such mentoring may occur at both official and informal levels in a workplace. If management devotes time and resources to these exercises in relationship development, formal mentoring may be highly beneficial.

Essentials of Training

Because technology is advancing quickly and consistently, training is crucial. To remain competitive, employees must adjust to technological advancements, enhance the quality of their goods and services, and increase productivity. It is common knowledge how important training is for increasing production. It is possible to modify and augment the skills needed for one profession with those that are transferable to another. The establishment's efficacy and efficiency are heavily influenced by training. Training & Development efforts are essential because they benefit the organization in different ways: which lead them to improved profitability, improve the job knowledge and skills at all levels of the organization , improve the morale of the workforce, foster authenticity, openness and trust, improve relationship between boss and subordinate, aid in the organizational development help prepare guidelines for, aids in understanding and carrying out the organizational policies, provide information for the future needs in all areas of the organizations, organization gets more effective decision making and problem solving skills, aid in development leadership skills motivation, loyalty, better attitudes, and other aspects that successful workers and managers display; aid in increasing productivity and quality of work, help keep cost down in many areas, reduce outside consulting costs by utilizing competent internal

consultation, create an appropriate climate for growth, aid in improving organizational communication, help employee adjust to change and aid in handling conflict, thereby helping to prevent stress and tension.

Training and Development in India

The business landscape in India has recently seen a number of significant changes. These modifications have been made by the Indian government via privatisation, liberalisation, and globalisation. Companies who are unwilling to adapt risk not surviving in the intense competition. Giving staff training is crucial for organisational growth. Industry, government, and training institutions in India have all paid attention to the methodical development of their workforces. As a result of the country's increased awareness of management training, there has been an increasing need to discover methods and means to assess the efficacy and efficiency of training activities from the perspective of organisational development. Indian industry is now developing quickly. Imported from wealthy nations are new technologies and methods. To overcome obstacles in the future and gain a worldwide competitive edge in the context of globalisation, human resource development with appropriate training for the workforce is necessary. According to Khanna S39, the Indian Corporation understood the value of people in their new business paradigm for the first time. Indian corporations may get a competitive advantage over competitors by being innovative in the market and having a thorough awareness of the demands of their clients.

The individuals providing the service will naturally define its quality component and its ability to produce consumer value. Indian businesses are becoming more creative in their hiring practises, including who they hire and where they hunt for talent. The majority of them have evolved a hiring strategy that favours general competence and aptitude over technical and specialised topic expertise. To fill skill shortages, they depend on training and development. Technology businesses hire from second: and third-tier institutions around the nation, as well as from arts and scientific schools, rather than just the top engineering universities. Similar to other industries, contact centres and the information technology industry are used by businesses in the banking and hospitality sectors. Programmes for diversity are also being undertaken, both for practical reasons and for social good. Technology firms and contact centres are focusing on women and older employees in particular, while also reaching out to rural and underserved regions. Training courses for new hires in the IT industry often last two to four months. Programme lengths in other sectors vary from two to four weeks. The majority of training programmes are quite advanced and include not just the necessary technical abilities but also the fundamentals of things like business operations, client management, communication, and teamwork. Following formal induction training, there are often job training courses where workers are given particular tasks to complete while being supervised by trainers and supervisors.

Vocational Training in India

India has been engaged in a planned industrialisation process ever since it attained freedom. The country intended to accomplish industrial growth via five-year programmes in order to close the gap left by more than 200 years of stagnation. However, industrial progress does not take place automatically. Before any tangible outcomes are attained, a myriad of other socio-economic issues must be resolved. The development of human resources is the issue with the broadest scope among these issues. The educational and training process is laborious and time-consuming. The skills acquired by trainees at Industrial Training Institutes (ITI) were insufficient for the changing demands of industry, and there was a clear need for job training. In order to address the need for

trained personnel in industry, the Apprentices Act was consequently created in 1961. According to the Act, firms must hire a certain number of apprentices in both the public and private sectors. Depending on the profession, an apprentice's training might last anywhere from six months to four years. For trade apprentices, training consists of a foundational phase followed by job or shop floor training, with pertinent education provided all during the training time. The stipulated stipends are provided to apprentices for the duration of their training. Businesses with more than 500 workers pay for all cost associated with apprenticeship training, including the stipend. The cost of hiring apprentices is split between the relevant government and businesses with less than 500 workers.

The appropriate government either pays for instruction at its own expense or reimburses businesses that offer it on their own. A recognised apprenticeship contract outlines the responsibilities of both employers and trainees. For trade apprentices, a trade exam is administered after the conclusion of training, and those who pass get a National Apprenticeship Certificate. The fundamental instruction is the same as that offered inITIs. Businesses who do not want to hire employees with ITI training hire fresher apprentices and establishtheir own basic training centres (BTCs). A civic society is built on education. It is a tool for expanding opportunities and preserving the competitive advantage that leads to a thriving country. Education is a crucial factor in many aspects of growth, including industrial development, health care, and the establishment of a knowing community. A plan for workers' education was also developed to promote information exchange and raise knowledge of their rights and obligations for a meaningful involvement in the socioeconomic growth of the nation. Under order to execute the programme at the national, regional, and local levels, the Central Board for Workers' Education (CBWE), Nagpur, under the Ministry of Labour, Government of India, was founded in 1958. Since then, this enormous responsibility has been secured by a tripartite structure that the CBWE has developed for its operation.

Role of the Government

Under the 1961 Apprentices Act, the company is solely responsible for providing training. To execute the apprenticeship training programme, the state or the federal government is responsible for the following tasks: the creation of legislation and policy in accordance with the Apprentices Act of 1961; the provision of loans by state governments for the establishment of training centres, where this is required by the enterprise; the exemption of 100% of the enterprise's training costs under the Income Tax Act; and the reimbursement of 50% of the training costs for graduates, diploma holders, and technician (vocational) apprentices by the central government. : In the case of businesses with fewer than 500 employees overall, trade committees appointed by the Directorate General of Employment and Training develop curricula for the various trades under craftsmen and apprenticeship training schemes; : Refresher training/retraining for instructors at training centres is carried out at the advanced training institutes of the Directorate General of Employment and Training: The Central Staff Training and Research Institute in Kolkata offers courses for officers. The different governments carry out quantitative and qualitative inspection/monitoring of the training courses offered by the businesses. All apprentices are trade tested by the Directorate General of Employment and Training after completing their training in businesses, and those who pass the exam are given National Apprentice Certificates. Governments in each country pay for the enterprise's theoretical and associated training, and on the advice of the Directorate General of Employment and Training, customs tax exemption is given for training equipment.

Management Training in India

In India, there were three major kinds of managers. In India's earlier businesses, managers and businessmen were both thought to be born. As a result, the high priests of management emerged and eventually dominated most businesses and sectors. Another class of managers, known as professional managers, later evolved with the establishment of management colleges offering degrees and diplomas in business administration. The third category consists of bureaucrats who have been appointed to lead a public corporation after taking an exam for the civil service or Indian Administrative Services (IAS). Despite being seen as a career, management requires professional training. Managers up until recently gained this professionalism via experience gained through job rotation.

However, the tendency is shifting, and an increasing number of managers are being sent to training sessions to pick up new abilities and expertise so they may prove effective in the organisations where they work. By around 1930, training was offered in India by foreign: businesses. The university system did not provide managerial training, and what it did provide was dispersed. A few topics in the commerce stream that were relevant to management were accounting, finance, and economics. When the Indian Institute of Social Welfare and Business Management was founded in 1945, management education in India officially began. The diploma in social work (labour welfare) was launched by this institution. The institution that launched management programmes in both people and industrial management was a trailblazer. The government established a productivity centre in Bombay in the 1950s on the advice of the ILO and the Urwick Orr Mission to India. Since that time, the centre has provided management training. Then, a number of Indian colleges began offering full and part-time management degrees.

CONCLUSION

Organizations have a variety of alternatives to improve employee learning and development because to the broad and dynamic nature of training approaches. The decision should be based on the learning goals, content, and target audience since each training approach has benefits and drawbacks. Traditional training techniques like lectures and classroom instruction provide a structured setting for sharing information and interacting with others. They enable direct communication and prompt elucidation of questions. They could, however, lack adaptability and find it difficult to meet each student's unique learning demands. Modern training approaches that make use of technology and provide more interactive, immersive learning experiences include learning, simulations, and job training. With the freedom that learning platforms provide in terms of time and place, workers may study at their own speed.

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ORGANIZATIONAL DYNAMICS: STRUCTURE, CULTURE, AND EFFECTIVENESS

Dr. Ranganathan Kumar*

*Associate Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-drsenthilkumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Organisations are intricate structures made up of people working in groups and procedures to accomplish shared objectives. This essay gives a general review of organisations, focusing on their composition, purposes, and essential components. The influence of several organisational structure types, including hierarchical, matrix, and flat structures, on communication, decision-making, and efficiency are covered in this essay. It examines the duties performed by several organisational divisions, including those in charge of finances, operations, marketing, and human resources. The article also looks at the role of leadership, change management, and organisational culture in influencing the workplace environment. It also takes into account how external variables like market trends and technology breakthroughs affect organisational plans and day- to-day operations. The importance of good organisational design, cooperation, and adaptability to promote success and sustainability is highlighted in the chapter's conclusion.

KEYWORDS: *Goals, Management, Manager, Organizational, Organizations.*

INTRODUCTION

A collection of individuals coming together to work towards a common objective is an organisation. In order to attain the organisational aim, a manager plays a key role in organising the people and operations, creating authority and accountability, and connecting with the populace. He carries out the tasks of arranging, planning, directing, and controlling to ensure the organisation runs smoothly. Additionally, the organisation must constantly deal with the impact of a dynamic environment, which necessitates the development of new management practices [1]–[3]. A thorough examination of the many facets of organisation and management may provide appropriate methods for handling them successfully. You will study about structure and management in this unit. You will learn more about the responsibilities and tasks of managers.You will get familiar with the different kinds of organisations and their characteristics.

According to Stoner, Freeman, and Gilbert, two or more individuals collaborate in a systematic manner inside an organisation to accomplish a certain objective or set of goals. Certain striking characteristics of an organisation become apparent via this description. Which are: Organisations are made up of a variety of individuals, and relationships between coworkers are established via organisational structures. Communications inside the company take happen thanks to structure. Such a structure may be comparatively strict, as in the case of a formal structure, or it may be comparatively loose, as in the case of an informal structure; either way, the organisation works to accomplish its goals. The objective may be single or several. One of an organization's key

components is its goal[4]–[6]. According to Robbins, an organisation is a deliberately planned social body with a reasonably discernible border that works continuously towards the achievement of a single aim or collection of goals. The following are some other important aspects of this definition of organisation:

An organization's actions are purposefully coordinated. It indicates that the organization's affairs are appropriately handled. The word reasonably recognisable border means that an institution operates within a flexible but definite limit. It also emphasises the role of management in an organisation. A large company will have three levels of boundaries. The internal stakeholders, including the board of directors, shareholders, and workers, are located inside the innermost boundaries. Customers, rivals, financial institutions, suppliers, the government, labour unions, the media, and special interest groups make up the next tier of stakeholders. Major macro factors include economic, technical, political, legal, and social variables make up the outermost perimeter of the model.Organisations, according to Brown and Moburg, are generally stable social organisations that exhibit goal-oriented activity, specialisation, and structure. According to this definition of organisation, there are four essential characteristics of an organisation:

1. Goals remain an integral part of any organisation.

2. Organisations need highly specialised skills to achieve goals.

3. Organisations need structures to bring together various work activities.

4. Organisations are relatively permanent social entities, despite possible internal changes. This means that continuity is at the core of their existence.

According to Hicks, an organisation is a systematic procedure in which people cooperate to achieve goals. This summary highlights five truths that apply to all organisations: An organisation will always consist of people; these people will always interact with one another in some way; these interactions will always be organised or described by some kind of structure; each person in the organisation will always try to achieve their own personal goals through organisational activities; and these interactions will also likely contribute to the achievement of their respective organisations' and individuals' compatible joint goals. According to Schein, organisation is the deliberate coordination of various people's actions for the accomplishment of a certain, shared purpose or goal, via division of labour and function and hierarchy of power and responsibility[7]–[9]. This definition states that organisations contain the following traits: coordination of activities, common objective, work division, and hierarchical authority.

Need of the Study of Organization

Chris Argyris makes the following claim in support of the justification for the formation of organisations: Organisations are often formed to accomplish goals that are best accomplished collectively. This signifies that the activity sequences required to accomplish goals are too much for one person to handle, and they must be divided into manageable sequential parts. Units are jobs at the person level and departments at the group level. These elements are combined or arranged in a certain order or pattern that is intended to accomplish the goals, and the final arrangement makes up the organisational structure[10]. Organisations have grown to be essential to our very survival. Organisations seek aims and objectives that may be accomplished more effectively and efficiently by people working together. Organisations are what hospitals, schools, manufacturing facilities, and service centre are. Without the different institutions surrounding us,

our civilised way of life could crumble.

We must thus understand how an organisation function. Making the organisations in our community healthier and more productive is also crucial for a brighter future.When organisations are well managed, they can accomplish their goals. In reality, studying organisations and studying their management go hand in hand. A well-managed firm is able to effectively use both its people resources and its other resources, such as cash, materials, equipment, employee motivation, the market, etc. If an organisation uses all of its resources in accordance with market demands, it may thrive. Successful companies also focus on external issues such as the political, legal, social, and economic environments, as well as the environments of the global markets.Within the previously established company, there may be individuals with strong organisational management skills. Otherwise, relevant personnel may be found from outside in the case of a newly founded organisation or even in the case of an existing organisation. Through developmental courses,job training, and career planning, existing employees may be further trained for greater responsibilities. Through appropriate recruiting and selection rules and processes, qualified outside candidates may be found for jobs at different levels.

Definition of Management

Many professionals refer to management as a process. Others refer to it as an activity focused on resource coordination. Let's look at the definitions of management that are provided below. The process of coordinating, guiding, and regulating the work of organisation members while using all organisational resources to accomplish stated organisational objectives is what Stoner, Freeman, and Gilbert define as management. According to Kimball, management may be roughly described as the art of using economic concepts to govern people and resources in the organisation in question. Management, according to Koontz, is the art of accomplishing goals through and with a formalised group of people. Henry L. Sisk defined management as the act of coordinating all resources by planning, organising, directing, and regulating in order to achieve specified goals.

Another perspective on management refers to management as a group of people. The management arranges, organises, and procures the production. No ideology, no ism, and no political theory, according to Urwick, who highlights the significance of management for an organisation, can produce more with less efforts from a given complex of human and material resources than competent management. A better quality of living, more free time, and more facilities must logically be based on such larger productivity. Management has become a well-known profession in recent years because it satisfies the requirements for a profession, including: management is a body of knowledge; formal teaching of that knowledge; representative associations and bodies of members in the field of management; ethical standards of conduct enforced by the profession; and provision of adequate compensation to members working in management.

DISCUSSION

Levels of Management

Different layers of management are established in an organisation to coordinate distinct operations. The three tiers of management are as follows:

1. Middle management; top management.

2. Junior or supervisory level management.

Board of Directors, Chairperson, Managing Director, and General Managers of functional divisions including production, marketing, finance, and human resource management make up toplevel management. Despite the fact that top level management engages in all planning and organising activities as well as directing and managing, it places a greater emphasis on these tasks than the other levels of management. Enhancing shareholder values, giving the organisation vision and mission, upholding overall organisational objectives, making policy decisions, reviewing the budget and maintaining organisational financial stability, maintaining organisational progress, profit, and sustainability, communicating organisational goals to all members, maintaining integrity, and leading the organisation with sound judgement are among top management's main concerns. At the highest management level, conceptual talents are more important than human or technical skills.

To achieve the goals of the company, middle management works under the direction of upper management. In order to free up top management to do planning-level tasks, the middle management's primary priority is to carry out the organising role in more depth. Middle management has a variety of responsibilities, such as encouraging coordination and cooperation between the organization's departments, designing and implementing systems to ensure the efficient use of resources and the motivation and morale of employees, developing staff at all levels through training and development initiatives, and creatively managing and directing junior staff. At the middle management level, human skills are more important than conceptual or technical abilities. Technical abilities are more necessary at the supervisory or junior management levels than conceptual or interpersonal skills.

However, as the significance of the service sector in the economy grows, so does the value of human talents at the middle management level. The personnel who operate at operational level management are in close contact with them. As a result, actions at the junior level of management are directed and controlled more so than planning and arranging tasks. In order to accomplish the organisational aim, all three levels of managementtop, middle, and juniorplay critical responsibilities. Only the focus placed on certain tasks varies across the three levels. Middle management is more concerned with specificbox arranging, while lower-level management is more concerned with directing and managing. Top management is more concerned with planning and overall organisation. However, we are increasingly seeing adequate empowerment at the junior and middle management levels, which is expanding the functions of these two levels in contemporary firms.

Basic Principles of Management

Management concepts have been stated in a variety of ways by different experts. One of the most thorough management ideas, nevertheless, is Henri Fayol's broad principles of management. The following are the elements of Henri Fayol's broad management principles:

Work Division: It and specialisation are related concepts. Workload division encourages the development of additional skills for a given task, which increases efficiency.

Responsibility and Authority: The power that comes with a job is known as authority. Responsibility and power go hand in hand. To carry out the duties assigned, authority is needed. Fayol used the term discipline to refer to obedient behaviour, effort, and respect. Penalties should be used sparingly, and monitoring should be capable and equitable.

Unity of Command: Only one authority should be used by a subordinate to receive commands.

Fayol understood that the lack of a unified leadership undermines authority, imperils discipline, disturbs order, and jeopardises stability.

Uniformity of Direction: According to Fayol, there should only be one head and one strategy. Individual Interests Should Be Subordinated to Organisational Interests: An organization's interest should take precedence over a person's interest. Pay: The principle of fair pay should be followed, and the best payment plan should be sought for.

Centralization: There should be one central location inside the organisation for general control. Delegating power allows for the proper decentralisation in comparatively bigger organisations.

Scalar Chain: A chain of unbroken authority should extend from top to bottom. The direction of communication flow is determined by the scalar chain, which connects distinct organisation members in a certain manner.

Order: individuals and things should be at the correct location at the right time. However, in many situations, speedier action is achievable if individuals at lower levels immediately connect with one another. The best qualified individual for the job should have the post.

Equity: Employee loyalty and dedication are influenced by equity.

Staff Stability: A stable workforce fosters organisational efficiency.

Initiative: The company should encourage initiative and foster a culture that is tolerant enough of errors.

Esprit de Corps: An organisation may grow stronger by fostering a sense of community and teamwork. Increased informality and good communication foster organisational cohesion.In addition to the management concepts that Fayol has provided, there are some more management principles that you should be aware of. Briefly said, they are

Harmony of Objectives: When all functions are focused on a single, agreed-upon grand aim, organisations operate more efficiently.

Universality of Management: A solid management theory may be used by any sort of organisation, everywhere, engaging in a wide range of activities.

Priority of Objectives and Planning: In an organisation, objectives and planning come first.

Control by Exception: Management should exercise exceptional control and oversight over regular tasks, leaving routine tasks to lower-level employees, with a wider influence on the company.

Decision by Exception: A management should make decisions that are within the purview of their position's power. Any issue that crosses that line should be decided by the higher authority. Authority, power, responsibility, and accountability should all be distributed equally within a given organisation. Otherwise, there will be conflict, animosity, friction, resentment, and discontent. If an organisation is not balanced, this can eventually contribute to its deterioration.

Coordination: The foundation of an organization's effective operation is coordination. The actions and efforts of everyone who works for the organisation should be synchronised.

Function of Managers

It would be interesting to notice that while the phrases organisation, management, and manager

are quite distinct from one another, they are practically synonymous. Organisations are necessary because they serve a variety of societal demands. For an organisation to run effectively and efficiently when it is established, good management principles must be established. Therefore, we want managers who are capable, have the necessary abilities, are properly motivated and satisfied, and have an unrelenting drive to reach new heights in order to build strong management principles. Managers carry out certain duties and play specific responsibilities. Despite the fact that the words function and role are sometimes used interchangeably, there is a technical distinction between the two. The tasks that are allocated in accordance with the manager's authority level and job description are included in the manager's duties. Roles, on the other hand, outline what a manager is supposed to accomplish in order to be a conscientious individual. Let's examine some crucial managerial duties.

The following are some of the primary responsibilities of managers. planning including developing a vision, mission, defining goals, and objectivesorganising and staffing Making decisions, communicating, directing, and controlling. Let's provide a quick overview of them. Planning: The actions that result in the establishment of goals and the choice of effective measures to accomplish those goals are included in the planning function. Planning is the method a manager uses to look ahead and identify all the options available to him. A realistic, convincing, and appealing stance of an organization's or organisational unit's future that develops from and improves upon the current condition is referred to as a vision. The phrase mission describes the overarching goal that the society expects the organisation to achieve. A mission statement should be inclusive and value-based. When goals are achieved, they represent a situation or future state that will help the organisation perform its objective. While less definite than goals, the aim is nevertheless more concrete than the mission. Goals are the source of objectives, which are typical short-term, focused steps towards goals. Organising is the process through which the composition and distribution of the workforce are decided. All management actions that are carried out to convert the necessary plan activities into a hierarchy of roles and authorities are considered to be part of the organising function. Four sub-functions make up the organising function.

Determining the basis for grouping occupations together, deciding the size of the group, and defining the type and substance of each job inside the organisation are all steps in the delegation of power to the designated manager. Staffing is the procedure used by managers to hire, develop, advance, and retire employees. The complete process of human resource planning by managers is covered by staffing. The process of directing involves guiding the actual performance of subordinates towards shared objectives. At lower levels of management, one part of this duty is supervision. In order to achieve a particular outcome, ideas must be transferred to others via the act of communicating. Making decisions is the process through which a plan of action is actively selected from a range of options with the aim of reaching a certain goal. Controlling is the process of assessing current performance and directing it towards a certain objective. Managers engage in actions as part of the controlling role to ensure that results are consistent with expectations. To implement control, three fundamental prerequisites must be met: standards, information, and corrective action.

Role of Managers

Ten managerial positions, grouped into three general groups, have been established by Henry Mintzberg. The following are the duties of managers: Interpersonal RolesLiaison, and Leading In their interpersonal duties, managers serve as the organization's public face, provide leadership,

and communicate with staff members both within and outside of their own departments. Let's now consider the three positions of leadership, liaison. One of the key responsibilities of a manager is to lead. A manager is in charge of many people who work for him or her. The manager is in charge of leading and inspiring the employees. A manager's responsibility as a leader includes assisting subordinates in visualising the action plan and assisting them in achieving the goal via devoted performance. A manager's other responsibility is liaison. Liaison refers to sustaining a network of important external contacts. For instance, a manager in charge of a manufacturing unit must maintain relationships with external board members, governing authorities, government representatives, the police, civil authorities, etc. A manager may connect with the key players in controlling the current operations via this job. A manager serves as the de facto leader of a company, division, or department.

You are aware of what a family's head does. A manager similarly represents the figurehead position since they are responsible for a variety of social or legal obligations. Informational Positions Monitoring Information Sharing Spokesperson Managers' informational responsibilities include gathering information from others, disseminating it to others, and representing the company to those outside the institution. A manager serves as the central hub for receiving all internal and external information. These three duties include monitoring, information exchange, and spokesman. A manager gets information via the monitoring function. The manager makes wise use of such knowledge. Once a manager has acquired information, it is necessary to distribute that knowledge across internal workers to ensure that the task is carried out correctly. A manager functions as a disseminator of information, notably to subordinates, via meetings, e-mail, circulars, notices, office orders, etc. A manager has the authority to notify other parties about the company as a spokesman. Outsiders may get information from the management about the organization's intentions, strategies, and future course. Information may be shared through meetings with the press, conferences, board meetings, interviews, etc.

CONCLUSION

Organisations are dynamic entities that need good management and strategy alignment to succeed in the challenging and cutthroat commercial environment of today. Determining communication routes, decision-making procedures, and overall operational effectiveness all depend heavily on an organization's structure. Depending on their size, sector, and strategic objectives, organisations may adopt a variety of forms, such as hierarchical, matrix, or flat structures.Organisations are functionally made up of several departments, each of which is in charge of certain duties and responsibilities. Operations, finance, marketing, and human resources are just a few of the divisions that contribute to the organization's overall effectiveness and success. To accomplish organisational goals, various departments must work together and coordinate their efforts.

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DIRECTING FUNCTION OF MANAGEMENT AND ITS OUTCOME

Dr. Muralidhar Sunil*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration (General Management),
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-sunilrashinkar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

As part of the managerial process, which entails directing and leading staff members towards the accomplishment of organisational objectives, is the directing role of management. This essay gives a general overview of the directing role, highlighting its importance, constituent parts, and difficulties. The article explores how to motivate people and match their efforts with organisational goals by using effective communication and leadership. It examines several leadership philosophies, including authoritarian, democratic, and transformational leadership, as well as how they affect the productivity and engagement of employees. The significance of delegation, monitoring, and coordination in the directing role is also covered in this essay. Furthermore, it underlines the need of effective conflict resolution and change management techniques while taking into account probable difficulties and obstacles including disputes and resistance to change. The research ends by highlighting how important the guiding function is for fostering cooperation, employee productivity, and organisational success.

KEYWORDS: *Directing, Function, Management, Managers, Objectives, Organizational, Resources.*

INTRODUCTION

Directing is described as a procedure in which managers provide instructions, provide guidance, and monitor employee performance to meet set objectives. The management process is stated to be at its core while directing. Planning, organising, and staffing are all worthless if the directing function is absent. Action is started by directing, and here is where the true labour begins. It is stated that human factors have a role in direction. It may be summed up by saying that it involves guiding employees while they are at work[1]–[4]. Management experts define direction as all the actions used to motivate subordinates to do their jobs successfully and efficiently. The procedure or technique by which orders may be given and actions can be carried out, according to humanjust as anticipated Therefore, the role of directing involves encouraging, directing, supervising, and teaching others to achieve organisational objectives. The following qualities of direction:

1. Pervasive Function: At all organisational levels, directing is necessary. Every manager offers advice and motivation to his team members.

2. Continuous Activity: Since it continues throughout the duration of an organisation, direction is a continuous activity.

3. Human Element: Since the directing role involves subordinates, it is impacted by human element. Direction function becomes crucial due to how complicated and unpredictable human

aspect is.

4. Creative Activity: The role of direction aids in putting plans into action. Without this feature, individuals stop using their physical resources, and they become useless.

5. Executive Role: Throughout the operation of a business, all managers and executives perform the direction role; a subordinate only takes orders from his superior.

6. Delegate Function: Direction is seen as a human-related function. The executive's job in this position is to shape people's conduct towards the enterprise's objectives since human behaviour is naturally unpredictable. As a result, it is described as having delicate handling of human behaviours.

Importance of Directing Function

Making or Giving Direction According to this theory, function is at the core of process management and serves as the hub for goal achievement. Direction is often referred to as the Life spark of an enterprise by philosophers. Because direction is how a company really begins to run, it is also known as the actuating function of management[5]–[7]. Being the core of an organisation, it offers a concern several advantages, including the following:

1. It Initiates Actions: The role that serves as the foundation for subordinates' job performance is giving directions. Action is carried out from this position, and employees understand their responsibilities and follow any given directions. Whatever plans are made, they can only be put into action once the task itself gets underway. There, direction becomes advantageous.

2. It Encourages Efforts: Through guidance, supervisors are able to lead, encourage, and advise the workers to put forth effort. Every person's effort towards achieving their objectives is necessary for this. Every department's effort may be connected to and linked with one another via direction. Persuasive leadership and effective communication are two ways to achieve this. Integration of activities improves a situation's efficacy and stability.

3. Motivational Techniques: The Direction function aids in goal attainment. Here, a manager uses the motivational component to raise subordinates' performance levels. This may be accomplished by offering the subordinates rewards or remuneration, whether monetary or non0monetary, that acts as a morale booster. Subordinates who are motivated are more likely to put up their best effort, which ultimately promotes progress.

4. It Offers Stability: For the sun to survive in the market over the long run, stability and equilibrium become crucial. Four tools or components of the direction function, including a strategic mix of compelling leadership, effective communication, stringent monitoring, and effective incentive, may assist managers achieve this. Since stability is a gauge of an enterprise's progress, it is crucial. Therefore, a manager may make use of all four of these attributes to uphold performance requirements[8]–[10].

5. Adjusting to the Changes: Resisting change is a characteristic of human conduct. Being able to adapt to a changing environment is important for maintaining projected development and dominating a market. It is a guiding function that may be used to adapt to internal and external environmental changes. Having effective communication is helpful in adjusting to change. Here, the manager's job is to make sure that the team members are well informed about the modifications' nature and substance. This facilitates explanations, simple adaptations, and the

efficient operation of a business. Changing from handlooms to powerlooms, for instance, would be a significant change in manufacturing method. As a consequence, there is fewer labour force and more equipment. The subordinates have the ability to oppose this. Here, the manager may describe how the modification benefited the staff members. Production and earnings rise as a result of increased mechanisation. Through better compensation, the subordinates gain from this in an indirect way.

6. Effective Resource Utilisation: Finance helps to define each subordinate's function in relation to his task. Only when there are less wastes, duplications of effort, overlaps in performances, etc., can the resources be used effectively. As a manager uses his supervising, guiding, instructing, and motivating skills to inspire the subordinates, the job of the employees is made obvious. This aids in making the best use possible of the resources of people, machines, materials, and money, which helps to lower costs and boost profits.

DISCUSSION

Principles of Directing

1. Maximum Individual Contribution

The contribution of people is one of the fundamental tenets of direction. Management should implement such directing policies that encourage workers to participate to the fullest extent possible towards the accomplishment of organisational objectives.

2. Harmony of Objectives

The goals of an organisation and those of an individual might sometimes clash. For instance, the company wants earnings to rise and to keep a large portion of it, while the workers may feel that because they have worked so hard to earn it, they should get a large portion of it as a bonus. In this situation, directing is crucial in building harmony and cooperation between the goals of the two parties.

3. Unity of Command

According to this rule, a subordinate should only be instructed by one superior at a time. He won't be able to prioritise his task if he gets orders from many supervisors at once. This will lead to organisational uncertainty, conflict, and chaos.

4. Appropriate Direction Technique

The right direction strategies should be utilised to oversee, lead, communicate, and motivate the workers depending on their requirements, skills, attitudes, and other situational factors, according to one of the directing principles.

5. Managerial Communication

This concept states that it is important to make sure that workers understand the instructions and that they understand them in the same way that they were meant to be understood.

6.Use of Informal Organization

There are informal groups or organisations inside every official organisation. These groups should be recognised by the management, who should then utilise them to spread information. Since an efficient interchange of information is crucial for the development of an organisation, there should

be a free flow of information between superiors and subordinates**.**

7.Leadership

To influence their staff and get them to do what they want, managers need to have strong leadership skills. It is one of the fundamental guiding principles.

8. Follow Through

According to this notion, supervisors must keep an eye on how closely the subordinates adhere to the rules, regulations, and guidelines. Any necessary revisions may be made if there are any implementation issues.

Objectives of Management

The effectiveness of an organization's management determines how well it accomplishes its goals profit or services.To assist organisations in achieving their aims, management works towards the following goals. Aids in managing the organisation to its goal at the lowest possible cost. Management aids in managing the organisation to its goal at the lowest possible cost. It helps managers to operate productively, that is, to produce the most at the lowest expense. It also tries to organise the organisational resources (physical, financial, and human) in order to best use non-human resources with the aid of human knowledge and skills.

fectiveness refers to doing the right things, while efficiency refers to doing the right things. It entails selecting the most suitable organisational goals from a variety of options. Regardless matter how hard managers work, inefficiency will come from a lack of efficacy or a choice of the incorrect goals. Thus, management aids in identifying the proper course of action and focusing effectively on it.Effective managers aren't only adept at handling issues; they also foresee them before they happen. To make their businesses competitive in the market, they need to seize possibilities. Management helps managers become more analytical, capable of identifying difficulties and seizing profitable company possibilities.Employees seek to meet their physical, social, and security requirements such as food, clothes, and housing. Management aids in identifying these demands and meets them by using the appropriate motivators.

Institutions function within a wider social structure. The welfare of society, and through it, the welfare of the country, is significantly impacted by business organisation performance. Management creates commercial organisations as entities that are socially acceptable and provide individuals with meaningful work.Business activities take place in a wider context that includes both economic and noneconomic factors. Businesses that secure environmental inputs convert it into output and return it to the environment. If they modify their company operations in response to environmental changes and alter their plans and procedures to meet those needs, they can survive. Management aids businesses in effectively defining and modifying their policies to interact financially with the wider environment.

Importance of Management

1. Goal-Achieving for Organisations: Management supports organisations in efficiently designing their objectives and formulating strategies and policies to reach them.

2. Using Organisational Resources as Efficiently as Possible: Management enables an organisation to make use of its resources

3. Improve Managers' Analytical and Conceptual Skills:Analysing organisational issues,

connecting them to other organisational concerns, and coming up with solutions that are directed towards organisational objectives are all helpful.

4. Striking a Balance between Several Goals: Managers may have to deal with many objectives that cannot be met at once. Management makes it easier to decide what is more important so that organisational resources may be best allocated to various organisational objectives.

5. **Economic and Social Development**: According to Drucker, developing countries are undermanaged, not underdeveloped. Transferring management expertise from industrialised to developing nations would boost the latter's capacity for entrepreneurship, managerial excellence, pace of capital creation, and, ultimately, economic and social progress.Management and economic development are not produced by savings and capital investment. Instead, management leads to economic and social advancement, and with it, capital investment and savings.

6.Aligning Individual and Organisational Goals: Individual objectives of individuals are coordinated with formal goals of people with formal goals of the organisation through effective management. Employees are encouraged to work hard to support organisational aims and, in doing so, further their own personal objectives.

7. Handle Rivalry: In the modern business world, management assists companies in handling intense rivalry. Businesses that are well managed outperform poorly managed ones and consequently get a larger market share. It aids organisations in embracing the intricate environmental modifications and elevating their degree of competency.

8. Social Upliftment: Management encourages social growth by mobilising and focusing human resources on societal demands including access to healthcare, education, and a healthy environment, among others.

9.Changes the Way Government and Society Operate:

a. Management teaches respect for societal norms, traditions, and personal beliefs.

b. The more a company's management upholds the traditions, practises, values, and beliefs of the community, the more favourably the government and the community see that company.

c.Management will become more concerned with the expression of fundamental beliefs and values than with achieving quantifiable results. Mr. Drucker

10. Social Innovation: More so than technological innovation, social innovation has a greater impact on social and economic growth. Our society's requirements, such as those for education, health care, a clean environment, entrepreneurship, and productivity, are met by our participation in social uplift.

11. Foundation to Organization: The basis of the organization is provided by clearly defined duties and their allocation to those in positions of power. In order to prevent misunderstanding and duplication in organisational operations, the proper job is assigned to the right individual.

12. Environment Analysis: Management allows a company to assess its advantages and disadvantages and link them to environmental risks and possibilities. SWOT analysis is used to do this. It aids managers in minimising risks and maximising commercial and environmental potential.

Scope or Branch of Management

Since it is necessary for all forms of organised endeavour, management is a function that permeates all other functions. Its scope is exceedingly broad as a result. The actions listed below fall within this scope.Planning, structuring, hiring staff, directing, coordinating, and controlling.The following list includes the operational facets of management's business branches:

1. Production Management: Producing utilities is production. When raw resources are transformed into final goods, utilities are produced. Therefore, production management is the area of management that sets into motion that part of the enterprise to which the task of actual translation of raw material into finished products has been entrusted by scientific planning and regulation.

2. Marketing Management: Marketing is the collection of all tangible operations that support the transfer of products and services and their physical distribution. Planning, organising, directing, and regulating the actions of the individuals working in the market division of a corporate firm with the goal of attaining the organization's goals is referred to as marketing management.

3.Financial Management: Financial Management is concerned with management tasks related to obtaining and using money or financing for commercial purposes. Estimating capital requirements, ensuring a fair return to investors, locating suitable funding sources, establishing the best and most appropriate capital structure for the business, coordinating the operations of various departments, preparing, analysing, and interpreting financial statements, establishing an appropriate dividend policy, and negotiating for outside financing are just a few of the main responsibilities of financial management.

4.Personnel management: This stage of management deals with the efficient management and application of labour. One of the key elements in an organization's success is the efficient management of its human resources. Management and operational tasks are addressed by personnel management. The managerial responsibilities of personnel management include:

i. Personnel planning.

ii. Organising by establishing the relationships between tasks, people, and physical assets to support organisational objectives.

iii. Supervising employees.

iv. Controlling.

The operational responsibilities of personnel management include:

i. Finding the right kind and number of people.

ii. Training and development of employees

iii. Determining adequate and equitable compensation for employees.

iv. Integrating the interests of the workforce with those of the business.

v. Offering favourable working conditions and welfare services to the workforce.

Office Management

The term Office Management refers to the management notion as it applies to offices. It is a method for organising, directing, and coordinating office operations with the goal of achieving a shared corporate aim. One of management's responsibilities is to set up the office operations in a manner that benefits the management in achieving its objectives. It serves as a support division for other departments.

Concept of Management

Management as an idea predates human civilisation. In the current setting, management has the greatest impact on contemporary life, giving the basic goal of management a powerful essence. Whether an organisation is focused on generating a profit or providing services, management is a valuable and practical idea.As a result, it is said that management is a universal business, including those in the military, educational and health institutions, gyms and clubs, trade groups and chambers of commerce, etc.

CONCLUSION

In order to use an organization's human resources efficiently and accomplish its objectives, the directing function of management is essential. Managers direct and influence personnel towards desired results via effective communication, motivation, and leadership. Since it makes it easier for managers and workers to communicate information, directives, and feedback, effective communication is essential to the directing role. Understanding, cooperation, and a feeling of purpose are all facilitated by open and transparent lines of communication. Another essential component of the guiding function is motivation. Managers may use motivational strategies to energise and motivate their workers by having a clear grasp of the requirements and goals of their workforce. Opportunities for professional advancement, awards, and recognition are crucial motivators that support employee engagement and productivity.

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VISUALIZING STRUCTURE: UNVEILING ORGANIZATIONAL CHARTS

Mr. Ashok Bhat*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-ashokbhat@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Organisational charts are visual representations of the hierarchy and structure of an organisation that highlight the connections between roles, departments, and people. The purpose, varieties, and advantages of organisational charts are highlighted in this overview study. The applicability of several organisational chart formats, including hierarchical, matrix, and flat charts, for various businesses and sectors is covered in this essay. It examines the components and icons, including boxes, lines, and job descriptions, that are often seen in organisational charts. The essay also looks at how organisational charts may improve decision-making, communication, and clarity. It also takes into account any possible restrictions and difficulties in designing and maintaining organisational charts. Last but not least, the study draws attention to the importance of organisational charts in presenting a visual picture of the organization's structure and aiding efficient administration and cooperation.

KEYWORDS: *Charts, Communication, Organizational, Reporting, Structure, Teams.*

INTRODUCTION

An organisational chart, often known as an org chart, is a useful management tool that graphically depicts the links and hierarchical structure inside an organisation. The roles, responsibilities, and reporting structures are presented in an understandable and organised manner[1]–[3]. An organisational chart's main goal is to make the organization's structure, including authority levels, lines of communication, and functional divisions, easier to grasp. Employees, managers, and stakeholders may understand the links between various organisational components and determine who is in charge of certain tasks and choices by being given a visual perspective.In an organisational chart, roles or job titles are often represented as boxes or rectangles, which are linked by lines that show the reporting connections. The highest level of authority, such as the CEO or president, is placed at the top of the chart, and numerous departments, teams, or divisions are placed below it. The hierarchy then descends, with lower-level roles answering to those in higher ones. The organisational chart is a crucial instrument for encouraging clarity, good communication, and comprehension of the organisational structure, which facilitates efficient operations and decision:making inside the company[3]–[5].

Types of Organizational Charts

Organisational charts come in a variety of forms to accommodate diverse organisational requirements and preferences. These sorts of charts provide a visual picture of the linkages and organisational structure. Let's examine a few of the often-used types:

i. Traditional or Hierarchical Organisational Chart. This is the most well-known and popular style of org chart. It displays positions of authority at the top and lower-level roles below, representing the vertical hierarchy of the organisation.

ii. The matrix organisational chart combines project teams and functional departments. It shows dual reporting linkages by displaying both vertical reporting lines within departments and horizontal reporting lines across projects.

iii. Flat organisations have fewer layers of hierarchy and a decentralised approach. This style of chart encourages teamwork, candid communication, and a quicker decision-making process.

iv. The divisional organisational chart is often used by companies with several divisions or business units. The hierarchical structure of each division is shown separately, allowing for targeted administration within each division while preserving overall coordination.

v. Organisational chart based on teams: This chart emphasises the value of cross-functional or self- managed teams. It serves as an example of how groups from various departments or functional areas work together and rely on one another.

vi. Virtual Organisational Chart. As remote work and virtual teams become more common, virtual org charts have become more important. These diagrams show the organisation and relationships among geographically separated or remote team members, facilitating efficient cooperation in spite of physical distances.

Advantages of Organization

Numerous benefits that organisational charts provide help an organisation work effectively. Let's examine a few major advantages:

Visual Clarity: The capacity of organisational charts to give a clear and visually attractive depiction of an organization's structure is one of its main advantages. Organisational charts make it simple for staff members and other interested parties to understand the general structure and linkages inside the company by graphically demonstrating the links between roles, departments, and teams.

Role Clarification and Accountability: Organisational charts are essential for clarifying and conveying the roles and responsibilities of different members of the workforce. Organisational charts provide workers a clear grasp of their duties and those of their coworkers by detailing reporting lines and job names. Because people are aware of their precise obligations and who they are responsible to, this clarity improves responsibility.

Better Communication and Collaboration: Organisational charts, which represent reporting connections visually, make it easier to communicate and work together effectively. Employees can instantly recognise the proper communication routes, facilitating efficient information flow inside the company. Additionally, org charts aid in locating important decision-makers, facilitating efficient teamwork and cooperation across departments and teams.

Adaptability and Growth: Organisational charts are useful tools for controlling organisational change and development. The charts are simple to update and change to reflect new jobs, departments, or reporting links as organisations change. This flexibility makes sure that the organisational structure is accurately reflected in the org chart, permitting easy changes and allowing for expansion.

Empowered Decision-Making and Delegation: Organisational charts provide the clear benefit of defining decision-making power. Organisational charts (org charts) aid workers in understanding who has decision-making authority at each level of the organisation by expressing authority levels graphically. By ensuring that the right people or teams are making choices, this clarity encourages effective decision-making. Furthermore, org charts facilitate delegation by offering a framework for job distribution and employee empowerment within the predetermined structure.

Talent Management and Succession Planning: Organisational charts are essential for succession planning and talent management. Leaders may find prospective replacements for important roles by graphically mapping the hierarchy. As a result, organisations may train and prepare workers for future leadership positions, resulting in a seamless transfer of duties. Organisational charts may also be used to identify talent shortages, which enables businesses to plan ahead for recruiting and skill-development initiatives.

DISCUSSION

Limitations of Organization Chart

Organisations should be mindful of the limits of organisational charts notwithstanding their value. Let's examine a few of these restrictions. Organisational charts provide a more straightforward portrayal of complex organisational hierarchies. The complex informal networks, cross-functional cooperation, and dynamic nature of connections inside the organisation could not be well represented by them. It's crucial to understand that the static structure of the chart may cause it to ignore crucial informal channels of communication and connections that are crucial for making decisions and addressing problems.Organisational charts often ignore the larger context in which the organisation functions in favour of focusing exclusively on the formal structure and reporting connections. The chart does not sufficiently account for elements like organisational culture, power dynamics, and informal hierarchies. This restriction may make it difficult to fully comprehend how the organisation runs and how choices are made[5]–[8].Roles are not always accurately represented in organisational charts, which may leave out some of the many responsibilities and tasks that come with each job. Job roles might vary greatly even within the same title;therefore, an org chart could not provide a complete picture of the duties and responsibilities carried out by people or teams.

To prevent misunderstandings and incorrect positions within the organisation, it is crucial to augment the org chart with thorough job descriptions.Complexity in Representing huge Organizations. It may be difficult to depict reporting lines, divisions, and teams correctly in a single org chart for huge organisations or those with complicated structures. The chart's value as a communication and reference tool might be reduced if it becomes congested and difficult to understand.Organisational charts are often stagnant and may not keep up with the quick changes that organisations go through. The org chart may soon become out of date as a depiction of the current organisation due to restructuring, mergers, or developing responsibilities. To alleviate this constraint, regular updates and a transparent communication procedure for changes are required.Organisational charts may be seen by employees as inflexible hierarchies that limit flexibility, cooperation, and innovation. This view may cause people to feel confined by their assigned jobs and unwilling to connect with coworkers outside of their direct reporting lines, which may be detrimental to creativity, cooperation, and cross-functional projects.Organizational Charts are used by:

Hiring or Recruiting Managers

Organisational charts may be used by recruiters and hiring managers to anticipate staffing requirements, leadership needs, training needs, identifying workers who are ready for promotions, skill gaps, talent gaps, etc. and take action to accomplish or fit with the company's mission and vision. This gives you the ability to anticipate and react to future labour demands.

New Hires

New employees may quickly learn about the organisational structure, who reports to whom, where they fit in the overall organisational hierarchy, their coworkers or team, their reporting manager, and more throughout the onboarding process. If they need to till they feel comfortable with the location and the team, they may check up the contact details of any colleague.

Employees

When they urgently need a colleague's contact information or any other information, your workers go there. Self- service is an excellent addition to org charts since it allows workers to edit their own profiles, which makes it easier for HR to maintain personnel databases. Organisational charts are a simple method to find out who is new to the team, who their current colleagues are, and what they do[9], [10].

Choosing an Organizational Design

The following are a few things you should ask yourself before selecting an organisational design.

1. What's you USP, or competitive advantage?

Your competitive advantage, which might be technical innovation, diversification, low-cost manufacturing, a specialised solution for a highly focused market, etc., will be highlighted by the response to this question, which will provide you with the foundation on which your design should be constructed. Understanding what it is that will enable your company to compete in the market will make it simpler for you to decide who to recruit, which procedures are essential, what your team's goals should be, etc.

2. Which organisational procedures are crucial to attaining it?

After stating your strategy for competing, the following step is to determine which business process will be crucial or have a direct impact on it. This will aid in the formation of teams, the allocation of resources to them, and sometimes even the choice between internal and external development.

3. External Environment

What does the outside world look like for your company? Do you outsource services or purchase materials from other vendors? How fierce is the competition on the market for your goods or services? Are there any uncertainties inherent in the nature of your business?

The answers to these questions can help you organise your teams in a way that will help you control expenses, outperform the competition, manage contracts and procurement, and more. It will also make it evident if you should choose an organisational structure that is strict or flexible.

4. Organization Size

The size of the business has an impact on the organisational structure choice. For instance, a

quickly developing company may adopt a flatarchy, whereas an enterprise might experience chaos under the same circumstances. Larger businesses tend to use matrix, functional, or divisional structures. That's because more sophisticated teams and divisions are required when a firm grows in size. Without which, achieving synergy would be challenging.

5. Which technologies are you thinking about?

Technology has an impact on the sharing, storing, and transfer of resources. It has an impact on workplace quality, regular communication, etc. A business with effective technology or communication capabilities, for instance, may bravely opt for a network organisational structure. It's crucial to know your technological position before selecting an organisational structure.

Things that make organizational chart powerful

Having a Layer of Data Supporting it

Names and titles alone won't cut it. You may improve your organisational charts by including pictures, a brief employee profile, interesting information, shared hobbies, professional experience, certificates, etc. A name and face become richer and more useful both to the HR staff and the workforce when it is supported with a solid, in-depth profile.

Being Accessible at All Times

Imagine having to open a laptop, connect to the internet, and search for a teammate when someone has to get in touch with a colleague fast, let's say from a distant place or if they are on the move. That would be annoying. It's one thing to have all the pertinent information; it's quite another to make it accessible to your staff at the appropriate time and location.

Search

A quick glance at the organisational structure of the business may be extremely intriguing, particularly if you are collecting interesting details about your staff. However, it's crucial to keep in mind that, in the majority of cases, individuals are just attempting to discover someone or their contact information. To make this process simple, your org chart must have a great built:in search tool rather than forcing users to read through a vast collection of files.

Allowing sharing

Spreadsheet-based static org charts that were buried behind a mountain of data are long gone. A more dynamic organisational structure is required by the contemporary workforce and changing organisational demands. Charts that can be easily updated and shared with everyone are those that can be updated regularly or automatically depending on other systems.

CONCLUSION

Organisational charts are useful tools for understanding and visualising the hierarchy and structure of an organisation. They encourage clarity, communication, and decision-making inside the organisation by illustrating the connections between functions, roles, and people. Different organisational chart forms, including hierarchical, matrix, and flat charts, represent various organisational systems and give differing degrees of information. Matrix charts display cross-functional teams and reporting connections, whereas hierarchical charts depict the chain of command and relationships between reports. Without a rigid hierarchical framework, flat charts emphasise cooperation and teamwork. The size, complexity, and sector of the organisation all

influence the sort of organisational chart that is used.

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OPTIMIZING EFFICIENCY: UNDERSTANDING SPAN OF CONTROL

Ms. Anandasrinivasan Deviprabha*

*Assistant Professor,
Masters In Business Administration,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id-deviprabha@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The term span of control describes how many employees a manager or supervisor can successfully supervise and manage. It is essential to organisational structure and management techniques. A summary of the idea, its significance, and the variables affecting the ideal span of control are given in this chapter. It also looks at how employee performance, communication, decision-making, and overall organisational success are affected by span of control. Organisations may make wise choices to increase productivity, simplify processes, and foster effective leadership by understanding the dynamics of the span of control.

KEYWORDS: *Communication, Control, Range, Manager, Span, Subordinates, Supervision.*

INTRODUCTION

The phrase span of control is often used in public administration and commercial management. It offers an empirical generalisation grounded in common sense but is not a principle in and of itself. It was developed as a guiding concept by organisational theorists;however, it just serves as a frame of reference. It is a contentious idea and perhaps the subject of the greatest debate in classical, neo:classical, or contemporary administrative ideas[1]–[4].As it relates to interactions between supervisors and subordinates and the decision-making process, span of control plays a crucial role in organisations.The phrase span of control refers to the ability of a supervisor or administrator to directly supervise their subordinates. This definition gives the term:

i. According to Dimock, Span of control is the number and range of direct, habitual communication contacts between the chief executive of an enterprise and his principle fellow officers.

ii. Lois Allen: Span of control refers to the number of people that a manager can supervise.

iii. Peterson and Ploughman. Span of control refers to the maximum number of subordinates which may be placed under the jurisdiction of one executive immediately superior to them.

iv. According to Elliott Jaques, a manager may have as many direct reports that he may get to know personally and evaluate for personal effectiveness.

v. The number of subordinates that can be managed and monitored successfully was characterised by Haimann and Scott as the span of control.

vi. Longenecker said that the span of control was the number of direct reports that a manager had.

The extent to which subordinates' work is effectively controlled and supervised is known as the Span of Control. A broad definition of span of control is the amount to which a single individual

may effectively extend his or her supervisory duties over other people or administrative units. Due to limited attention span, time, and energy, span of control is required. The successful use of managers and the effective performance of their staff are both impacted by span of control. Ideal span is the number of subordinates that should be less expensive and provide management more power.

Types of Spans of Control

Wide span of control and tight span of control are the two types of spans of control.

1. Broad Range of Control

A manager with a broad range of control may efficiently monitor and manage a big group of people at once. The reason tall organisations exist is because shorter vertical chains of command result in an increase in the number of steps or levels. A wide range of control has advantages in that it promotes better communication, better supervision, better coordination, suitability for regular and simple tasks, rapid employee reaction, lower overhead supervision costs, and a stronger capacity to adapt to environmental changes. An organisation with a broad range of control will have relatively few levels or stages of administration, which is known as a flat or horizontal organisation.When workers are competent, want little supervision, and the jobs are comparable and standardised, a broad range of control is appropriate. Simon asks for a broader range of control. The reason tall organisations exist is because shorter vertical chains of command result in an increase in the number of steps or levels. Vertical communication is thus challenging and indirect. Increased communication results from a wider range of control.to expand the area under control There is a delayering process. The range of control is widened throughout this procedure, which reduces the number of managers and organisational levels. Delayering enhances top-down communication while reducing costs.

2. Narrow Span of Control

This occurs when a manager manages a small group of individuals while delegating work and authority to a large number of subordinates. It results in a tall organisation by adding additional levels or layers of administration. The ability to specialise work is one of the main characteristics of limited span of control. It also helps with complicated work that needs tight control and supervision. Other characteristics include the potential for skewed messages, difficulty in achieving coordination, and communication gaps. increased monitoring costs and a slow reaction to environmental changes.

DISCUSSION

Factors Affecting Span of Control

1. **The Ability of the Subordinates**: If the subordinates are sufficiently competent to do the assigned task without difficulty, the manager won't need to pay them any more attention and additional subordinates may be under supervision. However, if an employee's subordinates are less competent, the manager will have to spend more time supervising them, and their scope of control will be limited.

2.Level of Delegation: A manager who gives his subordinates more decision-making power may oversee more workers and extend the scope of control. However, if a manager retains greater control over making choices, he or she may manage fewer subordinates.

3. Supervisor's Capacity: The supervisor's attributes and credentials significantly influence the range of control. If the supervisor is skilled enough, he or she can easily manage a large workforce and have a greater range of control. The span of control will be limited if the supervisor is new, less capable, and less administratively skilled.

4.Organisational Age: older organisations have a larger range of control than younger ones since they have stabilised their operations through time.

5. Task Nature: Because the task is more repetitive, the range of control may be broad. When tasks are comparable and straightforward, they may be handled with ease, but if they are complicated, the supervisor's scope of control will be limited. Thus, the range of control depends on the nature of the job.

6. Geographical Dispersion: If a company's branches are far distributed, the management will find it challenging to oversee each one, resulting in a limited span of control. If all of the subordinates are in one small area, the manager may simply oversee their work.

7.Supervision Techniques: Supervision Delegation, planning, programming, hiring staff experts, and other strategies all aid in extending a manager's sphere of influence. When goals and objectives guide operations more so than an ever-present supervisor, the sphere of control may be expanded. Additionally, a manager may extend his sphere of influence by using staff experts who can provide the executive another pair of legs, eyes, and ears[5]–[8].

8. Communication System: Compared to a weak and disorganised system, a well-organized and sensitive communication system in an organisation would provide a wider range of control.

9. Use of Standing Plans: It reduces the workload for managers, which results in a significant increase in the span of control.

10.Use of Communication Technology: The scope of control has expanded in contemporary times as a result of the use of automation in administration. Additionally, the breadth of control has expanded as a result of the application of mechanisation to tasks like accounting and calculation.

11.Management level: The range of control is limited by the superior's position in the organisational structure. According to empirical research, Newman recommended that higher-level executives have between three and seven operational subordinates, but the ideal range for first-line supervisors of everyday tasks is often between fifteen and twenty people. Other factors that affect the span of control include clearly defined authority and responsibility, the availability of staff services, financial constraints, the relationship between superiors and subordinates, the degree of centralization, the organization's financial situation, the clarity of plans and responsibilities, etc.

Formula by V.A. Graicunas

A French management consultant first introduced the idea of Span of Attention, which is connected to the span theory in public administration, in 1933. His theory is predicated on the idea that there is a limit to how many things one can handle concurrently. He examined the amount of connections that may be conceivable within a certain range of control. Graicunas asserts that as the number of subordinates increases arithmetically, the number of relationships increases almost geometrically. Graicunas classified superior-subordinate relationships into three

categories.

1. Direct Single Relationships

The first and other kind of connection is a direct relationship between a superior and his subordinates. For example, if M is superior and S1 and S2 are his subordinates, then there will be two direct single relationships.

Advantages of Span of Control

Advantages of a sufficient span of control include increased productivity, easier effective supervision and control, increased goodwill, better communication and coordination, the ability to take quick action, reduced absenteeism and turnover, the development of discipline and mutual trust, and the ability for superiors to focus on more important tasks. Organisational performance is significantly impacted by the span of control. The extent of supervision, lines of communication, decision-making procedures, and employee autonomy are all impacted by the span's size. It affects how an organisation balances the centralization and decentralisation of power. Organisations may improve resource allocation, coordination, employee happiness, and production by comprehending and successfully managing the span of control.

Span of Control Influencing Factors

The ideal span of control within a given organisation is influenced by a number of variables. These include the difficulty of the tasks, the nature of the business operations, the amount of personnel experience and competence, the leadership style, the communication methods, and the technological infrastructure. Routine and less difficult jobs may be efficiently handled with a larger span of control, but complex tasks that call for careful supervision and specialised expertise may demand a smaller span of control. The optimal span of control is also influenced by the nature of an organization's activities, such as the degree of standardisation and interdependence of tasks.To determine the scope of control, it is essential to consider the amount of employee experience and skill. In contrast to highly competent and experienced personnel, inexperienced or less skilled workers may need greater supervision and instruction, resulting in a smaller span of control. By enabling information flow and coordination, communication systemsboth formal and informalhave an impact on the range of control. Wider spans of control may be possible with effective leadership techniques like empowering and handing over responsibility to subordinates, but authoritarian or micromanaging leadership may call for smaller spans.

Span of Control Implications

Aspects of organisational management throughout the span of control are affected. A larger range of control over employee performance may encourage autonomy, decision-making power, quicker reaction times, and a feeling of ownership and responsibility. An employee who needs more direction may benefit from tighter monitoring, feedback, and assistance, which is possible with a limited scope of control.Organisational success depends on effective communication, and the breadth of control affects communication routes and flow. While a shorter span of control encourages tighter and more regular contact between managers and subordinates, a greater range of control may make it difficult to sustain good communication and coordination[7], [8].

Within an organisation, decision-making procedures are also impacted by the span of control. A broader spread allows for quicker decision-making since managers need to contact fewer direct subordinates. On the other hand, managers may take longer to make decisions when the range is

smaller since there are more people to consider. Depending on how quickly and effectively the organisation needs to make decisions, a proper span of control must be determined.The range of control affects the overall performance of the organisation. In circumstances when tight monitoring is required, a limited span of control enables more control and direction. However, it could result in micromanagement, more deliberate decision-making, and fewer chances for professional development for staff members. A broader gap encourages independence, empowerment, and quicker decision:making, but it may also lead to less control and coordination[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

A key component of organisational management that affects many aspects of an organization's operation is span of control. This research makes clear that a variety of variables, including work difficulty, organisational structure, communication channels, and leadership styles, affect the ideal span of control. A small area of control gives for better control over subordinates and tighter monitoring, but it may also result in micromanagement and delayed decision-making. A larger range of control, on the other hand, encourages autonomy, effectiveness, and quick decision-making, but may provide difficulties for maintaining good communication and control. By taking into consideration the distinctive qualities and objectives of their particular settings, organisations should make an effort to establish a balance between tight and broad spans of control. Adopting flexible management structures, utilising technology for effective communication, and empowering staff members via delegation and training may all help accomplish this. Regular evaluations and modifications of the span of control may also assist optimum performance by ensuring that it is in line with organisational goals.

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EXPLORING THE MOBILE APPLICATION DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Mr. Anil Gowda*

*Associate Professor
Masters in Business Administration,
Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id-anilbgowda@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Mobile application development is a rapidly growing field driven by the increasing use of smartphones and mobile devices. This studyexplores the process, challenges, and considerations involved in developing mobile applications, highlighting the significance of mobile app development in today's digital landscape.Mobile application development encompasses the creation of software applications specifically designed to run on mobile devices such as smartphones and tablets. The process involves several stages, including ideation, design, development, testing, and deployment. Developers utilize various programming languages, frameworks, and development environments to create mobile apps compatible with different operating systems like iOS and Android.

KEYWORDS: *Agile Development, Android, App Store Optimization (Aso), Cross-Platform Development, Debugging, Hybrid Apps.*

INTRODUCTION

The process of creating apps for mobile platforms differs greatly from that of creating software for PCs and their considerably bigger displays. Mobile devices are considerably simpler to use with fingers and multitouch gestures than with keyboards and typing due to their smaller size. Mobile applications should not attempt to handle too many jobs, they should be built for usability, and they should be optimized for the precise duties they are to execute. In comparison to using a desktop or laptop PC, utilizing a mobile device requires a fundamentally different user experience. Saving resources is a primary goal, including bandwidth, screen space, memory, processing, data input, and user gestures. It is challenging for the user to browse a complete Web site designed for the desktop when it is reduced to fit on a smartphone screen. To discover pertinent information, the user must continuously scroll and zoom in and out. As a result, businesses often construct numerous mobile sites to cater to the demands of smartphones, tablets, and desktop browsers in addition to designing Web sites expressly for mobile interfaces. This translates into having at least three websites, each with its own content, upkeep, and expenses. Because your browser sends this information to the server when you log on, Web sites currently know what device you are using. The server will offer the relevant screen based on this information.

The issue of having three separate websites may be solved by using responsive web design. Whether a visitor is using a desktop, tablet, or smartphone, responsive web design allows websites to dynamically adapt layouts to suit their visitor's screen resolution. The design is optimized for various viewing contexts using a combination of flexible grids and layouts, flexible images, and media queries in this method. The website dynamically adjusts the resolution and

picture size when the user moves from a laptop to an iPad, iPhone, or Android handheld. As a result, each new gadget no longer requires its own design and development labor. With responsive design, users will have access to a single source of material that is organized to be simple to read and navigate with the least amount of resizing, panning, and scrolling across a wide variety of devices and browsers[1]–[3]. Mobile applications are primarily available on the iPhone/iPad, Android, and Windows Phone operating systems. For example, Apple's iOS SDK for the iPhone/iPad offers tools for building, testing, and deploying apps in the target platform environment. Each platform for mobile applications includes an integrated development environment (IDE). These software development kits are used by larger businesses or company owners with programming knowledge to build applications from the ground up. App development may also be outsourced to specialist app development companies, which can cost up to $20,000 to design, create, and maintain a single app. For tiny enterprises that cannot afford to hire highly compensated programmers, several companies, like Red Foundry, provide app templates. The Interactive Session on Technology details several businesses' approaches to overcoming the difficulties in mobile development.

What Does It Take To Go Mobile?

That question is being asked by almost all businesses nowadays. There will be one mobile device for every person on the planet by 2015, and by 2013, more people will use their mobile phones than PCs to access the internet. Since 2010, the average number of Web searches conducted on mobile devices has more than doubled. Customers demand—and even expect—to be able to get information or complete a transaction using a mobile device of their choosing whenever, wherever, and at any time. Therefore, a business needs some type of mobile presence if it wants to keep in touch with its clients.

There are unique difficulties in creating mobile websites or mobile applications. The user experience on a mobile device and a PC are fundamentally unlike. Mobile devices provide unique capabilities, such as location-based services, that allow businesses to engage with consumers in novel and important ways. Businesses must be able to use these advantages while providing users with an adequate experience on a tiny screen. A company may require a distinct version of an application to operate on each of the numerous mobile platforms available: iPhone, Android, Windows Phone, and potentially BlackBerry. A website or desktop program cannot simply be transferred to a smartphone or tablet. It uses a distinct approach to system development. It's critical to comprehend how, why, and where clients utilize mobile devices as well as how these mobile engagements and behaviors alter company relationships. Customers who utilize apps, for instance, complete more transactions on their own and use their phones less? Do they use mobile devices for product research and buying more or less frequently?

The parent company of companies like UGG Australia, Teva, and Simple Shoes, Deckers Outdoor Corporation, spent a lot of time researching the mobile habits of its clients. To determine how customers will interact with its brand via mobile channels, it examined how consumers use their mobile devices for brand research and buying. According to Decker's customer studies, a smooth interaction is crucial for customers using mobile devices within a Deckers shop. The client wants to be able to see a product on their mobile device and see the same information they would see in-store, as well as some extra information, such user reviews.

More than just choosing mobile devices, operating systems, and applications is involved in a mobile strategy. It also entails changes to organizational procedures, personnel dynamics, and

client interactions. Mobile technology may improve operations by streamlining them and making them more convenient, a smartphone and send it to the bank automatically. The customer's account receives the funds right away. This technique does away with the time and money necessary to handle paper checks, as well as the need to send the check and wait three days for the deposit to be processed. Through this mobile app, USAA Federal Savings Bank handled deposits of $6.4 billion in 2011.

In addition, the mobile app shows loan and credit card balances, shopping options, information about homeowners' and auto insurance policies, Home Circle and Auto Circle purchasing options, retirement products and information, ATM and taxi locators, and a communities feature that lets users see what other people are saying about USAA on social media sites like Twitter, Facebook, and YouTube. After passing a "For Sale" sign while driving past, a real estate business may wish to direct mobile customers to an entirely other website. In order to quickly grab the lead and maintain a quick load time, the realtor may wish to enhance the mobile interface to contain particular listing and contact information. The conversions may not be as great if the mobile site is just a more user-friendly version of the desktop site.

DISCUSSION

One of the leading U.S. new home builders, Ryland Homes, already has a traditional website, but it also wanted to be able to interact with clients using mobile technology. In order to generate sales leads, the firm updated its mobile website in March 2011. This allowed prospective clients to identify the company's locations, see its goods, sign up for the company's newsletter, and contact immediately. The site is now easier to read and can fit on a smartphone or tablet screen without pinching and zooming, thanks to work by Ryland's development team. It developed numerous versions of the site that were suited for various smartphone or t models used by consumers using jQuery Mobile software and responsive Web design. To boost the likelihood of closing a deal, Ryland concentrated on features like location-based driving instructions to adjacent villages, clickable phone numbers, and quick online registrations. Based on the user's location and the location of their mobile device, the website displays adjacent communities in order of distance.

What are the essential steps in the systems development process?

Systems analysis, systems design, programming, testing, conversion, production, and maintenance are the primary components of system development. The study and analysis of system flaws, as well as the spotting of needs for their resolution, constitute systems analysis. Systems design outlines an information system solution’s requirement and demonstrates how its organizational and technological elements work together.

Main techniques for system modeling and design?

Structured methods and object-oriented development are the two main approaches for modeling and building information systems. Structured approaches concentrate on modeling the data and the processes independently. The main tool for structured analysis is the data flow diagram, and the main tool for structured software design representation is the structure chart. A system is modeled by object-oriented programming as a group of objects that include operations and data. Class and inheritance are the cornerstones of object-oriented modeling.

Alternate strategies for information system construction?

The systems life cycle, which mandates that information systems be built in formal phases, is the earliest approach for creating systems. The steps must be carried out in order and have clear results; each must have official approval before moving on to the next. Although it is quite restrictive and expensive, the systems life cycle is appropriate for big projects that need precise requirements and strict management control over each step of systems creation. Building an experimental solution quickly and affordably for end customers to use and assess is known as prototyping. End-user engagement in system development and design iteration are encouraged via prototyping until precise requirements are obtained. Rapid prototyping may produce systems that have not been well tested, documented, or are technically unfit for use in a production context.

The amount of planning, programming, testing, installation, and maintenance effort needed to create a system is decreased by using a software package. If a company lacks the internal information systems personnel or financial resources to design a system from scratch, application software packages might be useful. Packages may need major revisions to match the specific needs of a company, which may significantly increase development costs. End-user development is the process through which end users create information systems, either alone or with little help from information systems experts. Fourth-generation software tools may be used to quickly and casually generate end-user-developed systems. End-user development, however, may result in the creation of information systems that do not necessarily adhere to quality assurance requirements and that are difficult to regulate using conventional techniques. In order to create a company's information systems, an external vendor is used rather than the internal information systems team. With the use of outsourcing, businesses may create apps without having to hire internal information systems workers. However, businesses run the danger of ceding too much power to outside providers and losing control over their information systems. Hidden expenses are another aspect of outsourcing, particularly when the job is moved abroad.

New strategies for system development in the age of the digital firm?

To speed up the systems development process, businesses are resorting to quick application design, collaborative application design, agile development, and reusable software components. To create systems extremely quickly, RAD makes use of object-oriented software, visual programming, prototyping, and fourth-generation technologies. Using iteration and constant feedback, agile development divides a major project into a number of tiny subprojects that are finished quickly. By organizing items into collections of software components that may be joined to construct sizable commercial applications, component-based development speeds up the creation of applications. Through a consistent plug-and-play architecture, web services provide a set of standards that allow enterprises to connect their systems regardless of the technological platform they are using. The creation of mobile applications must include usability, simplicity, and the need to optimize tasks for small displays[4]–[6].

Database design, querying, reporting, and form creation are software talents. Sales lead and customer analysis are business skills. You must do a systems analysis for this assignment, then use database software to build a system solution. In Portland, Oregon, Ace Auto Dealers specializes in selling new Subaru cars. Additionally, to being recognized as an authorized dealer on the Subaru website and other significant auto-buying websites, the business runs advertisements in neighborhood newspapers. The business benefits from having a positive local reputation and name recognition. Ace feels that it does not know enough about its clients. It is difficult to identify which customers have made auto purchases or which customer interaction

points have generated the most sales leads or real sales so that it may concentrate more of its advertising and marketing efforts on the channels that bring in the most money. Do customers learn about Ace via newspaper advertisements, word-of-mouth, or the Internet? Describe Ace's issue in full, along with a system fix that may be carried out using PC database management software. After that, create a simple system solution using database software. You may learn more about Ace and its information needs in MyMISLab to assist you in creating the solution.

In charge of projects

More than 830,000 independent distributors distribute the more than 200 anti-aging personal care and nutritional supplement items offered by Nu Skin Enterprises, an American direct selling and multilevel marketing business. 52 overseas markets have been added to the company's activities since its founding in Provo, Utah, in 1984. The amount of revenue each year has surpassed $1 billion. The business strategy of Nu Skin mixes multilevel marketing and direct selling. Each distributor offers items to prospective consumers directly and has the ability to find and educate clients to work as distributors. Distributors get compensation from the retail markup on the goods they may individually sell as well as a cut of the sales of the distributors they have attracted. Nu Skin must, without a doubt, pay great attention to its management of people if it hopes to succeed.

Nu Skin has approximately 6,000 workers across 28 nations, but up until recently, it lacked a unified HR system to manage employee data and provide HR reports to other areas of the company. Instead, it permitted local operational units to utilize their own systems or handled personnel locally using manual methods. Nu Skin had to get in touch with the area and personally collect the data in order to gather personnel information at the corporate level. All of this took a lot of time, and the business truly needed more automated and standardized HR procedures. A cross-functional project team made up of representatives from human resources and the information systems department carried out a detailed two-year examination of information requirements before deciding to install a centralized HR system at Nu Skin. It began implementing the organizational management and people administration modules while recommending SAP ERP Human Capital Management.

The project team's members were chosen for their complementary backgrounds in human resources. Several SAP business analysts, a team of senior systems engineers, a programmer analyst, a technical business analyst, and an HR information systems analyst made up the team. The team was assisted by IT Business Integration executives Amy Camara and Jay Barney, Vice President of Human Resources David Daines, and others. The project team contacted outside consultants from Symphony Consulting to help them assess the information needs from multiple Nu Skin offices. The capacity of consultants to provide on-site training as well as their abilities and personalities to complement the team were factors in their hiring. Because of how dispersed geographically Nu Skin's users were, it was not practicable for them to get off-site training for the new system. During implementation, the consultants were tasked with providing on-site staff training.

The organization took care to prioritize "people" above technology at every stage of the project. Who should be included on the project team? Which consultants need to be hired? What business and cultural needs need to be taken care of? The project team visited different Nu Skin locations in each of the company's markets to learn more about the data that was gathered there, the tools and reports that were used to analyze it, and the future goals of each location. The project team became more aware of regional variations in information needs and company culture as a result of

these face-to-face encounters. The discussions also helped end users feel more invested in the project and confident that the project team was committed to ensuring that the new system worked for their advantage.

For each worldwide location, the project team adopted a staggered implementation strategy. Nu Skin implemented the SAP ERP HCM global functionality in 2011. Benefits appeared right away. In the past, the Nu Skin HR department had to ask the local operating unit for the data, which may take weeks, if the finance department required a report on the number of full-time workers in a certain market. It was necessary to manually collect the necessary information from the various areas and transmit the report to the various departments in order to compile a report on whether workers departed the firm or transferred to another department. These days, the system automatically generates and disseminates all of these reports.

When Nu Skin's HR system was put into place, management became aware of this. The new system required a shift in HR business procedures throughout the whole organization, backed by new software. Nu Skin was able to complete this project successfully because of management's strong understanding of the importance of organizational "people" concerns, particularly in a worldwide corporation with so many regional and cultural variations. The introductory graphic highlights crucial issues brought up by this case and this. Due to the fact that all HR procedures at Nu Skin were manual, the company sorely wanted to automate them. The project team that the management correctly chose contained personnel with both business and technical competence. The team spent a lot of time and effort determining the best software solution and gathering user information needs. Success was further enhanced by staged system rollout and personnel training at each site.

Project Management's Importance

The failure rate for information systems initiatives is relatively high. Information systems initiatives either take much longer and cost far more to implement than initially planned in almost every firm, or the finished system is ineffective. whenever a message Companies may not get any return on their information system investment if the system does not perform as expected or is too expensive to construct, and it may not be able to address the issues for which it was designed. The creation of a new system requires careful planning and management, and the manner a project is carried out is perhaps the most significant determinant of its result. It is crucial to have some understanding of how to manage information systems initiatives and the factors that determine whether they are successful or unsuccessful.

Projects that go awry and system failure

How poorly handled are projects? The time and money needed to deliver the whole system promised in the system plan are typically 50% underestimated for private sector projects. Numerous projects are finished but lack key functionality. Only 32% of all technology investments were finished on schedule, on budget, and with all the features and capabilities that were initially planned, according to the Standish Group consultancy, which tracks IT project success rates. One in six of the 1,471 IT projects analyzed had an average cost overrun of 200 percent and a schedule overrun of over 70 percent, according to big worldwide research published in the Harvard Business Review. The average cost overrun was determined to be 27%. In the range of 30 to 40 percent of all software projects, there are "runaway" projects, which go much above their initial budget and schedule forecasts and don't operate as expected.

The systems created by unsuccessful information initiatives are often not utilized as planned or are not used at all. In order for these systems to function, users often have to create parallel manual systems. The system's actual design may fall short of capturing crucial business needs or enhancing organizational effectiveness. Information may not be sent fast enough to be useful, it could be presented in a way that makes it difficult to understand and utilize, or it might reflect the incorrect kinds of data. Non-technical business customers may find the system's interface to be too difficult and discouraging. A system's user interface might be poorly designed. Users interact with the user interface, which is a component of the system. An online input form or data entry screen, for instance, can be so awkwardly set up that nobody wants to provide data or ask for information. System outputs could be presented in a way that is too challenging to understand.

If web pages are busy and poorly organized, users have trouble finding the information they need, or it takes too long for the page to load and show on the user's computer, visitors may become less inclined to explore further.Furthermore, the system's data could be very inaccurate or inconsistent. There may be inaccurate or ambiguous information in certain categories, or the information may not be effectively structured for business needs. The lack of access to information needed for a particular business function may be caused by inadequate data. Some of the issues we just discussed are shown in the Interactive Session on Management. As you read this case, attempt to ascertain the reasons why this project failed and how project management contributed to the result.

Goals for Project Management

A project is a deliberate set of associated tasks intended to accomplish a certain business goal. The creation of new information systems, the improvement of current systems, or the update or replacement of the company's information technology infrastructure are all examples of information systems initiatives[7]–[10].Project management is the process of using information, skills, tools, and procedures to complete tasks within predetermined budgets and timelines. Planning the work, evaluating risk, estimating the resources needed to complete the work, organizing the work, acquiring human and material resources, assigning tasks, directing activities, controlling project execution, reporting progress, and analyzing the results are some of the project management activities. The five main factors that project management for information systems must address are scope, time, money, quality, and risk.

More than 1 million people are served by Austin Energy, which manages power, water, and waste disposal for the City of Austin, Texas, and neighboring counties. It is a publicly traded firm that serves as a division of the municipal government and annually distributes its earnings back to the neighborhood. Since 1976, the business has donated $1.5 billion in dividends to Austin, helping to pay for amenities like fire, police, emergency medical services, parks, and libraries. Despite having one of the biggest renewable energy projects in the nation, Austin Energy's outdated billing systems were not compatible with smart meters and other contemporary gadgets. Additionally, it lacked more recent customer service features like the possibility for customers to choose the day of the month they like to pay their bills. Austin Energy hired IBM in 2009 to build a centralized billing system and manage it for five years in order to upgrade the billing system and update its information systems with current energy saving techniques. Austin and IBM reached an agreement for IBM to receive $55 million from Austin, of which $38 million would be used to construct and implement a new billing system and $17 million to run it for five years after its installation. The new billing system was intended to manage garbage, recycling, water, and

energy. Austin was certain that a successful installation would ultimately provide savings that would cover its costs.

The initiative has been at best a letdown so far. Early in 2011, the system was intended to go online, however it is still not completely functional. Thousands of invoices had mistaken as a result of software issues. Another 35,000 consumers got erroneous invoices, while more than 65,000 never received a bill at all. One company owed Austin Energy $3,000 but was instead charged $300,000. Austin Energy was able to locate the impacted accounts and work with customers one-on-one to resolve the issues, but the business was unable to manage the influx of consumer complaints about the new system, and its customer service staff was in risk of being overwhelmed. Instability problems, says Larry Weiss, manager of Austin Energy. ..Persistent system issues prohibited the firm from invoicing apartment dwellers for water, balancing its accounts, and issuing audit reports, all of which had major and expensive effects on our business and our clients. Austin City was losing money because it couldn't properly charge for utilities.

Austin Energy representatives blame IBM directly for the project's problems. In an interview, Austin Energy CIO Alan Claypool said, "We have yet to reach a s system we are extremely disappointed and continue to have serious concerns about the quality of service we have received from IBM to date." He also said in a message from September 2011 that IBM was making the same mistakes over and over as it tried to implement the system. The project was delayed by 37 hours as a result of two different IBM faults, one of which was the same kind of mistake that the same team had made in December 2010. "We remain deeply disappointed in the delays and what appears to be ad hoc approaches to project management," said Claypool.

With an emphasis on system availability, the business now intends to put clauses in contracts with IBM in the future that protect against such occurrences. Austin is also withholding $3.8 million in payments that are now due to IBM until the system reaches baseline performance requirements. Claypool and other Austin Energy executives have approached IBM representatives directly on multiple occasions, starting with the project managers for the billing system and working their way up to the then-CEO Sam Palmisano. Claypool initially sent a letter to Marc Lautenbach, who oversaw IBM's North American Global Business Services division and was in charge of the billing system project. He said that in order to access their accounts or resolve invoicing issues, thousands of users needed personal help. Frank Kern later took over Lautenbach's position as head of global business, and in a letter to Austin, he laid out a five-step strategy to address the billing system's issues.

To ensure that system issues are assigned to the appropriate individuals, implement best-practice processes to ensure project success, work more closely with third-party vendors like Oracle, and identify gaps outside the project's scope and recommend solutions were all parts of Kern's plan. Since then, Kern has retired, and Claypool again wrote to IBM to inform them that nothing had changed from when the five-step plan was first created for Austin Energy's billing system. Officials from Austin Energy disagreed with IBM's recommendation to install more potent servers to assist solve the issue since doing so would require the utility to spend more than initially budgeted for the project. Despite all of the errors, Austin Energy is still optimistic that the issue may be resolved successfully and amicably. A number of years ago, Austin Energy and IBM entered into a contract to work together to create an inventory management system for the city. Although there were issues with that system as well, they were nothing compared to the mess with the billing system. Additionally, Austin Energy argues that IBM's mistakes have cost the

firm $8 million since the project's inception. Given that Austin Energy has already spent so much in IBM's project development, switching providers may only make problems worse. When contacted for response, IBM merely offered the statement that it is collaborating with Austin Energy to fix the billing system's problems.

Similar initiatives like this one have been successfully handled by IBM in the past. Oracle databases, IBM WebSphere middleware, and Tivoli administration tools make up the IBM billing system. There hasn't been a single underlying cause of the system's issues. It has been difficult to get the 73 distinct interfaces on the new billing system, which is complicated, to communicate with one another in an efficient manner. Customers have been unable to use the system's web interface, and staff members at Austin Energy have said that they have experienced it as "alpha testers," meaning that they have run across errors and problems that shouldn't have made it into a live version. One in four Austin clients have had issues with IBM's technology. Some clients' accounts were terminated, and they were only able to restore them after many phone calls. Austin Energy's problems with the billing system came just as company was getting ready to implement its first rate rise in 17 years, which was unfortunate. The corporation has forced to reconsider its goals in the aftermath of the PR catastrophe caused by the flawed billing system.

The majoritybut not allof the billing system flaws have been resolved as of February 2012. Claypool remained optimistic that Austin Energy will be able to work together with IBM and complete the project. Claypool said that IBM had responded, but he thought it had been too "incremental.We would want a quicker answer. Austin Energy's future outsourcing agreements will include stricter sanctions for vendor failures, including the issue of system availability. The scope of a project determines what work is and is not included. For instance, the scope of a project for a new order processing system could not involve any modifications to associated accounts receivable, manufacturing, distribution, or inventory management systems, but rather new modules for entering orders and sending them to production and accounting. Project management should guarantee that the scope of a project does not stray from what was initially planned and should outline all the work necessary to execute a project properly.

Time is the length of time necessary to finish the job. The time needed to finish the main parts of a project is often determined by project management. Each of these elements is further divided into tasks and activities. The goal of project management is to estimate how long it will take to finish each activity and create a timeline for doing so. Cost is calculated by multiplying the time needed to finish a project by the price of the human resources needed to execute the project. The price of workspace, software, and hardware are all included in the cost of information systems projects. A project budget is created, and continuing project costs are tracked by project management. Quality is a measure of how well a project's final product meets the goals set forth by management. The effectiveness of information systems initiatives is often measured by how well they facilitate decision-making and organizational performance. The new system's output's correctness, timeliness, and usability are also taken into account when determining quality. Risk describes possible issues that might jeopardize a project's success. By raising time and expense, diminishing the quality of project outputs, or preventing the project from being finished entirely, these possible issues may prohibit a project from reaching its goals.

Chopper Projects

Usually, businesses are given a wide range of projects to complete in order to solve issues and boost performance. System initiatives have significantly more ideas than resources to complete

them. From this group, businesses must choose the initiatives that provide the most potential for success. Obviously, choosing a project should be based on the company's overall business plan. How should managers decide amongst the available options?

Information Systems Project Management Structure

The corporate strategy planning group and the information system steering committee are at the top of this organization. The corporate strategy planning team is in charge of creating the company's strategic plan, which could need the creation of new systems. This group often has devised objective metrics of business success and favors IT initiatives that can significantly raise one or more key performance indicators. The company's board of directors examines and discusses these performance metrics. The top management team in charge of system development and maintenance is the information systems steering committee. It is made up of department leaders from the information systems and end-user divisions. The steering committee evaluates and approves system plans for all divisions, works to coordinate and integrate systems, and on occasion becomes involved in choosing particular information systems initiatives. The key performance indicators chosen by the board of directors and upper-level management are likewise well known to this group.

CONCLUSION

In the digital ecosystem, mobile application development is essential for allowing organizations and people to provide cutting-edge, user-centric experiences on mobile devices. Developers may design mobile applications that satisfy user demands and provide value in a variety of fields, including communication, entertainment, productivity, and e-commerce, by carefully considering user experience, device capabilities, security, and cross-platform compatibility. Mobile app development will remain a vital and dynamic industry as mobile technology develops, fostering innovation and changing how people engage with digital services and information.The project team is managed by a project management team made up of end-user managers and information systems managers who are in charge of managing a number of distinct information systems projects. The individual systems project is wholly under the direct control of the project team. It includes of application programmers, systems analysts, experts from the appropriate end-user business domains, and maybe database professionals. The precise characteristics of the system solution determine the project team's size and skill mix.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF INFORMATION SYSTEMS WITHIN ORGANIZATIONS

Dr. Ramalingam Mageshkumar*

*Assistant Professor,
Department of Management, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-mageshkumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The successful implementation of information systems within organizations relies on the strategic alignment between systems projects and the business plan. This studyexplores the significance of linking systems projects to the business plan, highlighting the benefits, challenges, and strategies for achieving this alignment.The business plan serves as a roadmap outlining an organization's goals, strategies, and tactics for achieving success. It provides a clear vision of the organization's direction and priorities. On the other hand, systems projects involve the development, implementation, and management of information systems to support organizational processes and objectives.

KEYWORDS: Alignment, Business Objectives, Change Management, Cost-Benefit Analysis, Feasibility Study, Project Prioritization.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations must create an information systems strategy that supports their entire business plan and incorporates strategic systems into top-level planning in order to identify the information systems initiatives that will provide the most commercial value. The plan acts as a road map, outlining the reasoning, the existing systems and situation, any new developments to be taken into consideration, the management strategy, the execution plan, and the budget. The strategy outlines the organizational objectives and how information technology will help those objectives be achieved. The study demonstrates how particular systems initiatives will be used to accomplish broad objectives. It specifies precise goal dates and milestones that may be used afterwards to gauge the success of the plan in terms of the number of objectives that were actually accomplished within the time range given in the plan. The plan outlines the important management choices related to the purchase of hardware, communications, the centralization or decentralization of power, data, and hardware, as well as the necessary organizational transformation. Recruiting attempts, changes to business processes, and adjustments to authority, structure, or management practices are all examples of organizational changes that are often discussed[1]–[3].

Businesses will need to inventory and record all of its IT infrastructure components and information system applications in order to prepare efficiently. Managers should aim to identify the decision improvements that would offer the most value to the company for initiatives whose benefits require enhanced decision-making. The value of more accurate and timely information on the decision's result should then be measured using a set of metrics that they should create.

Information Needs and Key Performance Measurements

The company must have a thorough grasp of both its short- and long-term information requirements before it can create a successful information systems strategy. a strategic approach to key success, strategic analysis, or information needs factors asserts that a select few key performance indicators of managers define the information needs of a business. The industry, the company, the management, and the overall environment all influence KPIs. For an automotive company, KPIs can include labor expenses, unit production costs, factory productivity, the rate of rework and errors, customer brand recognition surveys, J.D. Power quality rankings, employee job satisfaction surveys, and health costs. The primary purpose of new information systems should be to provide data that aids the company in achieving these objectives suggested by key performance indicators.

Portfolio Analysis

Portfolio analysis may be used to assess different system projects once strategic assessments have established the general direction of systems development. The organization's information systems projects, assets, infrastructure, outsourcing agreements, and licenses are all inventoried as part of the portfolio analysis. This information systems investment portfolio may be thought of as having a certain risk and reward profile for the company, much like a financial portfolio. Each information systems project has its own unique mix of advantages and disadvantages. By balancing the risk and return from their system investments, businesses would strive to increase the return on their portfolios of IT assets. Information-intensive enterprises should have a few high-risk, high-benefit initiatives to keep up with technology, even if there is no perfect profile for all businesses. Businesses in non-information-intensive sectors should concentrate on high-profit, low-risk initiatives.

Naturally, solutions with a high benefit and minimal danger are the most ideal. These guarantee minimal risks and quick rewards. Second, it is important to investigate high-benefit, high-risk systems, avoid low-benefit, high-risk systems at all costs, and review low-benefit, low-risk systems in case they may be rebuilt and replaced with higher-benefit systems. Using portfolio analysis, managers may balance riskier, higher-return initiatives with safer, lower-reward ones to create the ideal combination of investment risk and reward for their companies. Businesses that integrate portfolio analysis with business strategy have been shown to have greater IT asset returns, better IT investment alignment with corporate goals, and better organization-wide coordination of IT spending.

Survey Models

A scoring model is helpful for choosing projects when various factors need to be taken into account. It weighs the individual components of a system before calculating the weighted sums. Two different business resource planning systems must be chosen by the company. The decision-makers' evaluation standards are listed in the first column. The decision-making panel often has long conversations to determine these criteria. The agreement on the evaluation criteria is often more significant than the score when using a scoring model. This specific organization places the most emphasis on having the ability to execute sales orders and manage inventory and storage. The weights that decision-makers assigned to the decision criteria's second column. The percentage of needs for each function that each alternative ERP system can supply is shown in columns 3 and 5. The proportion of criteria satisfied for each function multiplied by the weight

associated with that function yields each vendor's score. The ERP System B gets the best overall rating. Using the scoring model involves making several qualitative judgements, as is the case with all "objective" methods. Experts that comprehend the problems and the technology are needed for this concept. To determine how sensitive the result is to justifiable changes in criteria, it is customary to cycle through the scoring model numerous times while altering the criteria and weights. Instead of serving as the ultimate arbiters of system selection, scoring models are most often employed to validate, justify, and support judgments.A system project must be a wise investment for the company even if it advances the strategic objectives of the company and satisfies user information demands. The question of return on invested capital fundamentally drives the value of systems from a financial standpoint. Does a certain information system investment generate enough profits to cover its costs?

Performance and Costs of Information Systems

At some of the most typical system expenses and advantages. It is possible to quantify and evaluate tangible advantages. Although they can't be measured right away, intangible advantages like improved decision-making or more effective customer service may eventually translate into quantitative results. The concept of total cost of ownership is intended to identify and measure the components of information technology expenditures beyond the initial cost of purchasing and installing hardware and software. Transaction and clerical systems that replace labor and save space always produce more measurable, tangible benefits than management information systems, decision-support systems, and computer-supported collaborative work systems. However, since benefits, cost categories including complexity costs, and "soft" and strategic aspects are often not included, TCO analysis only gives a portion of the information required to assess an information technology investment.

DISCUSSION

Budgeting for Information Systems Capital Projects

You must assess all of a project's expenses and all of its advantages in order to estimate its benefits. A project that has more expenses than benefits should obviously be abandoned. However, even if the advantages exceed the disadvantages, more financial analysis is necessary to see if the project offers a satisfactory return on the firm's capital investment. One method for determining the worth of funding long-term capital investment projects is capital budgeting models. Measures of cash flows into and out of the company are the foundation of capital budgeting techniques; capital projects are the sources of such cash flows. Hardware, software, and human costs result in an immediate cash outflow, which is the investment cost for information systems initiatives. The investment may result in more financial losses in future years, but they will be offset by cash inflows from the investment. Cash inflows may be achieved by increasing sales of existing items or cutting expenditures associated with operations and manufacturing. The difference between cash inflows and withdrawals is used to determine an investment's financial value. Once the cash flows have been calculated, a variety of additional techniques are available for evaluating various projects and choosing which investment to make. The payback technique, the accounting rate of return on investment, net present value, and the internal rate of return are the four main capital budgeting approaches for assessing IT projects. The Learning Tracks for this provide further information on how these capital budgeting methods are used to support information system investments.

Models for Real Options Pricing

Some information systems initiatives, particularly investments in IT infrastructure, are quite unpredictable. They have large upfront expenses and uncertain future income sources. Assume, for example, that a business is thinking about investing $20 million to modernize its IT infrastructure, which includes its hardware, software, data management tools, and networking technologies. If the company had access to this updated infrastructure, it would have the technological capabilities to react to opportunities and issues more quickly. Not all of the advantages of making this investment can be predicted in advance, even if its expenses can be determined. It could be too late to invest in the infrastructure if the company waits a few years until the income potential is more apparent. Managers may find it advantageous to assess information technology expenditures using real options pricing models in certain circumstances.

The idea of options valuation, which is a notion adapted from the financial sector, is used in real options pricing models. Essentially, an option is the freedom to take action at a later time without being required to. A common financial option is a call option, which gives the buyer the right to acquire the underlying asset at a preset price on or before a certain date. Let's say, for example, that on April 25, 2012, you could pay $17.09 for a call option that would allow you to acquire a share of Procter & Gamble common stock for $50 per share at a later date. Options have a set expiry date, and the deadline for this call option is January 17, 2014. You would not exercise the option, and its value would decrease to zero on the strike date if the price of P&G common stock did not increase over $50 per share by the end of business on January 17, 2014. However, if the price of P&G stock increased to, say, $100 per share, you could buy the shares at the $50 strike price and keep the $50 profit per share after paying the option premium. The stock option gives the owner the chance to profit from an opportunity's upside potential while reducing the negative risk.

In a manner similar to stock options, ROPMs value information systems projects whereby an initial investment in technology creates the rightbut not the obligationto benefit from further development and deployment of the technology, so long as management retains the flexibility to cancel, defer, restart, or expand the project. through using tiny pilot projects or prototypes, managers may test the waters before making a larger investment in an IT project and learn more about the risks involved. This is made possible through ROPMs. This model's main drawback is that it is difficult to estimate all the important factors that influence option value, such as expected cash flows from the underlying asset and changes in the cost of implementation. Information technology platform option value models are now being created.

Problems with Financial Models

The conventional emphasis on an information system's financial and technical components tends to ignore the social and organizational aspects of information systems, which might alter the investment's real costs and benefits. The cost of end user training, the effect that users' learning curves for new systems have on productivity, or the time managers must spend overseeing new system-related changes are all costs that many companies' information systems investment decisions fail to adequately account for. Benefits like improved staff learning and expertise or more rapid choices from a new technology may also go unnoticed in a standard financial study[4]–[6].

Project Risk Management

In this, we outline the particular risks that information systems projects face and demonstrate how to successfully manage them. Systems vary greatly in terms of their size, scope, degree of complexity, organizational structure, and technological elements. Some systems development projects have a much greater amount of risk than others, making it more probable that they may cause the issues we have previously mentioned or experience delays. Project size, project structure, and the amount of technical competence possessed by the project team and information systems employees all have an impact on project risk.

Project scope. The risk increases with the magnitude of the project, as measured by the amount of money invested, the size of the implementation team, the amount of time allotted for implementation, and the number of organizational units impacted. Due to its complexity and controllability, very large-scale systems projects have a failure rate that is 50–75% greater than that of other projects. Both technical characteristics, such as the quantity of program code, duration of the project, and budget, as well as organizational characteristics, such as how many units and groups use the system and how much it affects business processes, all add to the complexity of large-scale systems projects. Additionally, there aren't many trustworthy methods for determining how long and how much it will cost to construct large information systems. Different projects need different levels of organization. Their specifications are unambiguous and basic, making it simple to describe outputs and processes. Users nearly seldom change their opinions since they are very certain of what they want and what the system should accomplish. Such projects have a far lower risk than those with very fluid, frequently changing needs, outputs that are difficult to change because of users' shifting opinions, or users who can't agree on what they want. If the project team and the information system employees lack the necessary technical skills, the project risk increases. The project is likely to run into technical issues or take longer to finish due to the requirement to learn new skills if the team is not acquainted with the hardware, system software, application software, or database management system planned for the project. Although the complexity of the technology is one risk factor for information systems projects, the other risks are primarily organizational in nature and deal with the complexity of the information requirements, the project's scope, and the extent to which the new information system will affect the organization.

Change Management and the Implementation Concept

An information system's introduction or modification may significantly affect organizational and behavioral dynamics. New authority and power structures often result from changes to how information is defined, accessible, and utilized to manage the organization's resources. An otherwise effective system may fail as a result of this internal organizational change, which creates disagreement and resistance. A significant portion of information systems initiatives fail because the organizational transformation process that accompanied system development was not adequately handled. Careful change management is necessary for successful system development.

The Implementation Concept

You must look at the implementation process in order to handle organizational change associated with the introduction of a new information system efficiently. The term "implementation" describes all organizational operations geared toward a new formation system's acceptance, administration, and routinization. The systems analyst serves as a change agent throughout the

implementation phase. The analyst redefines the configurations, interactions, job functions, and power relationships of diverse organizational groupings in addition to creating technological solutions. The analyst is in charge of ensuring that all parties embrace the changes brought about by a new system and is the driving force behind the whole change process. The change agent interacts with consumers, resolves conflicts between divergent interest groups, and makes sure the organizational adaptation to such changes is successful.

The Function of Consumers

High user involvement and management support are often beneficial for system deployment. There are several advantages to including users in the creation and management of information systems. First, users have greater influence over the result and have more possibilities to shape the system to meet their objectives and business needs if they are actively engaged in the design of the system. Second, since they actively participated in the modification process, they are more likely to respond favorably to the finished system. Better solutions are produced by incorporating user knowledge and skills. It has historically been difficult to establish information systems due to the interaction between users and information systems experts. Users and experts in information systems often come from diverse backgrounds and have distinct goals. The communication gap between users and designers is what this is called. These distinctions result in varying organizational allegiances, problem-solving techniques, and languages.

For instance, experts in information systems often approach problems from a very technical, or machine, perspective. They seek for sophisticated and beautiful technological solutions that maximize hardware and software efficiency at the price of user friendliness or organizational effectiveness. Users like solutions that are focused on resolving organizational issues or commercial difficulties. The views of the two groups often diverge to the point that they seem to talk in separate languages. The common worries of technical experts and end users surrounding the creation of a new information system. One of the main causes of user requirements not being successfully integrated into information systems and users leaving the implementation process is poor communication between end users and designers. When there is a significant divide between users and technical experts and when these groups continue to have divergent objectives, systems development initiatives are at a very high risk of failing. Users are often discouraged from the project under these circumstances and leave. Users come to the conclusion that it is preferable to leave the whole project in the hands of the information experts alone since they are unable to understand what the technicians are saying.

Support and dedication from management

It is more probable that users and the technical information services employees would see an information systems project favorably if it has the support and commitment of management at all levels. Both groups will think that their involvement in the development process will be given more significance and attention. For the time and effort, they put into execution, they will get praise and compensation. Additionally, management support guarantees that a systems project will obtain enough cash and resources to be effective. Additionally, managerial support is necessary for all organizational realignments, changes in work habits and processes, and implementation of new systems. A manager's subordinates are more inclined to regard a new system as a priority if they see it as important. Challenges of Change Management in Enterprise Applications, Mergers and Acquisitions, and Business Process Reengineering

It is not surprising to find a very high failure rate among enterprise application and business process reengineering projects given the difficulties of innovation and implementation. These initiatives frequently call for significant organizational change and may necessitate the replacement of outdated technologies and legacy systems that are deeply ingrained in numerous interconnected business processes. According to several research, 70 percent of all business process reengineering efforts fall short of their objectives. Similar to this, even after three years of effort, a significant portion of corporate programs are not completely built or do not match the needs of their customers.

Poor implementation and change management techniques that failed to address workers' worries about change have ruined several enterprise application and reengineering initiatives. Reengineering has faced greater threats than the challenges businesses faced in visualizing and designing ground-breaking changes to business processes, including dealing with fear and anxiety throughout the organization, getting past key managers' resistance, and changing job functions, career paths, and recruitment procedures. All enterprise applications need intense business process transformation and closer cooperation across various functional divisions. The failure rate for projects involving mergers and acquisitions is comparable. The organizational traits of merging organizations and their IT systems have a significant impact on mergers and acquisitions. Combining the information systems of two distinct businesses often necessitates significant organizational transformation and difficult system management tasks. If the integration process is poorly managed, businesses may end up with a jumbled collection of inherited legacy systems that were assembled by combining the systems of one company after another. Without a successful systems integration, the expected merger advantages cannot be achieved, or worse, the combined organization would be unable to efficiently carry out its business activities.

Management of Risk Factors

For certain types of implementation issues, several project managements, requirements collecting, and planning methodologies have been established. Additionally, plans have been made for managing the organizational change process and making sure users take on the proper responsibilities throughout the implementation phase. Not every component of implementation can be readily planned or controlled. However, preparing for probable implementation issues and using the right corrective measures may boost the likelihood that the system will work. Identifying the kind and degree of risk that the project is facing is the first step in managing project risk. Then, implementers may manage each project using the resources and risk-management techniques appropriate to its degree of risk[7]–[10].

Technical Complexity Management

Internal integration solutions are useful for projects that need people to understand difficult or sophisticated technologies. The ability to effectively manage such projects' technological complexity will determine how successful they are. Project managers need to have extensive administrative and technical skills. They must be able to foresee issues and foster effective working relationships within a team that is mostly technical. Team members should have extensive experience, and the team leader should have a solid technical and project management background. There should be regular team meetings. Outside sources should be used to acquire any necessary technical experience or abilities that are not already present inside the company.

Tools for Formal Planning and Control

The effective use of formal planning tools and formal control tools for recording and observing project plans is advantageous for large projects. Gantt charts and PERT charts are the two most used ways to record project plans. The start and end dates of each project activity are listed on a Gantt chart. The Gantt chart graphically depicts the schedule, length, and human resource needs of various activities in a development project. Each job is shown as a horizontal bar with a length that corresponds to the time needed to finish it. Although Gantt charts illustrate the start and finish dates of project activities, they do not highlight task dependencies, how one work is impacted if another is behind schedule, or the proper sequence for tasks. PERT charts are helpful in this situation. PERT, a U.S.-developed approach, stands for Program Evaluation and Review Technique. To oversee the Polaris submarine missile development in the 1950s, the Navy. The visual representation of project tasks and their connections is a PERT chart. The PERT chart displays the particular tasks that make up a project as well as the tasks that must be finished before a particular task may begin.

Increasing User Participation and Dispelling User Resistance

Users must be actively involved at every level of projects with a lack of significant structure and a large number of unclear needs. Users must be inspired to support one of the many potential design choices and to stick with a single design. Tools for external integration provide a means of connecting the implementation team's efforts to users at all organizational levels. Users might take on leadership positions, become active members of the project team, and be in charge of installation and training, for example. The implementation team may show its responsiveness to users by swiftly responding to inquiries, taking user comments into account, and displaying a readiness to assist. This Gantt chart displays the task, person-days, initials of each accountable individual, start and end dates for each task, and other pertinent information. A skilled manager may effectively manage a project with the help of the resource summary, which gives them the total person-days for each month and for each employee working on it. This project is an example of data administration.

User resistance to organizational change may not be resolved by participation in implementation efforts alone. The system may have varied effects on various users. Some users could embrace a new system because it brings about changes, they see as advantageous to them, while others might object because they think the changes are harmful to their interests. Users may decide not to utilize a system if it is optional, but if it is required, resistance will manifest in higher mistake rates, disruptions, turnover, and even sabotage. As a result, the implementation strategy must not only promote user engagement and participation, but also deal with the problem of counter implementation. A intentional plan to obstruct the adoption of a new information system or innovation inside an organization is known as counter implementation. User engagement, user education and training, management directives and policies, as well as greater rewards for cooperative users, are strategies to deal with user resistance. The end-user interface may be enhanced to make the new system more user-friendly. If organizational issues are resolved before deploying the new system, users will be more cooperative. Some of these problems are seen in action during the Interactive Session on Organizations. The enterprise applications of Westinghouse Electric Company were re-implemented as part of a broad systems modernization exercise. Try to identify how Westinghouse handled the risks and difficulties of this project as you read this case.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Information systems must be successfully implemented, and this requires tying systems initiatives to the business strategy. Organizations may optimize economic value, improve competitiveness, and align projects with their strategic goals by achieving this alignment. To address the difficulties involved in coordinating technological endeavors with the changing nature of the business environment, however, continual communication, cooperation, and project management techniques are needed. When accomplished successfully, this alignment may promote development, innovation, and corporate success. Organizations should implement strategies like regular communication and collaboration between IT and business units, continuous monitoring and reevaluation of project priorities, and the establishment of clear metrics and indicators to measure project success and alignment with strategic objectives to achieve the alignment between systems projects and the business plan.

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SLAS AND SLSS: INTERCONNECTED SERVICE LEVEL RELATIONSHIPS

Mr. Vikas Kumar*

*Assistant Professor,
Department Of Computer Science & Engineering,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email id: vikaskumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Service Level Agreements SLAs and Service Level Specifications SLSs are two important concepts that are used to measure and manage the performance of service providers. SLAs define the terms and conditions of service delivery, while SLSs set out the specific technical specifications that service providers must meet to deliver the agreed-upon service levels. This chapter provides an overview of the relationship between SLAs and SLSs, examining how they work together to ensure service quality and performance. The chapter explores the importance of defining clear and measurable service levels, as well as the role of SLSs in ensuring that service providers have the necessary technical capabilities to meet these levels. The chapter also discusses the challenges of managing SLAs and SLSs, including the need for ongoing monitoring and reporting to ensure that service levels are being met. Overall, this chapter highlights the critical relationship between SLAs and SLSs in ensuring that service providers deliver high-quality services that meet the needs of their customers.

KEYWORDS: *Network, Service Level Agreements, Slas, Service Level Specifications, Slss, System, User.*

INTRODUCTION

Service Level Agreements SLAs and Service Level Specifications SLSs are two essential concepts that are used to measure and manage the performance of service providers. In recent years, there has been an increasing focus on the importance of defining clear and measurable service levels, as well as the role of SLSs in ensuring that service providers have the necessary technical capabilities to meet these levels. This chapter reviews the key concepts and challenges associated with SLAs and SLSs, and discusses their critical relationship in ensuring that service providers deliver high-quality services that meet the needs of their customers[1], [2].SLAs are contractual agreements between service providers and their customers that define the terms and conditions of service delivery. These agreements typically include metrics such as uptime, response time, and availability, which are used to measure the performance of the service provider. The goal of SLAs is to ensure that service providers meet the agreed-upon service levels and provide their customers with high-quality services. SLSs, on the other hand, are technical specifications that define the specific technical capabilities that service providers must have to deliver the agreed-upon service levels. These specifications may include details such as hardware and software requirements, network bandwidth, and data storage capacity. SLSs are essential to ensuring that service providers have the necessary technical capabilities to meet their SLAs and deliver high-quality services.

Challenges

Managing SLAs and SLSs can be challenging, as there are many factors that can affect the performance of service providers. One of the most significant challenges is the need for ongoing monitoring and reporting to ensure that service levels are being met. Service providers must have the necessary systems in place to monitor their performance continually and report on any issues that arise. Another challenge is the need for clear and concise SLAs and SLSs that accurately reflect the needs of customers. SLAs and SLSs must be detailed enough to provide a clear picture of the service levels that will be delivered, but not so complex that they become difficult to understand or measure.

Considerations across Domains

The TCS has largely been discussed in terms of a single domain offering services to a client. Customers are often hosts or end users who are located on several networks. Many domains link these networks. hence the service must cover all of these domains. While creating an SLS, it's crucial to take into account the interactions between the services offered in the multiple networks involved, as opposed to the services offered by a single domain. Each border node where the service provider links to another network is where bilateral agreements are anticipated to be negotiated. Two TCSs one for services supplied by Provider A to B and the other for services provided by Provider B to Acapture the technical features of these agreements that pertain to the delivery of differentiated services. The TCSs required by a provider at any border will be determined by the TCSs negotiated at the other barriers, much as the analogous debate on SLAs and dependencies on various interfaces. A number of customers may get services from Provider A that terminate at different boundary points in Provider B's network. The TCS between Providers A and B must reflect the total TCS requirements of all of Provider A's clients.

Provider A must be able to guarantee the support for these services across numerous domains in order to provide end-to-end services to its clients, which raises a number of challenges that must be resolved. A given domain's service could not be compatible with the services offered by nearby domains. While a domain's services may be compatible with those of its neighbouring domains, the PHB utilised to acquire those services may vary. The codepoint used to request the PHB might be different, even if the PHB could be same. Although the PHB and the codepoint are same, the provisioning and billing models vary, which leads to distinct services.To request the services, it is necessary to identify suitable services and negotiate PHB codepoints. By offering a set of universal services utilizing codepoints that are globally acknowledged, this procedure may be significantly streamlined. More standardization in the kind of services offered will be needed when quantitative services are expanded across many areas. On the other hand, a concatenation of service components that may differ from domain to domain may be used to extend qualitative services from beginning to finish. For instance, one domain may utilise priority queuing with RIO for a qualitative service, while another would rely on a Weighted Fair Queueing system with Random Early Discard. It is conceivable to deliver a valuable service end-to-end by concatenating these two kinds of services since the guarantee end-to-end is looser[3]–[5].

A host might have a direct connection to a separate service domain. Legacy hosts are unlikely to shape or regulate their traffic, conduct packet marking into Diff- Serv classes, or undertake traffic shaping. These services may be provided on the client's behalf. After an agreement is reached between the network provider and the client, the rules utilised for marking and shaping must be discussed. Newer hosts could be able to label and shape traffic. The agreements' total resource

restrictions may be rather static in this instance. The host chooses how to distribute these resources across the many traffic flows on its network. To ensure that the host does not use more than its fair share of resources or the volume of traffic in the different classes than was agreed upon in the SLS or TCS, the provider must still setup policers. Large-scale Quality of Service Traffic Engineering for the Internet. The Tequila draft's objective is to identify the fundamental data that must be included in SLS when value-added IP service offers are deployed over the Internet. When such IP service offers are offered with a certain QoS, the QoS should be technically stated in such an SLS. Due to the likelihood that these IP services will be offered throughout the whole Internet, their accompanying Quality of Service QoS will be based on a set of technical criteria that both users and service providers will need to concur upon.

With this viewpoint in mind, this draught seeks to present a collection of fundamental variables that will really make up the core elements of an SLS.These issues are what the Tequila standard project aims to address: Provide a common set of details that may be negotiated between a client and a service provider or between service providers when processing an SLS. Give the relevant semantics of such information so that it may be processed and modelled by the aforementioned parties in an acceptable manner. To impose an inter-domain QoS policy, it is important to take into account the definition of an SLS template that these service providers would agree upon.A highly developed degree of automation and dynamic SLS negotiation between clients and suppliers must be possible. Providing clients with the technological capability for the dynamic provision of services via automation and dynamics is beneficial. Reduction in QoS. The SLS work in Tequila is focused on an IP network made up of DiffServ-aware network components that can implement PHBs like Guaranteed Forwarding and Expecting Forwarding.

Tequila SLS Template

The scope describes the area in which the QoS policy will be applied. The territory's boundaries serve as a guide to its topological and geographical region. Traffic flows in just one direction are connected to an SLS. The IP packets' entrance and departure locations are indicated by a few ingress and egress interfaces. The entry and exit points might be:

1. One-to-one.

2. One-to-many.

3. One-to-any.

4. Many-to-one.

5. Any-to-one.

Although many-to-many is not included in the list, it may be divided into several one-to-many combinations. The flow description identifies the IP packets for which the QoS assurances are to be applied. A stream of IP datagrams with at least one common characteristic are identified by a flow description. One flow description is included in an SLS, and it may be explicitly specified by supplying one or more of the following attributes:

1. Information on Differentiated Services = DSCP.

2. Source address equals source information.

3. Destination address is the destination information.

4. Application data includes the protocol ID, source port, and destination port.

The information required for packet classification at a DS boundary node is provided by the flow description. Whereas MF classification just needs the DSCP code point, BA classification also requires the additional information. It describes the traffic characteristics of the IP packet stream described by the flow description, including the traffic envelope and traffic compliance. An IP packet stream's in-profile and out-of-profile packets are distinguished by a binary traffic conformance. The ability to tag packets when they hit certain threshold values is provided by multi-level traffic performance.

Traffic Compliance Criteria

1. Maximum rate.

2. Bucket rate for tokens.

3. Depth of the bucket

4. Max. transportable unit.

5. The smallest package size.

Excess treatment explains how the service provider will handle extra traffic, often known as out-of-profile traffic or n-level traffic. It is possible to drop, shape, and/or notice excessive traffic.All packets identified by the Traffic Conformance Algorithm as out-of-profile are discarded if there is excessive traffic. No other criteria are required.Any packets identified by the Traffic Conformance Algorithm as out-of-profile are delayed until they are in-profile if there is surplus traffic that is shaped. The policing/token bucket rate is the shaping rate. The shaper's buffer size is the additional parameter.

DISCUSSION

All packets designated by the Traffic Conformance Algorithm as out-of-profile are tagged with a specific DSCP-value if excess traffic is detected or noted. The DSCP serves as the additional parameter. The right course of action must be specified by the SLS. Otherwise, the extra traffic is discarded. The following provides some further information on these factors. In the event of binary performance testing, the assurances for delay, jitter, and packet loss apply to in-profile traffic. Delay, jitter, and loss assurances may be stated for each conformance level, with the exception of the final one, in the presence of multi-level performance testing. With three levels, one may, for instance, have a different latency guarantee for conformance level-2 packets than conformance level-1 packets. There are no assurances about excessive traffic. Independent of a specific level, the throughput is a general guarantee for the IP packet stream[6]–[8].

When measured during a time period with a length equal to the time interval, the delay and jitter represent, respectively, the maximum packet transfer delay and packet transfer delay variation from ingress to egress. Delay and jitter may be set as quantiles or worst-case boundaries. The worst-case delay/jitter boundaries will, in fact, be very infrequent occurrences, and consumers may find measures of, for instance, the 99.5th percentile to be a more pertinent empirical gauge of delay/jitter. The ratio of provided packets at entrance to lost packets between ingress and egress called the packet loss probability. The ratio is calculated over a period of time that is equal in length to the time interval. The pace at which all packets specified by the flow description are counted is the throughput. Take note that every packet contributes, regardless of compliance level. In fact, if the client wants a throughput guarantee they are only concerned with the total throughput of the packet stream and do not care whether packets are lost in- or out-of-profile.

Performance guarantees that can be quantified - A performance parameter is considered to be quantified if its value can be given as a number. If at least one of the four performance indicators can be measured, the service guarantee outlined in the SLS is considered to be quantitative. Delay and packet loss may be qualifying performance parameters if none of the SLS performance metrics are quantified. High, medium, and low qualitative qualities are all possible. The implementation of dynamic SLS negotiation processes between consumers and providers or between providers is a key objective of the availability of an SLS template. The SLS template and its essential components are mostly covered in the Tequila draught. The SLS negotiation protocol is still under investigation, however there are a few requirements that it should include anyway. First service requests in accordance with the SLS's stated components, a service acknowledgment expressing acceptance of the desired service level, Service rejection with a note that another, similarly comparable service may be offered in its place.

The reply message may overwrite the suggested SLS properties to reflect the linked offering, Rejection of a service signifying inability to provide the service, For such a negotiation protocol, a dependable transport mode is necessary for the ACK/NACK operations, User and provider changes to the service. Employing an adaptive resource control system called Aquila. IP-based Layered Architecture the IST Aquila collaboration seeks to provide a formalised standard for SLS representation between the client and the network. This illustration should be very broad and capable of conveying any service offerings that might be built on the DiffServ architecture. The Aquila collaboration also recognised the need for a mechanism to streamline the SLS's general description. Predefined SLS type definitions resulted from this. There are similarities between the Aquila and Tequila methodologies, and the Aquila draught and Tequila draught are linked. The primary distinction is the introduction of specific SLS kinds by the Aquila consortium, which are based on the general SLS description.

You may utilise these preset SLS kinds to make the interaction simpler. A predetermined SLS type serves a variety of applications from the point of view of the applications since these applications have similar communication behaviour and therefore comparable QoS needs, such as for latency, packet loss, etc. From the perspective of an operator, it makes network administration simpler and enables effective traffic aggregation. The user needs in a DiffServ network should be mapped into internal QoS mechanisms using SLS parameters. If the user is allowed to freely choose and mix the parameters, the mapping procedure between the general SLS and the specific QoS methods may become highly complex. There will inevitably be a small number of service classes addressed at the heart of a DiffServ network.Aquila's SLS type makes a distinction between customised and preset SLS types. In the case of a customised SLS, all the parameters may be supplied, but a preset SLS simply requires the specification of a portion of the parameters. The SLS kinds that are predefined in Aquila are:

1. Premium CBR PCBR.

2. PVBR stands for Premium VBR.

3. Premium Multimedia or PMM.

4. Premium Mission Critical or PMC.

Performance guarantee features that are both quantitative and qualitative are anticipated. The quantitative numbers may be presented as percentiles, mean values, or maximum values. To communicate relative guarantees between several classes, one may utilise the qualitative qualities.

The difference between the one-way delay of a flow and its fluctuation is known as the jitter. It is important to explain the specifics of the measuring process used to assess statistics parameters like percentiles or mean values.

Forum for Tele Management

As previously indicated, an agreement's content may vary based on the interface to which it applies. In other words, a contract between two service providers would be different from one between a user and a service provider. Telecom Management Forum provided business models and associated procedures that may be utilised to determine the possible content of the various SLA kinds when thinking about an SP-SP agreement. Running initiatives that address QoS-related issues is nothing new for EURESCOM. For dealing with QoS/NP in a multi-provider context and SLA, a standard QoS framework was created. A nomenclature was established to unify the knowledge of the many teams of experts involved in the QoS-related activity. Also, the idea of one-stop responsibility was introduced, and the VoIP service case serves as an example of how the framework might be used. These general principles were taken into consideration while developing some of the content in this publication. You may read more about their findings here.

The P906-GI project managed various classes given to various application categories by measuring and controlling them. The SLA is seen as a technique for resolving obligations and achieving QoS.The whole network of the service provider. Just the billing of the retail/wholesale services is dealt with when there are several provisions. A user is presented with the idea of a service offer specification and is provided with: Level of network parameters expressing jitter, loss, and delay, Probability is guaranteed by NPLs, Traffic pattern, Charge/price. The supplier determines the parameter values and their significance by connecting application categories and quality categories. You may find more information about the QUASI-model, where the mapping is provided, and how SOS is presented in depth, here. As was previously said, a SLA's service description outlines the kind of service the customer might anticipate receiving from the supplier. Each service should be represented in a SLA and SLS that are associated to it.

In each SLA, the technical components of the service offered are stated in the QoS-related and service description sections. There is not a straightforward one-to-one translation between the SLA associated to a service and the matching SLS related to the QoS mechanisms. This is a difficulty when developing SLAs since it calls for choosing and implementing QoS techniques to be utilised in the network and considering potential connections and combinations to guarantee that the service is delivered in accordance with the contract. In addition to choosing QoS parameters, QoS mechanisms must be correctly adjusted to ensure that resources are utilised effectively while providing services. When many service providers are engaged in the provision of the service, the task becomes more complicated. The major provider is therefore forced to depend on the service/QoS offered by a network that they do not control. Another issue comes when a service provider offers many services over the same network, as is often the case with IP-based network services like VoIP and Video on Demand. The SLA and SLS may then be connected in a variety of ways, some of which are listed and explained below:

One-to-One: Each service has a unique SLA with a description of QoS at the application/service level as well as the network level. For example, the needed QoS parameter values at the application/service level as well as the required QoS parameter values at the IP level are both included.

Many-to-One: Each service has its own SLA, which includes information on the QoS requirements for the specific application or service. One common QoS description for the service offered at the network level, i.e., the IP level, is shared by a collection of services that are given, according to their respective SLAs. The applications and services each have their own unique QoS descriptors. Yet, at the network level, the services are mirrored in a single QoS description, i.e. IP degree.

All-in-One: In this scenario, the SLA applies to the bundled service, meaning that all of the user's services and their quality are covered in a single document. This may be the situation if one provider oversees all networks used for the service delivery and is in charge of all services being provided.

Relationship of SLA and SLS as a pair

Imagine that there are three services A, B, and Ceach with its own SLA. All of the service components that are covered by an SLS are described in each of these SLAs' QoS sections. The service and relevant QoS parameters are fully described in this SLS for each service component. For the IP flows carrying the traffic produced by the application/service and the QoS parameters connected to the application/service level, SLS must contain both QoS parameters and values. The SLAs in this instance are distinct from one another as seen in an illustration of a service delivery with associated contracts. The user receives a VoIP service from the service provider. In this instance, the IP connection utilised to supply the VoIP service is the SP's responsibility. The SLA, which addresses both commercial and technical elements of VoIP service delivery and use, has been established by the user and the SP. As a result, the SP must manage IP connection and provide information about QoS-related issues in the user-SP SLA. The QoS definition in this SLA includes the rele- vant criteria for both IP network connection and VoIP level. In this scenario, a single provider controls the process of creating agreements and has an overview/control of mapping service parameters and QoS parameters, but it is still not a critical issue. User NP and NP- SP should exist in order to fulfil SLA User-SP.

SLA and SLS Have a Many-to-One Connection

In the event of a many-to-one relationship, the SLA specifies the service, together with all QoS parameters required to characterise the service to be provided at the service level, i.e. service A with QoS guarantee QoSa at the service level. Three SLSs for QoS definition of application service levels are the outcome. Yet, a user may get many services while still utilising the same IP network and access. Hence, a common SLS describing the common component, i.e. The QoS description for IP connection is part of a separate SLS for the whole set of services. The decision on the performance required from a shared IP service should take various SLAs, QoS descriptors, and traffic patterns into account in order to ensure the services and QoS indicated in distinct SLAs. The resultant QoS parameters, QoSIPtot, may be discovered by adding these for the whole set of services to be supplied utilising the same IP network service. Given in a separate SLS for the IP service, QoSIPtot should be provided as it relates to the IP level.

Imagine a scenario where SP B provides the user with service B but neglects to manage the IP connection required for the delivery of VoIP service. The SLA and the QoSb description are agreed upon by the user and SP B. User A also consents to SP A providing the service in accordance with the SLA and QoSa at the same time. The user also enters into a SLA with the Provider for IP connection. This service will be utilised to offer services A and B, i.e., generally,

several services will be directed towards the same user while sharing the same resources. Under this circumstance, it is extremely difficult for the NO to keep track of service delivery, ensure SLA compliance, and report to each SP on the effectiveness of their specific services. If the SPs provide SLAs with NO for IP services supplied to the user, the issues are somewhat overcome, but even then, the situation is not straightforward.

Connection between SLA and SLS in One Dimension

The SLA in this instance covers all IP-based services offered via the same IP service. The QoS parameters that are required at the application/service level for all IP-based services are fully described. The QoS parameters and values of the IP basic service may be categorised under one or more QoS descriptions depending on their traffic profile and QoS parameters. Since one SLA encompasses all service descriptions, one SLS contains QoS descriptions for each service, and one SLS also includes a QoS description of the common IP service QoSIPtot. It should be noted that QoSIPtot incorporates the specifications and parameters from all QoS demands and descriptions provided in QoSa, QoSb, and QoSc. This kind of SLA is crucial when a supplier offers packaged services, which often combine many services into a single common service delivery. In the event of monopolistic operators who are in charge of the whole service package or all services provided to the users, all-in-one relationships are often prevalent. The user would then have a contract with a single provider who would be in charge of delivering any additional services provided by providers other than the main provider that make use of the connection service.

The situation in which a NO serves as the user's principal provider and must take care of and reach agreements on SLAs with all other providers who help offer the service to their consumers. The all-in-one connection is often already established in such a scenario. Despite the fact that many research projects attempt to address the issue of supporting future QoS-aware IP services by introducing the notion of SLAs, the actual implementation is not entirely obvious. Current SLAs for IP-based services, where the parameters are precisely specified, objectively observable with the appropriate precision, and where the values are set to theoretical estimates, do not include hard QoS assurances. The technology is evidently not developed enough to get full support at this time, which is the apparent cause. While information is being increased via research and testing various methods, real-world implementation is what makes SLAs soft. In other words, current SLAs are limited to what is technically feasible to sustain. This fact does not, however, imply that the SLA's future is not highly promising.

The SLAs have the potential to provide even hard QoS guarantees as technology develops. Differentiated services may be provided, as well as QoS assurances, with greater expertise and selection of the most important and effective techniques. This suggests that sharper values would be included in the SLAs' content. The choice of QoS parameters specifies the performance of communications between any two sites within a network, as shown in the examples of current SLAs presented in Chapter 4. As a cloud-based system is the most straightforward to define and maintain, it is often how SLAs are implemented and handled. Stricter QoS guarantees will be possible after implementing the additional features/functionality in the IP-based network, and the SLAs will be of the tunnel/funnel kinds. A single packet, flow, session, monthly subscription, 10-year agreement, etc. might all fall within the granularity category. No forecast can be guaranteed, and there are obviously still a lot of questions about how to use and use the systems that enable the QoS design. Yet, it is shown in many studies that it is preferable for a provider that wants to

establish/maintain a brand identity and draw in/preserve the loyalty of consumers to offer certain assurances and feedback to the customers rather than rely on best effort services. SLAs thus have a bright future, both in single- and multi-provider scenarios, even if there are still a lot of unresolved problems that need further research. The SLA is still required to formalize customer behaviour and the consequent expectations connected to QoS even when a single supplier provides services within just one administrative domain that he owns or controls[9]–[11].

CONCLUSION

SLAs and SLSs are critical components of service management systems, providing a framework for measuring and managing the performance of service providers. By defining clear and measurable service levels, and ensuring that service providers have the necessary technical capabilities to meet these levels, SLAs and SLSs play a critical role in ensuring that customers receive high-quality services. However, managing SLAs and SLSs can be challenging, and requires ongoing monitoring and reporting to ensure that service levels are being met. As such, it is essential for service providers to have the necessary systems and processes in place to manage SLAs and SLSs effectively.

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RECENT ADVANCES IN INTERNET TRAFFIC ENGINEERING TECHNIQUES

Mrs. Renukaradhya Sapna*

*Assistant Professor,
Department Of Computer Science & Engineering,
Presidency University, Bangalore, INDIA
Email Id: sapnar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT

This review chapter discusses recent advances in Internet traffic engineering TE techniques that have emerged over the past few years. The increasing demand for bandwidth-hungry applications and the diversity of traffic types have driven the evolution of TE techniques. Software-defined networking SDN, machine learning ML, and TE techniques for 5G networks are some of the recent advances in TE that have been highlighted. SDN allows network operators to dynamically control network traffic flows by programming the network devices directly, resulting in more efficient and flexible traffic management.

KEYWORDS: *Internet, Internet Traffic Engineering, Network, Machine Learning, Operator.*

INTRODUCTION

Internet traffic engineering TE refers to the methods and techniques that network operators use to control and optimize the flow of traffic on the Internet. The aim of TE is to maximize network performance while minimizing congestion and delay, as well as to balance network resources and ensure reliability. Recent years have witnessed a significant evolution in TE techniques, driven by the increasing demand for bandwidth-hungry applications and the diversity of traffic types. In this review chapter, we will discuss some of the recent advances in TE techniques that have emerged over the past few years[1]–[3].One of the most significant developments in TE is the emergence of software-defined networking SDN, which separates the control plane from the data plane in network devices. SDN allows network operators to dynamically control network traffic flows by programming the network devices directly. This results in more efficient and flexible traffic management and better resource utilization. SDN-based TE techniques, such as Traffic Engineering with OpenFlow TE-OF, have been shown to improve network performance significantly.

Machine Learning (ML)

Another recent trend in TE is the use of machine learning ML techniques to predict network traffic patterns and optimize network resources accordingly. ML algorithms, such as supervised learning and reinforcement learning, can learn from historical network data and adapt to changing network conditions. For example, ML can be used to predict the future traffic demand and allocate network resources accordingly, resulting in improved network performance and reduced congestion.

Traffic Engineering for 5G

The emergence of 5G networks has also led to new TE techniques that are specifically designed for this new network technology. One of the most significant challenges of 5G is the need to

support a wide range of applications with different quality-of-service QoS requirements. 5G TE techniques, such as Network Slicing and Edge Computing, aim to address this challenge by creating virtual networks that can be optimized for specific application requirements. Network Slicing allows network operators to create multiple virtual networks on top of a single physical network, while Edge Computing enables processing and storage of data closer to the end-users, resulting in lower latency and faster response times.ML algorithms can learn from historical network data and adapt to changing network conditions, resulting in improved network performance and reduced congestion.

5G TE techniques, such as Network Slicing and Edge Computing, aim to address the challenge of supporting a wide range of applications with different quality-of-service QoS requirements. Overall, these recent advances in TE have the potential to significantly improve network performance and provide better resource utilization, but there are still many challenges and open research problems that need to be addressed. Internet traffic engineering TE techniques are used by network operators to optimize and control the flow of traffic on the Internet. These techniques aim to improve network performance, reduce congestion and delay, and ensure reliability. Over the years, various TE techniques have been developed, and this review chapter will explore some of the most prominent and recent advances in TE techniques.

Quality of Service QoS

One of the traditional TE techniques is Quality of Service QoS, which involves assigning priority levels to network traffic based on its importance. QoS enables network operators to guarantee certain levels of service to critical applications, such as voice and video, while reducing the service levels for less critical applications. This can help to reduce congestion and delay and ensure reliable service for critical applications.

Traffic Engineering with Multiprotocol Label Switching MPLS

MPLS is a technique that is widely used for traffic engineering in modern networks. It involves labeling network packets and forwarding them along pre-configured paths based on the labels. MPLS enables network operators to dynamically reroute traffic flows in real-time, resulting in more efficient network resource utilization and improved performance.

Traffic Engineering with Segment Routing SR

Segment Routing SR is a newer TE technique that uses a similar approach to MPLS, but with fewer labels and a simplified architecture. SR enables network operators to programmatically steer traffic along specific paths based on pre-defined policies. This can help to reduce the complexity of network management and increase network flexibility.

Telemetry and Network Analytics

Telemetry and network analytics are becoming increasingly popular for network operators as they allow for the monitoring and analysis of network performance in real-time. Telemetry involves collecting data from network devices and forwarding it to a central system for analysis. Network analytics tools use this data to detect network anomalies and predict future traffic patterns, enabling network operators to proactively adjust network traffic flows and prevent congestion.

DISCUSSION

The most prominent and recent advances in Internet traffic engineering techniques. QoS, MPLS,

SR, and telemetry and network analytics are some of the techniques that have been highlighted. These techniques aim to improve network performance, reduce congestion and delay, and ensure reliability. However, there are still many challenges and open research problems in TE that need to be addressed, such as scalability and robustness. Future research should focus on developing more efficient and adaptive TE techniques that can keep up with the ever-changing demands of the Internet[4], [5].The job of quantitative provisioning is not simple. The resources needed at each inner node to transport the quantitative traffic given at the edges may be calculated using knowledge of the network routing architecture and the TCSs at the borders. Interior nodes must be designed with enough capacity to handle the quantitative traffic that will come to the node and also leave enough capacity to handle some qualitative traffic, according to the results of these computations. It may be useful to set the policers to ensure that the resources actually spent by the higher priority quantitative traffic do not exceed the expectations, in addition to installing and configuring the required capacity at each interface.

The provision of qualitative traffic is more challenging and requires parameters to be estimated based on heuristics, experience, and preferably real-time measurements because it cannot be assumed that the traffic receiving qualitative services will follow specific routes with the same predictability as the traffic receiving quantitative services. It goes without saying that network traffic analysis is crucial to achieving effective information security since e-commerce, banking, and business-related information that is extremely secret and valuable is transferred across networks. Instead of taking a reactive strategy, network monitoring and traffic analysis and prediction resemble a proactive approach where security breaches are prevented from happening inside the network. Network traffic analysis is a crucial step in creating effective preemptive congestion management methods and identifying legitimate and malicious packets. These strategies aim to prevent network congestion by allocating network resources in accordance with the anticipated traffic. In several domains, including dynamic bandwidth allocation, network security, network planning, and predictive congestion management, the predictability of network traffic has significant advantages. Long-term forecasts and short-term predictions may be divided into two groups.

Long-term traffic forecasting allows for more precise planning and wiser choices since it provides a complete forecast of traffic models to assess future capacity needs. Dynamic resource allocation and short period prediction milliseconds to minutes are related. It may be used to enhance Quality of Service QoS mechanisms, reduce congestion, and manage resources in the best way possible. It may also be used to packet routing. For network traffic analysis and prediction, a variety of methods are utilised, such as time series models, contemporary data mining tools, soft computing methods, and neural networks. The strategies for network traffic analysis and prediction that have been suggested, employed, and practised are reviewed in this study. The uniqueness and limitations of earlier studies are reviewed, and the usual characteristics of network traffic analysis and prediction are also enumerated. The remainder of the document is structured as follows. A brief introduction to network traffic analysis is followed by a thorough overview of a number of different network analysis methods in part two. The third section examines several methods for predicting network traffic. We provide our findings in the last part. Analysis of network traffic.

In the modern day, network traffic analysis has become more and more crucial and significant for observing the network traffic. Administrators used to just keep an eye on a few hundred machines or a limited number of network devices. The network bandwidth may have been only a little bit

less than 100 Mbps. At the moment, network managers must cope with wireless networks, ATM Asynchronous Transfer Mode networks, and wired networks with speeds more than 1Gbps Gigabits per second. In order to monitor the network, swiftly resolve network issues to prevent network failure, and control network security, they need extra current network traffic analysis tools. As a result, there are now a variety of difficulties with network traffic analysis. For security management, a network is examined at many levels, including the packet, flow, and network levels. For network traffic analysis, researchers use a variety of methods. Preprocessing is followed by real analysis and observation to uncover patterns from the network data in a general framework for network traffic analysis[6]–[8].

Internet Connectivity's Varied Aspects

The study of the different connection structures that the Internet's layered architecture makes possible is the focus of internet topology research. These structures include the routers, switches, and fibre cables that make up the Internet's physical infrastructure in addition to a wide range of more logical topologies that can be defined and studied at the higher layers of the TCP/IP protocol stack, such as the IP-level graph, AS-level network, Web-graph, P2P networks, and online social networks, or OSNs. Researcher representations of the network's connection date back to the ARPANET . The oldest were created in 1969. Because every piece of equipment was costly, installation was a laborious process, and only a small number of people worked on the network back then, the complete network could be shown accurately on the back of an envelope.The network became more intricate as it expanded, to the point that no one individual could create a map of it. At that period, automated topological measurement techniques emerged. The early research on Internet topology were conducted during the NSFNET era and were primarily concerned with the network's physical architecture, which included routers, switches, and the physical connections that connected them. As a result of the decommissioning of the NSFNET in 1995, the Internet underwent a transformation from a largely monolithic network structure i.e., the NSFNET to a genuinely diverse network of networks.

Also known as Autonomous Systems ASes, these individual networks combine to form what we now refer to as the public Internet, and are owned by a diverse range of organisations and businesses, including large and small Internet service providers ISPs, transit. The Internet's AS-graph, or the logical Internet topology where nodes represent individual ASes and edges reflect observed relationships among the ASes e.g., customer-provider, peer-peer, or sibling-sibling relationship, has gained increasing interest from the research community as a result of this transition. It's vital to remember that the AS-graph doesn't reveal anything about how two ASes physically link to one another, including whether or not they really exchange traffic. However, since soon after 1995, this interest in the AS-graph has given rise to hundreds of research chapters covering a wide variety of topics connected to measuring, simulating, and analyzing the AS-level topology of the Internet and its historical development .At the application layer, the World Wide Web's WWW rise as a dominant application in the late 1990s sparked interest in studying the Web-graph, where nodes stand in for web pages and edges for hyperlinks. A typical Web-graph has billions of nodes and even more edges and is highly dynamic. a large ISP's router-level topology consists of some thousands of routers, and today's AS-level Internet is made up of about 30. However, this overlay network or logical connectivity structure says nothing about how the servers hosting the web pages are connected at the physical or AS level.

Email and different P2P systems including Gnutella, Kad, eDonkey, and BitTorrent have drawn

some interest from academics as other applications that generate their own overlay or logical connectedness structure. A remarkable amount of research chapters have been published in recent years as a consequence of the tremendous popularity of online social networks OSNs, covering all areas of measuring, modelling, analysing, and developing OSNs. Many real-world OSNs or OSN-type systems have been examined using data from large-scale crawls or, in rare cases, OSN-provided data. These snapshots are typically simple graphs with nodes representing individual users and edges denoting some implicit or explicit friendship relationship among the users. Although by no means exhaustive, the aforementioned list of potential connection patterns seen in the modern Internet shows how various structures develop spontaneously within the layered architecture of the Internet. It also draws attention to the several interpretations of the word Internet topology, whose reasonable use necessitates specific citation of the particular aspect of Internet connection under consideration. The list also represents the many reasons why various scholars choose to investigate networks or graphs connected to the Internet. Engineers, for instance, are primarily focused on the technical elements of Internet connection, where technological concerns often take precedence over economic and societal considerations[9]–[11].

The AS-level structure of the Internet, where commercial concerns and market pressures mingle with technology innovation and social issues to form the very structure and growth of this logical topology, is of special interest to the more economically oriented scholars. Moreover, social scientists see novel and exciting opportunities for studying various facets of human behaviour and technology-enabled interpersonal communication at previously unheard-of scale in the application-level connectivity structures that result from large-scale crawls of the various OSNs.The many innovative features and properties of the various connection architectures are another reason why mathematicians are interested in them, since these characteristics often call for fresh modelling and analytic techniques. Many computer scientists believe that the difficulties faced by many of these complex connection patterns are algorithmic in origin and result from attempting to solve certain issues with a given topological structure. Another reason is that many physicists who have transitioned to the field of network science view the Internet as one of many large-scale complex network examples that still lacks universal properties that advance our understanding of these complex networks regardless of the domain in which they were originally developed[12]–[14].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, recent years have witnessed a significant evolution in TE techniques, driven by the increasing demand for bandwidth-hungry applications and the diversity of traffic types. SDN, ML, and 5G TE techniques are some of the recent advances in TE that have emerged over the past few years. These techniques have the potential to significantly improve network performance and provide better resource utilization, resulting in reduced congestion and delay. However, there are still many challenges and open research problems in TE that need to be addressed, such as the scalability and robustness of these techniques. Future research should focus on developing more efficient and adaptive TE techniques that can keep up with the ever-changing demands of the Internet.

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Poongothai Selvarajan
Lecturer
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Vavuniya Campus of the University of Jaffna,
Vavuniya, SRI LANKA

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