INTRODUCTION TO MANAGEMENT TECHNOLOGY

Dr. Preetha Chandran Anand Joshi

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CHAPTER 1

AN INTRODUCTION OF MANAGEMENT AND ITS IMPORTANCE

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ABSTRACT:

Management is how businesses organize and direct workflow, operations, and employees to meet company goals. The primary goal of management is to create an environment that lets employees work efficiently and productively. Management involves planning, organizing, staffing and directing a group of people to accomplish some task. To be an effective leader, you must understand how to manage your workforce.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Education, Management, Policies and Practices, Workplace, Leadership.

INTRODUCTION

Management, in its broadest sense, is the act of organizing and directing a set of resources to accomplish clearly-defined goals and objectives. Management includes planning, organizing, directing, monitoring, and evaluating the activities of an organization in accordance with certain policies. Of course, all activities of an organization take place in a specific context. When the "best" choices are not possible in a given context, due to political, bureaucratic, or financial constraints, management is very often about improvisation or choosing the "second-best" option. Management can be seen as a science, because it deals with knowledge, models, and tools, and as an art, because it concerns style, practice, and application. It has been said that management is the art of common sense. Yet as straightforward as some of the ideas in this handbook may seem, most managers have a hard time implementing them consistently.

At the end of the day, management is about human beings. The purpose of management is to make people capable of joint performance, to make their strengths effective and their weaknesses irrelevant. Misconceptions about management abound, and these can often lead to frustration or disillusionment. First, knowing how to manage does not come with the job. Being a good manager is something different from being a good political affairs officer or a good gender adviser. It entails a distinct skill set that must be learned, through experience and training, and practiced repeatedly. Management skills require a greater focus on processes, results, and the people around you. These skills include leadership, team building, financial acumen, accountability, and sharing responsibility for the performance of others. Second, being a manager does not necessarily mean having more power or freedom to act. Managers often have increased formal authority, access, and status, which may not necessarily equate to power or influence especially within organizations such as the United Nations. To act, managers must often rely on the cooperation or agreement of others within and outside of the organization. Some can become frustrated when they find they lack control over the actions of others or over outcomes. These limitations, of course, are no surprise to anyone familiar with the workings of a large bureaucracy. But it is precisely within these constraints that good managers make their presence felt[1].

Importance of Management

The UN field mission is a complex beast. From the smallest political mission to the largest peacekeeping operation, it employs a uniquely diverse staff and performs a broad array of tasks in an environment that is sometimes dangerous, often unstable, and always challenging. Resources are scarce and inflexible. Internal regulations and procedures are cumbersome, and, at times, can impede rather than facilitate success. On top of it all, success is often hard to measure or even recognize. Unlike the private sector, success in the field does not come from increased quarterly profits, but rather from a conflict prevented, the perception of a peace dividend, or the renewed optimism of a host population. Unfortunately, UN staff can only contribute to these goals, as so many factors are beyond the mission's control. In such an unforgiving environment, management might seem a peripheral consideration to some. Yet, the opposite, in fact, should be the case. Precisely because political, bureaucratic, and resource constraints characterize field missions, good management can sometimes mean the difference between success and failure. Sound management is essential to achieving the goals of any organization, regardless of the context, and UN field missions are no exception. Its complexity and uniqueness should not be excuses for bad management or poor results. In fact, if managed well, environmental complexity can increase the resilience of an organization and enhance its ability to adapt, learn, and thrive in changing contexts[2].

i. It helps in Achieving Group Goals

It arranges the factors of production, assembles and organizes the resources, integrates the resources in effective manner to achieve goals. It directs group efforts towards achievement of pre-determined goals. By defining objective of organization clearly there would be no wastage of time, money and effort. Management converts disorganized resources of men, machines, money etc. into useful enterprise. These resources are coordinated, directed and controlled in such a manner that enterprise work towards attainment of goals.

ii. Optimum Utilization of Resources

Management utilizes all the physical & human resources productively. This leads to efficacy in management. Management provides maximum utilization of scarce resources by selecting its best possible alternate use in industry from out of various uses. It makes use of experts, professional and these services leads to use of their skills, knowledge, and proper utilization and avoids wastage. If employees and machines are producing its maximum there is no under employment of any resources.

iii. Reduces Costs

It gets maximum results through minimum input by proper planning and by using minimum input & getting maximum output. Management uses physical, human and financial resources in such a manner which results in best combination. This helps in cost reduction.

iv. Establishes Sound Organization

No overlapping of efforts (smooth and coordinated functions). To establish sound organizational structure is one of the objective of management which is in tune with objective of organization and for fulfillment of this, it establishes effective authority & responsibility relationship i.e. [3]who is accountable to whom, who can give instructions to whom, who are superiors & who

are subordinates. Management fills up various positions with right persons, having right skills, training and qualification. All jobs should be cleared to everyone.

v. Establishes Equilibrium

It enables the organization to survive in changing environment. It keeps in touch with the changing environment. With the change is external environment, the initial co-ordination of organization must be changed. So it adapts organization to changing demand of market/changing needs of societies. It is responsible for growth and survival of organization.

vi. Essentials for Prosperity of Society

Efficient management leads to better economical production which helps in turn to increase the welfare of people. Good management makes a difficult task easier by avoiding wastage of scarce resource. It improves standard of living. It increases the profit which is beneficial to business and society will get maximum output at minimum cost by creating employment opportunities which generate income in hands. Organization comes with new products and researches beneficial for society.

Organizational Forms and Processes

In theory, three fundamental organizational forms can be distinguished: hierarchies, networks, and markets. In hierarchies, coordination takes place horizontally, between functional tasks, and vertically, through command and control frameworks. Which is display in Figure 1. Networks, on the other hand, consist of multiple organizations that are loosely tied together, with coordination resulting from repeated interactions rather than formal arrangements. In markets the main coordination mechanism is supply and demand.



Figure 1: Represented that the Organizational Chart for UN Field Missions.

UN field missions are a mixture of hierarchical and network forms of organization. The hierarchy of a peace operation extends vertically from the headquarters (HQ) down to the field level. The HQ level is characterized by intergovernmental elements, the Security Council, the Committees of the General Assembly, bureaucratic elements, parts of the Secretary-General's Executive Office, DPKO, DPA, DFS, the Peacebuilding Support Office (PBSO), and the UN regional hubs such as the Logistics Base in Italy [4].

At the field level, this hierarchy is extended from the top to the bottom of a peace operation or political mission. It is important for managers to be aware of this hierarchical line of authority it is impossible to carry out tasks unaffected by the opportunities and constraints imposed by interlinkages of the international, regional, and local level of the UN bureaucracy. Indeed, managing in peace operations is never an apolitical task. Frequent exchanges of information and coordination with headquarters, as well as an awareness of the political processes involving member states there in the Security Council, the General Assembly's Fifth Committee, the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations, etc., are essential[5].

In addition to the formal hierarchy within the UN mission bureaucracy, there is a coexisting network-like structure of political, humanitarian, and development actors that all have their own bureaucratic structures and lines of authority. Under these circumstances, aligning everyone's activities toward a similar purpose and delivering coherently requires different managerial attention and skills than in a hierarchical setting. Organizing can be divided into two basic processes, specialization and coordination. Both are dependent on the organizational form within which organizing is supposed to take place. An organizational form constrains the set of available managerial responses. For example, in hierarchical settings, coordination is formal and deliberate, linking policymaking at the top of the organization with operations at the bottom. Organizational charts, explicit assignment of authority and responsibility, and specification of procedures and sanction mechanisms are essential. By contrast, network-like structures involve rather ad hoc, emergent, and collaboration-based modes of coordination, such as creating and nurturing social networks and dialogue, as well as leaving ample room for deliberation, trial and error, and ad hoc responses[6].

Specialization Specialization refers to the breaking down of a process into subprocesses and the assignment of staff and resources accordingly. The need for specialization within the UN has led to the creation of many specialized UN agencies (funds and programs such as UNDP, UNFPA, UNHCR, WFP, etc.) that operate alongside UN missions in the field. As mentioned above, these other organizations adhere to their own principles and priorities, and each have their own hierarchical management structures and intergovernmental oversight bodies. New entities have also recently been created within the UN Secretariat in New York: in 2005, the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC) and the Peacebuilding Support Office (PBSO), and in 2007, the Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions (OROLSI), and the Department of Field Support (DFS). While these institutional reforms responded to many real organizational needs, they have also led to the compartmentalization and sometimes fragmentation of UN responses that become overly supply-driven (i.e., more focused on what the UN can provide than what is actually needed)[7], [8].

Coordination

Co-ordination is understood as the re-connection of the various sub process outcomes. While the above-mentioned UN agencies and departments are specialized, they are also linked together by

the bond of the United Nations Charter and increasingly by a web of integrative interinstitutional links, interagency bodies, working groups, and other loose coordination structures such as ad hoc task forces, etc. Also, a number of joint planning documents are used (see Planning chapter), such as "joint programs" between the UN mission and country team, Integrated Strategic Frameworks (ISFs), UNDAFs, and Integrated Peacebuilding Frameworks. Some of these are internal to the UN system and others, involving national authorities, can also facilitate coordination. Coordination with non-UN, outside actors is also essential for the overall success of the mission (and the term "coordination" is generally used in that sense rather than for internal UN coordination), and is often part of the UN mission's mandate, sometimes but not always in support of national authorities.

It is, however, often the case that in spite of most people recognizing the need for some level of coordination of international actors operating in a given country (bilateral donors, international financial institutions, NGOs, etc.), organizations are generally reluctant to be coordinated from the outside. This becomes particularly challenging when dealing with non-UN organizations and actors with very different mandates and approaches. With these actors it is hardly possible to govern by decree. Organizing is a social and a personal process, in which communication listening and convincing plays an essential role. Yet, this is often easier said than done. Managers in field missions always face the need to balance two main structural challenges: integrating vertically and horizontally (both elements are part of the integrated mission design, though vertical integration has received more attention). The general pattern for vertical integration is to establish strong central lines of authority with significant operating responsibilities and make the relations of social rank and social control explicit. Horizontal integration, on the other hand, aims for fluid and transitory interaction: mutual links between more or less autonomous entities on the operational level that depend on reciprocal relations of trust and respect at the strategic level[9].

DISCUSSION

Organizational development refers to managing change in organizations to make transformation a more deliberate process, with the aim of increasing an organization's viability and effectiveness. As a distinct subfield of organization studies, it highlights behavioral aspects, emotions, and the importance of relationships in organizational life[10]. This is because any change in an organization requires changes of individual behavior, "unfreezing" of old habits and routines, and overcoming fear of the new or unknown. Understanding the importance of organizational development is key, in part because organizing is never a purely rational process. Planning weeks, months, or even years ahead is both possible and necessary, but interruptions, surprises, diverging interests, and obstructions make organizing all too often a messy process. Managers should not be discouraged when not every piece is falling into place and plans need to be adapted. Flexibility, vigilance, and creativity are necessary at the operational level to reach basic strategic goals. Hence, even though organizing is far from being an orderly process, as the very act of organizing cannot avoid compromise, conflict, and improvisation, steering it is the essential task of any manager in peace operations. From a structural point of view, managerial authority is of critical importance. However, as important as formal managerial authority (i.e., the right to decide) is, actual managerial authority (i.e., the effective control over decisions) is also crucial. It is not enough to keep an eye on the legal texts, which outline a manager's lines of control and responsibility. It is even more important to be aware of patterns of, for instance, rivalry between multiple superiors, lenient enforcement of rules or routines, or information

overload. The reputation of subordinates and principals also affects actual managerial authority[11], [12].

CONCLUSION

There are many tools that can help when working across organizations or within a network-like organization. Some are highlighted in other chapters of this handbook, including tools for managing effective meetings and for establishing functioning internal and external communication. Also, secondments or staff swaps between different parts of the organization such that DPKO and UNDP), as well as joint trainings and simulations, can all contribute to the better functioning of an organization by improving the interaction among its components. A number of approaches have also been suggested to bring the different parts of an organization closer together. Collaboration can be a strategy to achieve a goal that would be impossible if independent entities only worked by themselves. Bringing about successful collaboration and synergy, however, often requires a certain type of leadership by managers who can foster collaboration and partnerships. The whole-of-government approach formerly known as the "joined-up-government" approach has also been presented as an alternative to "departmentalism," tunnel vision, and "vertical silos," as a way to address fragmentation in public administrations. It seeks to align the policies of the traditionally independent spheres of diplomacy, development, and defense toward a common policy goal.

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CHAPTER 2

AN OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP PRINCIPLES AND THEORIES FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

This scholarly research looked at contemporary scientific advancements in the field of education management in school administration. The introduction offers an accessible summary of the definition and idea of leadership in the contexts of research, philosophy, and application. An analysis of leadership theories, guiding principles, and leadership philosophies is then covered. The identification of contemporary problems and potential alternatives is done at the conclusion of each segment. As a result of the quality educational leadership legacy that exists, this article concludes that effectiveness is assured if the application of leadership behaviors, principles, and methodology is done correctly and completely in school management. This is as doing so will allow for the further enhancement of educational managerial and leadership policies and procedures.

KEYWORDS:

Methods, Management, Policies, Practices, Principles, Styles.

INTRODUCTION

Many believe that leaders are created, not born. Yet, it is becoming more widely recognized that in order to be a successful leader, one must possess the necessary expertise, knowledge, dedication, patience, and most importantly the capacity to compromise and collaborate with others in order to accomplish objectives. So, effective leaders are created, not born. A neverending process of self-study, education, training, and the accumulation of appropriate experience is required to build good leadership. The basic transdisciplinary theory of knowledge and human, social, and organizational behaviors is given in the book "The Image: Knowledge in Life and Society". He said that a person's moral integrity and unselfish dedication to an institution are the cornerstones of excellent leadership. From the viewpoint of the followers, leadership is everything a leader does that has an impact on the accomplishment of goals, the happiness of followers, and the success of an organization. Being trustworthy is often essential for leadership roles since trust is a vital component of many kinds of human organization, including those in industry, government, religion, and the military, and international agencies[1].

In order to accomplish certain goals while using the available resources and creating an unified and efficient corporation, leadership entails a form of accountability defined leadership as the process through which a person persuades a group of others to attain a shared objective. This article makes the claim that a non-profit organization's existence and good functioning depend on strong leadership. One of the most seen yet least understood phenomena in the world is leadership. As there is no one leadership style that can be regarded as universal, scholars have offered a wide range of leadership philosophies across time. [2] A good or successful leader inspires, encourages, and guides actions to assist accomplish group or objectives of the organization despite the many different types of leadership that exist. An incompetent leader, on the other hand, does not advance the organization and may even hinder the achievement of its objectives. Effective leadership comes from the heart, and a leader must have certain qualities, as shown in Figure 1, to be effective: visionary, passionate, creative, adaptable, inspirational, inventive, bold, imaginative, and experimental. This research was motivated by the idea that no country can go beyond the quality of its educational administrators and leaders. In this theoretical discussion, the writers provided a somewhat detailed study of theoretical studies on the need for change in African nations, particularly Nigeria. The subject of this discussion is not only what educational leadership is, but also how it affects school administration, instructors, and students, as well as how it helps educational institutions overcome obstacles. This theoretical discussion's main goal is to investigate how better school management and leadership decisions are affected by a broader environment[3].

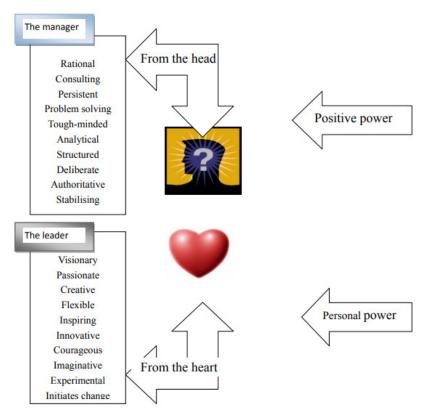


Figure 1: Represented that the Qualities of the Leader and the Manager.

i. Great Man

Theory According to ideas about great men, great leaders are not created; they are born with the ability to lead. These ideas often present leaders as heroic, mythical, and destined to assume leadership roles when circumstances demand. The phrase "great man" was employed because at the time, leadership particularly in the military was seen as predominantly a male trait.

ii. Trait Theory

The trait theory, which resembles great man ideas in certain aspects, postulates that individuals are born with particular attributes that make them more suited for leadership. Leaders often exhibit certain personality or behavioral traits, according to trait theories. The question of how to

explain individuals who exhibit certain attributes but lack leadership abilities has recently been raised in relation to this hypothesis. Scholars ultimately changed paradigms in pursuit of fresh explanations for successful leadership due to discrepancies in the link between leadership qualities and leadership effectiveness[4].

iii. Contingency Theories

Contingency theories of leadership concentrate on specific environmental factors that might influence which kind of leadership is most appropriate for a certain workplace circumstance. This notion holds that there is no one leadership style that works well in every circumstance. Success relies on a variety of factors, including the followers' traits, the environmental factors, and the leadership style. Hence, a contingency factor is any circumstance in any pertinent environment that must be taken into account while developing an organization or one of its components. According to contingency theory, a leader's ability to effectively lead relies on how well their traits and management style match those required by a given circumstance.

iv. Situational Theory

According to situational theory, leaders should decide on the appropriate course of action depending on the current situation's circumstances. Various sorts of decision-making may need different leadership philosophies. An authoritarian style of leadership, for instance, may be most suited when the group's leader is believed to be its most informed and experienced member. A democratic approach may be more successful in other situations when group members are experienced specialists and demand to be treated as such[5].

v. Behavioral Theory

Great leaders are created, not born, according to behavioral theories of leadership. This leadership philosophy places more emphasis on the behaviors of leaders than on their inner selves or intellectual attributes. A systematic comparison of autocratic and democratic leadership stances has sparked interest in the conduct of leaders, according to the behavioral theory, which holds that individuals may learn to become leaders via instruction and observation. Groups under certain styles of leadership have been shown to function differently:

- As long as the group's autocratic head is there, the group will function effectively. Yet, group members often show displeasure and antagonism against the leadership approach.
- Democratically run organizations do almost as well as dictatorial organizations. Nonetheless, there is no antagonism among group members, and they feel more positively. Most significantly, group members continue their efforts even in the absence of the leader.

vi. Participative Theory

According to participatory leadership theories, the best kind of leadership involves considering what others have to say. Group members who feel important and dedicated to the decision-making process are encouraged to participate and contribute by participative leaders. Instead of making every choice alone, a manager who practices participative leadership tries to incorporate others. This increases dedication and teamwork, which results in better decisions and a more successful company[6].

vii. Transactional or Management Theory

Transactional theories, sometimes referred to as management theories, concentrate an emphasis on the interactions between leaders and followers as well as the function of organization and group performance. These ideas place a system of incentives and penalties at the heart of leadership. In other words, the idea that a leader's responsibility is to establish systems that are crystal clear about what is expected of followers and the repercussions of meeting or failing to meet expectations. Employees are rewarded for their performance and disciplined or scolded when they fail. Many leadership approaches and organizational structures still heavily include managerial or transactional theory, which is often compared to the idea and practice of management.

viii. Relationship or Transformational Theory

The relationships made between leaders and followers are the main topic of relationship theories, commonly referred to as transformational theories. According to these views, leadership is the act of interacting with people in a way that fosters a bond that boosts the morale and drive of both followers and leaders. Relationship theories are sometimes contrasted with charismatic leadership theories, in which it is believed that leaders with certain traits such as assurance, extroversion, and a strong sense of purpose are best suited to inspire followers. Relational or transformational leaders inspire and encourage followers by assisting them in seeing the significance and greater good of the job at hand. These leaders are concerned not just with the output of the group but also with each individual reaching their full potential. These leaders often uphold strong moral and ethical standards[7].

ix. Skills Theory

According to this view, information that has been obtained as well as skills and talents that have been developed are important components of successful leadership. While innate attributes and the ability to lead successfully are acknowledged by skills theory, it contends that taught skills, a developed style, and acquired knowledge are the true drivers of leadership effectiveness. Strong support for the skills hypothesis often necessitates investing a lot of time and money in leadership development programs.

Principles of Leadership

In addition to leadership theories, the fundamentals of leadership are a subject of frequent study. Eleven fundamental leadership concepts and strategies for putting them into practice have been recognized by the United States Army:

- **i.** Be scientifically adept: You must understand your role as a leader and be well-versed in the responsibilities of each of your staff;
- **ii.** Encourage your staff to take ownership of their work: aid in the development of virtues that will enable them to fulfil their professional obligations;
- **iii.** Verify that duties are comprehended, overseen, and carried out: The key is communication. A leader has to be a good communicator. The majority of a leader's day should be spent communicating. In fact, earlier research found that communication and associated tasks took up 70% to 90% of organizational executives' daily time;

- iv. Inform your staff members: be able to speak not just with junior employees but also with senior personnel and other important individuals;
- v. Get to know your people and consider their welfare: Know the fundamentals of human nature and understand the significance of really caring for your employees;
- vi. Know yourself and pursue self-improvement: In order to know yourself, you have to comprehend what you are, what you know, and what you can accomplish. Pursuing self-improvement entails consistently honing your qualities. Self-study, formal education, workshops, contemplation, and social interaction may all help with this;
- vii. Employ effective problem-solving, decision-making, and planning methods to make choices that are timely and accurate;
- viii. Assume accountability for your acts and seek accountability: Look for approaches to lead your company to greater heights. Never place the responsibility for mistakes on other people analyses the issue, make the necessary adjustments, and then go to the next challenge;
- **ix.** Be a role model: Set a positive example for your team. Workers need to witness leaders exhibiting corporate values and ethics in addition to being informed what is required of them. Leaders must model the behavior they want in their followers;
- **x.** Work as a team during training: See the whole organization as a unit that must learn from and succeed as a whole, rather than simply your department, area, or personnel;
- **xi.** Utilize every one of your organization's resources: By cultivating a sense of unity among your team, you will be able to use all of your organization's resources to achieve your objectives.

DISCUSSION

Leadership is the practice of motivating people to work well together and accomplish corporate objectives. Great leaders have an institutional vision. They have a vision for the ideal future that they and everyone else in the institution share. This vision influences the learning and teaching programs as well as the policies, priorities, strategies, and procedures that permeate the institution's daily operations. In the context of education, leadership also entails the capacity for foresight. Education leaders assure their vision by fostering a strategic alignment throughout the whole system by successfully influencing the behaviors, ideas, and sentiments of people working within it via their words and actions. But, regardless of how great a leader is, they must manage and limit a number of challenges in order to succeed. Everyone participates in the leadership's innovative and pioneering endeavors. Leadership considers more than simply the bottom line. Good choices are those that a leader takes that have a purpose, a direction, an aim, a vision, a dream, a road, and a reach. Bennis asserts that a leader does the following actions[8]:

i. Develops a compelling vision: Leadership must persuade employees to share a common vision before turning that vision into reality. Instead of rewarding or penalizing employees, effective leaders encourage their employees by assisting them in empathizing with the work and the objective. Leaders pull rather than push; they motivate and empower followers.

- **ii.** Fosters a culture of trust: Leaders must understand how to build and maintain trust. To do this, leaders must encourage disagreement, promote creativity, and accept failure. A leader has to be competent in order to inspire others' confidence in their ability to carry out their duties. A leader must act honorably if they want to build trust. Ultimately, a leader must attain consistency between what he or she does and says and what his or her goal is in order to build trust and be a successful leader[9], [10].
- **iii.** Produces meaning: A leader produces meaning by fostering an atmosphere in which people are constantly reminded of what is important. A leader contributes to the institution's mission definition and exemplifies the conduct that will assist the group achieve its objectives. Leaders are those who can articulate the group's objectives in an expressive manner[11], [12].

CONCLUSION

Academic comments and publications that combine theoretical, empirical, and practical information and concepts significant to comprehending research, approaches, and challenges crucial to educational leadership are becoming common. Only the writers' introspective capacity to connect thematic concerns over a larger range and overlapping themes from which they start out and become recognized allows for these syntheses. In order to do this, this essay has covered effective educational leadership in school administration as well as a quality wake-up call for a better model that can be applied to the educational settings in Nigeria. This article might draw the conclusion that success is certain if the application of the leadership styles, concepts, and procedures is done correctly and completely in school management by looking at the conditions surrounding great educational leadership in connection to school management. Excellent educational leadership tradition gives significant chance to further develop educational leadership and management policies and practices by adopting and implementing the core concepts and styles. Given that things are now stagnant in Nigerian public school administration after decades of education, the authors would like to suggest that excellent educational leadership ideas and styles be implemented as a way to improve school management there. Managers of educational institutions are aware that leadership involves making a lot of decisions every day that need for tact and knowledge of different leadership philosophies. In order to provide school leaders a strong theoretical foundation and a practical application, bridging the gap between theory and practice should be able to provide investigation of the prevalent aspects of leadership. The optimal leadership approach, or mix of techniques, for helping a school achieve success, should be identified by school leaders. If used properly, an efficient educational leadership style may be quickly, easily, and affordably implemented in school authorities. It is possible to use the outcomes of the applications of successful educational leadership style to improve administrative performance, establish teams, and boost student and school creativity in classroom instruction.

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CHAPTER 3

AN OVERVIEW OF THE MANAGEMENT IN SPORTS

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ABSTRACT:

Leadership in the sports business involves both a thorough grasp of the sector and the capacity to uplift and drive people. Leaders must be able to clearly convey their vision and tactics to their team in order to succeed. The business of leisure and sports is known as sports management. Employers that hire sports managers include professional teams, universities, recreational divisions, and marketing companies.

KEYWORDS:

Management, Leadership, Organization, Industry, Sports.

INTRODUCTION

There are a number of faults in the sports management model that have been outlined, which are evident in every sports structure now in use and impede the enormous potential of the sports consumer market from being fully realized. Several factors, including poor strategic planning, a lack of professionalism in the administration of clubs, organizations, federations, and sports confederations, a shortage of trained professionals to operate in this field, and a lack of space, contribute to the reasons why the subject is raised. Yet, in order to reach and fully use the sport's marketing potential, an effective management team that acts professionally is first required. Since a sport's market is enhanced by its revenues and its values are maximized by management excellence, a sport's qualities and values are of little worth if it does not have effective management. This is particularly sad since wagering on sports, namely soccer, has the potential to be worth millions of dollars. This is a fantastic place to place a wager right now[1].

A professionally managed sport adheres to the principles of strategic managerial management, including lean and flexible structures, carefully chosen investments, a results-driven approach, talent development, the creation of internalization and sport-based programmers and projects, champions, professional managers, marketing strategies, and financial reporting and balance sheet publishing. The four primary stages of sports management must be carefully planned and executed in order for all of this excellence in sports management to be realized. Strategic planning is the first stage, and it includes a series of activities that will be taken over a certain time period in order to accomplish all the objectives of the detailed planning. The contemporary sports institutions' organizational structures, including those of clubs, federations, and sports organizations like leisure and amusement clubs, among others, are constantly amateurish. The "sports firms" sometimes simply build short-term planning, focusing mainly on the continuation of that "company" rather than its expansion and growth[2].

The second stage of sports management deals with the organization, or how the whole system will be set up to support effective strategic planning. The whole "company "'s" organizational structure should be developed during this phase, together with the choice of investments, the creation of initiatives and plans for the internalization of the sport. Currently, amateurism in

sports is seen in "sports firms" since the same individual holds many roles, and in some circumstances, all the jobs, which limits the company's ability to increase its marketing potential.

After the planning and organization stages, the third and fourth phases are related to implementation and accommodation.

During these phases, everything generated planning will be put into effect and is maintained or adjusted if anything does not go as expected. However, in order for the implementation and accommodation of strategic sports planning to be successful, it is essential that the sports product in question realizes all of its marketing potential. Professional management with qualified professionals is also required to ensure that the sports product in question is profitable for the company. Nonetheless, it is evident that the sports sector of the economy employs the fewest qualified individuals overall and that, despite an increase in funding, the clubs remain in debt[3].

Function of the Management of Sports

Running a sports team or community leisure facility may seem to be all fun and games, but it is really quite businesslike and often necessitates a sizable staff. Sports teams, like other organizations, employ managers, accountants, marketing experts, and salesmen to monitor the players, attract spectators, and eventually generate revenue. The sports manager is one of the key responsibilities in an organization's success.

1. HR Responsibilities

Athletes are hired and fired by the sports management at the professional level. The sports manager negotiates contracts with athletes and draughts contracts for each athlete with the assistance of other staff members. To find the greatest athletes for a college's programs, a sports manager collaborates with a recruiting team to scout high school talent. The athletic director recruits the top students to his school by offering scholarships and other benefits. Sports managers represent individual players as their representatives, assisting them in negotiating contracts with organizations.

2. Management Duties

The sports manager is responsible for managing at various levels. Sports managers for professional teams collaborate with coaches and trainers to guarantee that every player has access to the tools necessary for him to excel in his position. As athletic directors at universities and high schools, sports managers oversee all facets of the athletic department at such institutions. In addition to managing the sporting venue, a facility manager may also create game schedules, hire food and service employees, and handle facility upkeep[4].

3. The Business of Sports Management

The budget for each season is planned by the sports manager, who considers possible sales, ongoing expenses, and employee pay, including those of the players, coaches, and staff. The budgeting for team travel, equipment, and clothing is handled by sports managers as well. The sports manager must consider player injuries, probable playoff games, and other potential problems that might develop and have an impact on the budget. Others work in sports managers serve as directors of NCAA compliance at the collegiate level.

4. Marketing and Promotions

The sports manager often serves as the team's public face and spokesman and must do news conferences and interviews with the media. Some managers are fundraisers or sports marketers who get corporate sponsorships and endorsements. In addition to managing media days for his team, sports managers also work as public relations specialists or directors of sports information. They serve as the team's point of contact with the media for interviews, results, and team updates. A club or sporting group may use a sports manager to prepare events.

5. Miscellaneous Duties

Outside of professional, collegiate, and high school programs, sports managers do a variety of additional tasks and responsibilities. Some are in charge of operations at health clubs or fitness centers. Others oversee athletic programs for enjoyment, the local community, and education by setting up sports leagues, clubs, and camps. Sports managers may also work for resorts, planning sporting events and workout sessions for visitors[5].

This research aims to evaluate the association between spectators' opinions of stadium quality, their intentions to purchase tickets, and their willingness to remain at the venue. We specifically looked at the influence of perceived congestion on patronage intentions as well as the impacts of parking, facility aesthetics, Scoreboard layouts, and spectator satisfaction with the stadium. We also looked at the impact of space allocation and wayfinding signs on perceived crowding on spectators' views of seating comfort and layout accessibility, as shown in Figure 1. The research also created and verified a tool that facility managers may use to gauge how satisfied spectators are with sports venues and how they are perceived by them.

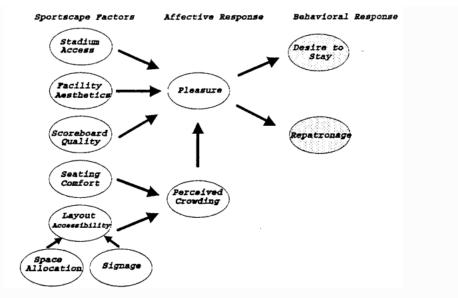


Figure 1: Represented that the Hypothesized Sports cape Model.

Background of Facility Management

The architectural environment, as well as three other key aspects of the services sector, were recognized as having an impact on consumers' views of the service provider and their subsequent cognitive, emotional, and conative reactions. These parameters include the surrounding environment, the design and operation of the physical space, and signs, symbols, and artefacts.

The second and third dimensions may be integrated into a category more widely known as interior layout and design from the perspective of facility planning and management. It said that the following is part of interior planning and design:

- i. Floor plans
- ii. Specifications for furniture and other items
- iii. Decorative requirements pertaining to colors, materials, and finishes
- iv. Interior design elements including color, furniture design, graphics, signs, flooring, textiles, and accessories.

Facility management include components of the architectural, landscape, and site design in addition to interior layout and design, such as parking lot layout and design as well as the aesthetic appeal of the facility's architecture. These constant aspects of the services, or those that don't change from one game to the next, would seem to have a major and enduring impact on fans' enjoyment of the stadium setting. The fixed components of what we will refer to as the "sports cape" in this research are the main emphasis.

More precisely, we looked at how spectators' emotive reactions to the sports venue were impacted by the layout and design of the inside as well as the outside, including the architectural, landscape, and site design. Since they are often fleeting and difficult to assess in the field, ambient factors such as temperature, air quality, noise, and scents are seldom examined, particularly in open-air stadiums[6]. The constructed environment does not contain aspects of service quality like food delivery, stadium security, etc., thus these were also excluded[7].

DISCUSSION

This research found that the degree to which fans feel packed or cramped because of the stadium's constrained access and space is one of the most important variables influencing their enjoyment of the activity. Sports venues that make it difficult for spectators to get to key locations and compel viewers to sit elbow-to-elbow are likely to irritate spectators, who will then be less likely to want to remain at the game and less likely to attend subsequent games. Such stadiums might be strong candidates for replacement or extensive redevelopment[8], [9]. The model suggested that issues with perceived overcrowding might be resolved without the need for a new building by reallocating some space, perhaps by lowering the number of seats to increase seating areas, popular destinations (concessions, restrooms, etc.), and thoroughfares, and by improving the signage to direct traffic to the services that are offered.

The bulk of patrons could be swarming the food stands and restrooms on the sports arena's main concourse since they can see them as they approach the main gates or entrance, while other facilities might be mostly empty. If this is the case, consumers may be directed to available services by way of clear signs or helpful service personnel on the lookout for clients who seem bewildered or irritated. If they can see the game on television monitors, some fans' bad sentiments caused by congested service areas that are not in view of the game could be minimised. Even though there will still be a lot of people in the audience, at least they will be able to hear the audience applauding while watching the play rather than having to wait in line and wonder what is going on while the audience yells. However, even if certain service areas could be crowded, improved signage and more efficient waiting line designs with clearly stated lines and instructions might help with some crowding issues brought on by disorganization[10], [11].

CONCLUSION

The visual appeal of the facility was the other significant sports cape aspect directly impacting customer satisfaction, apart from the perception of congestion. A consumer often bases their first opinion of a service provider on how the facilities look. Sports competitions include continual inspection and appraisal of the sports cape, which amplifies the impact. While the choice to significantly alter or replace the architectural design would be significant, managers should not ignore certain other fundamental aesthetic quality considerations. Basic operations like painting and cleaning the building should be performed regularly to preserve or improve the facility's aesthetic appeal, as should appealing interior design. Customers who do not want to come or remain in the facility due to its aesthetic quality may be lost to owners and managers whose major emphasis is on providing the primary service that is a competitive team. The results of this research suggest that if parking access and availability are inadequate to serve consumers, similar problems may arise because customers won't enter or remain in the service area if they can't locate a spot or expect to have issues leaving the parking lot. Running shuttle services between additional parking lots and the main gate is a solution, even though extending parking space is sometimes challenging for facilities that are landlocked.

The results may suggest that a sizeable portion of spectators are relatively willing to put up with poor parking since parking access was rated worse than all of the other sports cape elements at the football stadium or do not directly associate it with the quality of the sports cape because stadium accessibility had the weakest relationship with pleasure in the football sample and was not significant in the baseball sample. Moreover, parking accessibility may not be as big of a problem in smaller minor league stadiums as it may be for some spectators parking on the outside of a large college stadium with 40,000-60,000 people. The Scoreboard quality was a last factor that had a direct impact on users' satisfaction with the scenery. Scoreboards may be so crucial to the sports world for a number of reasons, one of which is that they may make waiting time more enjoyable. There are sometimes times throughout most athletic games when it may seem to many viewers that not much is happening on the field, such as in between plays, at the conclusion of quarters, etc. As viewers wait for the event to begin, effective scoreboard management may help ease their boredom. Providing fascinating data is one of the easiest ways to keep people entertained, regardless of the technical sophistication of the scoreboards. Several minor league and college venues that the writers visited did not have up-to-date stats throughout the course of the game.

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CHAPTER 4

AN INTRODUCTION TO LEADERSHIP AND ITS IMPACT ON MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Business leadership refers to the capability of an organization's management to define and accomplish hard objectives, move swiftly and decisively when necessary, achieve superior results, and motivate employees to work to the best of their abilities. In contrast to quantitative measures, which are often recorded and much simpler to compare across organizations, it may be difficult to put a value on management or other qualitative qualities of a company. As in the tone a firm's management sets or the characteristics of the company something which management produces, leadership may also refer to a more all-encompassing approach.

KEYWORDS:

Business Leadership, Leadership Quality, Management, Organization, Sports.

INTRODUCTION

Even if we struggle to define leadership, we recognize when we see a leader in action. The exact combination of skills and traits that results in great leadership mix of art and science is unpredictable, but certainly not unfamiliar. There are many definitions of leadership, but they all refer to common concepts and characteristics: self-confidence, communication and people skills, creativity, integrity, courage, political savvy, compassion, and humility, among others. Leadership is often confused with management, however. Both require an ability to get people to do things so the organization can achieve its goals, but while management oversees the "here and now," leadership is expected to bring a vision for the future and lead in times of crisis. Being a leader entails acting strategically and consistently in support of a broader vision for the organization. A leader knows how to bring about change when required and how to inspire and motivate staff to work together to implement the organization's strategy and its mission especially when that mission is being challenged.

Leaders see possibilities where others see problems. Regardless of their position in the organizational hierarchy, they are the ones people turn to in times of crisis. Of course, leadership is a quality that comes more naturally to some than to others. But no one has ever been a perfect leader on day one. Leadership skills are developed through years of experience and training, and must be added to the palette of tools that ultimately make a good manager. There are also many types of leaders at many different levels in a hierarchy. An operation such as a UN field missionnot unlike the wartime army referenced aboverequires competent leadership at all levels to succeed, as well as cross-institutional leadership in order to foster collaboration in an often fragmented UN presence in a given country (see Organization & Coordination chapter). The lessons for leadership in this section are not, therefore, limited to the head of mission or Special Representative of the Secretary-General, but are relevant to staff at every level of a mission[1].

Principles and Practice

You might be both an effective manager and a motivating leader since managing and leading typically include the same actions. The leader manages change and could question the status quo while the manager deals with complexity and supervises certain areas of the company. With the UN, like in many other organizations, you'll probably be expected to manage and lead at the same time. The extraordinary leader is the one who also understands management; the intelligent manager knows when and how to lead. There is no one sort of successful leader, and many leadership philosophies must be tailored to various companies and circumstances, particularly when a crisis is present. A senior management position does not automatically provide one the capacity for leadership. Leaders gain knowledge by experience, observation, and listening to what is going on both within and outside the business. The many leadership philosophies are outlined in the table below, along with their traits, potential applications, and drawbacks. The more styles you can establish, the more often and successfully you can exercise leadership. A successful leader's profile includes the items below. Together, they provide a model of management that all managers, regardless of their position within the company, should strive to achieve. For an organization to be successful, leadership must exist at all levels and take many different forms[2].

Visionary

Even if the procedure needed to put the vision into action is drawn out and challenging, a great leader is able to create a clear, focused, and understandable vision to move beyond the status quo. Large bureaucracies tend to prefer the status quo, thus most ideas are straightforward yet need great leadership abilities to be realized. When pushed to think differently and modify their behavior, people in their comfort zones experience a sense of danger. To persuade the hesitant that they would ultimately benefit from the changes that the vision will bring about in their professional life, a successful vision will create a shared sense of values and direction. Defining a vision helps in defining what the intended results would entail. The ideal vision clearly benefits everyone engaged inside the business and outside of it by outlining the intended objectives in plain words and appealing to the organization's basic values. Committing to a shared vision is vital for UN peace operations, but it is often challenging to do.

The leader must carefully manage and strike a balance between the politics of being at the intersection of the priorities of the UN Security Council, of the host government and the local populace, as well as of the countries that provide troops and police, other UN entities, international financial institutions, and bilateral donors active in the specific country. This certainly transcends the difficulty of developing a vision for a single company on its own. In order to successfully communicate the mission's strategic direction to various stakeholders both within and beyond the UN family, it is crucial to take into account their perspectives and priorities (see Communication chapter). A UN mission cannot complete every job or attend to every person's needs, but it may play a significant diagnostic and convening function in a nation, coordinating and synchronizing the plans and activities of diverse players without necessarily doing all the work itself[3].

Communicator and Listener

The capacity to concisely and effectively convey a vision is just as crucial as its creation. Even if putting the concept into action is a difficult task, communicating it shouldn't be. People won't

back something they don't completely comprehend. Everyone must be reminded of the vision and brought up to date on both progress and issues throughout the implementation phase. Keeping individuals informed encourages a better feeling of ownership in the procedure and, as a result, a stronger commitment to its execution. The foundation of communication is listening, which enables you to learn, comprehend difficulties, and discern others' intentions. Effective leaders are aware that they cannot solve every issue. Their capacity to incorporate the expertise and experience of others into their vision and their openness to new ideas are what make them strong. There will always be consequences if you don't listen. Both informal and formal communication may be significant. Without spending the time to have an informal conversation with the stakeholders who could be adverse to the idea, a persuasive presentation will not lead to a good conclusion. Before their worries become difficulties, it is essential to fully comprehend what they are. In certain cultural circumstances, casual, one-on-one contact is also preferred. However, because everyone surrounding a leader attentively monitors and interprets their emotional signals, nonverbal communication may be quite significant. Good leaders are able to inspire and influence people by exuding confidence and optimism, particularly in challenging situations[4].

Motivator

Strong leadership has been believed to have a disproportionate multiplier impact at the UN since it attracts the finest employees and brings out the best in everyone on staff. If leadership is lacking and morale is low, employees who can quit the company. Others may continue working, but they risk becoming jaded, doubtful of the organization, and excessively focused with their working circumstances and benefits. A manager and a leader differ in part by their ability to inspire and motivate their team.

The boss facilitates the performance of the team. Big bureaucracies sometimes inhibit individual initiative, adaptability, and innovation because they are compelled to have inflexible sets of rules, regulations, processes, and structures. Cynicism and disillusionment may ensue. This phenomenon is not new to the inspire, encourage, and foster employee trust in such work situations, the leadership will often need to put up significant effort. Leaders know how to foster a sense of camaraderie, unlock the potential of collaboration, and bring out the best in a group. Interpersonal aptitude and concerted effort are needed for this. One must have a desire to engage others with their work and establish connections with them.

Keep in mind that challenging employees to work above their pay grade or get projects outside of their normal duties may frequently enliven them. In certain instances, this may result in the mentorship of a few staff members as they work to hone their leadership abilities. Consumers also want to feel that they were involved in all phases of the process, from planning to execution. But, each person is unique and has unique strengths, flaws, and potential. They must thus be involved in a way that is specific to their needs and interests. Highly skilled individuals who lack confidence may need to be encouraged, and additional duties may need to be given to the seasoned to keep them motivated. Some people want more direction and guidance than others. It may be difficult to determine who on staff need what amount of freedom and encouragement. The only way to find this out is probably to engage them in conversation about both their jobs and personal life. The easiest way to accomplish this is by casually dropping by other employees' workspaces. Leading cannot be done while seated at an office. However, effective leadership requires going above and beyond the call of duty to interact directly with employees[5].

Mediator

Like in many multicultural workplaces, UN field operations may be the site of workplace conflict and stress. Despite the fact that the UN has established a variety of internal dispute resolution procedures, such as the United Nations Ombudsman and Mediation Services, the manager is often required to act as an urgent mediator. Conflicts that emerge inside the team are also subject to some kind of responsibility from the leadership. You may contribute to a friendly and equitable work environment by understanding the nature of the issue and mastering basic conflict-resolution techniques. Although while the incident that starts a disagreement may be little, there are usually deeper causes for workplace hostility, such as poor communication, personality conflicts, or different working methods. Despite the cause, the secret to resolving disagreements before they turn into crises is early action.

- i. The first stage in settling a disagreement is to meet with the parties involved, listen to what they have to say, and then briefly summaries the issue for them to ensure that everyone is on the same page.
- **ii.** After that, ask each participant to list specific steps they believe the other side should do to address the conflict. Tell the opponents that you won't take a side and that you expect them to resolve the problem on their own.
- **iii.** Convey to both parties your complete confidence in their abilities to work out their disagreements. Decide on a time to assess progress.

Coalition Builder

A team of leaders is required for large operations that handle a wide range of activities, like a UN field mission. These operations cannot be led by one person alone. Hence, managers must invest a lot of time and energy on putting together and developing a leadership team that combines complimentary abilities and qualities. Building coalitions both internally and internationally, sustaining strategic relationships, and bridging cultural and hierarchical divides are further aspects of leadership. Being politically astute without getting compromised by politics is necessary for this kind of strategic thinking. Building a strong and efficient leadership team or teams inside the company to address certain concerns is where it all begins. Although formal management teams are present in all UN missions and typically meet once a week, they may not always be the best choice to address the organization's particular difficulties. As a result, you may think about creating ad hoc teams, boards of advisors, task forces, or coordination groups to address particular problems or win over important stakeholders who aren't represented in established leadership structures. Mid-level employees may also use this as a chance to feel respected and empowered. It's also important to recognize the value of impromptu teams that emerge outside of the local workplace[6].

Accountable

Effective leaders make wise choices. They do this by recognizing and evaluating the relative risks, costs, and rewards associated with each option. They are also capable of effectively communicating their choices. This is crucial in situations when the choice may negatively affect a person or group of individuals. Similar to other big organizations, the United Nations' extensive bureaucracy makes it possible for responsibility for outcomes to become distributed and weakened. It is sometimes difficult for host communities, particularly in the field environment, to grasp who within the UN is ultimately responsible for the UN's activities in their

nation. Nevertheless, respected and trusted leaders are those that accept responsibility for both successes and mistakes. They often gain respect by demonstrating to their team, their supervisors, and the general public where the responsibility lies. Such leaders understand that although victory should be shared with those who helped make it possible, defeat should always be accepted with humility[7].

Coolheaded

Continuous and quick change characterizes contemporary life. The United Nations itself is continually evolving, and UN peacekeeping is generally in permanent crisis mode. Personnel on the ground must adapt to new mandates, mission sizes and configurations, political realities, and operational environments that are continually changing. It may be difficult to lead a group or organization through a crisis. High levels of uncertainty, urgency, and complexity are brought on by a major catastrophe or violent war. People will look to a leader to provide them with clarity, serenity, and confidence that everything will work out for the best. Leaders must be consistently accessible during a crisis to reassure the public and demonstrate that the issue is under control. Regular reviews, audits, and maybe even tests are required for formal emergency procedures. Even the best-laid plans must be changed right away in a crisis to account for the situation. There is a good chance that everything will be affected, including water, food, and housing, transportation, and office space. Big firms excel at educating their workers in planning, but they seldom spend money on helping them improve their improvisational abilities.

Leadership must constantly improvise during times of crisis. The most improbable leaders rise to the fore at times of crises. These can be the ones that are reserved yet have a remarkable knack for solving issues right away. They could also be the ones with networks of their own and the ability to locate the required resource. Recognizing and encouraging these emergent leaders is necessary for crisis effectiveness, even if it means upending the hierarchy. Every crisis is a chance for learning and necessitates a postmortem review to improve readiness for potential future crises. Some crises are managed improperly, and they may also be the result of a series of mistakes made by people, faulty judgement, and poor choices. One should not get complacent in such a situation. Instead, take the necessary actions to enable a reliable inquiry to identify who is to blame for any errors, including your own. In general, crises offer a chance to employ the UN knowledge management tools, which are covered in more depth in the knowledge management chapter. Teams, organizations, and techniques are put to the ultimate test by the special stress conditions that arise during crises, and valuable lessons that may help colleagues facing similar situations in the future may be extracted and preserved[8].

Example Setter

The UN Competence Framework was created as a manual for professional growth for UN employees. Integrity is recognized as a basic principle in this framework that should direct all UN employees' actions. Being totally devoted to the highest standards of professionalism, competence, and honesty is what it means to be a leader in the UN. Clearly, when UN staff violate these fundamental principles, the mission and the UN as a whole suffer. Being a leader in the UN entails being fully devoted to these ideals, both in theory and in practice, and acting as an example for other UN employees on how to conduct themselves as visitors in another nation. Managers are more thoroughly scrutinized and linked to the UN because to their position within the company. Management could be more tempted. They will, for instance, have simpler access to the mission's resources.

The usage of automobiles, phones, and planes is controlled by a variety of administrative directives that may be abused by a cunning manager. It is crucial that persons in leadership roles utilize their influence to set an example for the proper use of mission resources and refrain from using them for their own benefit. Because of their capacity to have an impact on mission choices, managers are also in high demand among representatives of other organizations, the host government, and member states. No one in the United Nations, regardless of position or level, is authorized to solicit or receive any monetary reward from government authorities, however accepting invitations to dinners and receptions is an important part of strategically building excellent relationships. As a leader, you must be able to judge objectively whether a meal is being used as a bribe and, conversely, when a modest gift is an entirely harmless gesture that is a part of the community and refusing it won't do any good. Consistency between values and actions is necessary for maintaining personal integrity. In the real world, whether an employee of the UN is at the office on a Tuesday at midday or a bar on a Saturday night, they always represent the company and its principles. Outside-of-the-office errors may have very significant repercussions inside of the workplace. As a result, managers must set the bar for personal integrity at the greatest level in both their personal and professional lives. They must adhere strictly to the organization's standards and serve as an example of accountability and integrity since doing otherwise might jeopardize the organization's purpose[9].

DISCUSSION

The scales will probably be further strengthened by research using this instrument in a number of other sports activity situations, which will also strengthen the validity of the salient elements. To establish the model's generalizability, the scales should be administered at basketball and hockey arenas with potentially a little change. There is still work to be done to ascertain if parking at the venue has a direct impact on how fans see sports. The findings of this research can give rise to the suspicion that the "excitability" of the facility is a more significant factor in the parking problem. Even if parking is a problem, spectators may still show up, but they may not remain for the whole event. Parking security (while exiting) may also be a major worry in big urban areas. From a practical standpoint, the findings of this study provide direction to managers so they may consider their facilities from the perspective of the client. Management may ascertain how their clients perceive the sports cape and forecast their emotive and behavioral reactions by concentrating on the particular components of the sports cape. Although management observation may be used to assess the quality of some of these elements, it is important to note that long-term consumers and workers of a business may grow so acclimated to their surroundings that they fail to see structural and interior design flaws. A big percentage of prospective consumers may not share management's positive perception of the facility's visual excellence because of sentiments of ownership and pride. Thus, it is advised to do investigation into customer views, both existing and potential[10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

It has been shown that supporters' satisfaction with the sports-themed environment of the venue has a substantial bearing on their choice to attend games there. The baseball environment may have had a greater effect on patronage since regular baseball game goers are exposed to the sports cape substantially more often than regular football attendance. Better facilities might help maintain and grow attendance and concession sales since spectators stay longer. Fielding a superb team may still draw crowds, but this is more difficult to control than the standard of the setting. Competent facilities management may enable club owners to effectively compete for the fans' entertainment dollars even if they are unable to compete on the field.

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CHAPTER 5

AN INTRODUCTION OF THE PLANNING AND ITS EXECUTION IN MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Considering what to do and how to undertake it in advance is planning. One of the main project management responsibilities is this. Prior to actually acting, the manager must decide how to approach a certain task. Planning therefore has a strong relationship to innovation and creativity. But, the manager would require some time to establish a sense. It includes forecasting methods that are utilized for forecasts. Examples of management planning include looking forward, assessing it, and determining a future action plan in advance. A yearly sales plan is created on the basis of projections of future sales as an element of planning in the strategy implementation.

KEYWORDS:

Industry, Management, Organization, Planning, Strategy.

INTRODUCTION

Planning is the process of determining the ideal mix of resources and activities required to achieve an organization's goals via the creation of strategies. Plans and strategies are crucial for tying an organization's overall future vision to its daily operations. Plans aid in organizing goals, setting priorities, foreseeing challenges, reducing risk, making the most of scarce resources, and pointing the way to achievement. Planning occurs on three levels[1]:

- i. Political: relating to agreement on broad goals and resources.
- ii. The strategic: when creating broad strategies and deciding how to organize tasks to achieve goals.
- iii. The operational: in the daily application of the strategic plan in the field.

Planning for UN field missions is a difficult but necessary process. Planning at the UN attempts to create operations that are efficient and successful in achieving the broad political goal outlined in a Security Council mandate. The planning process is cyclical, multilayered, multi-actor, and often overlapped. The United Nations Integrated Mission Planning Process (IMPP) Guidelines for both headquarters and field have been developed by the UN as a set of requirements and minimum standards for how to translate UN Security Council directives into planning procedures that guarantee coherence across all UN system components operating in the same country. The activity of the mission and the UN country team is planned and coordinated on the ground via the implementation of an Integrated Strategy Framework (ISF). From early evaluations and mission start-up to mission completion, mission reconfigurations, mission drawdown, and mission liquidation, sophisticated coordination and communication among several players are needed from the beginning.

An overview of the theoretical foundations and fundamental instruments for strategic planning are given in this chapter. Even if planning is not your primary responsibility, understanding why and how UN planning works can help you plan your own work, contribute intelligently to UN mission planning procedures, and critically evaluate, update, and modify current plans.

Fundamentals & Practice

A strategy is a conceptualization, expressed or implied, of the organization's long-term objectives or purposes, (2) the general constraints and policies that currently limit the scope of the organization's activities, and (3) the current set of plans of near-term goals that have been adopted in the expectation that they will contribute to the achievement of the organization's objectives." Objectives are the aims, and strategies are the methods of obtaining them, to put it simply. Strategy are means to carry out an organization's all-encompassing long-term objectives. The comparable management role, known as strategic planning, is concerned with creating an overarching direction for an organization in light of the possibilities and challenges presented by the operational environment as well as the resources available to the business. In addition to the formal strategy creation process, other methods may also be used to generate strategies. Conceptually, one may distinguish between intentional and unintended strategies as well as between strategies that have been implemented and those that have not, as shown in Table 1. Three different types of strategies may result from different combinations of these categories: intentional strategies that are planned and successful, unrealized strategies that are intended but fail to materialize, and emergent strategies that are unintended but successful[2].

Table 1: Represented that the Differentiating between Strategies.

	Intended	Unintended
Realized	Deliberate strategy	Emergent strategy
Unrealized	Unrealized strategy	-

It is critical to recognize that tactics might develop in unanticipated ways. You should make an effort to keep your flexibility, constantly evaluate your plan, and, if required, adjust it. Planning translates broad ideas into ever-more-detailed work schedules, and eventually, individual actions. Plans come in a variety of forms, similar to how strategy does. Plans are usually intentional, in contrast to tactics, which may sometimes develop in unexpected ways. Plans include choices made in advance on how to carry out your task. As shown in Table 2, strategies and plans may be separated based on the time frame to which they apply and the hierarchical levels. There are three types of plans: medium-term plans that is three years, short-term plans, and long-term plans, which have a planning horizon of five years. One can distinguish between strategic planning for the organization as a whole, management planning for various plans and programs within organizational divisions, and functional planning, which refers to support functions like administration, public affairs, etc., when breaking down strategies and the corresponding plans hierarchically.

Table 2: Represented that the Strategic, Programmatic, and Functional Planning.

Time horizon	Hierarchical level
Long-term (5 years)	Strategic/Organizational
Medium-term (3 years)	Management/Programmatic
Short-term (3 months–1 year)	Functional

The UN General Assembly approves funding for UN field missions, which are typically given a six- to one-year renewable mandate by the UN Security Council. The UN regular budget, which covers the funding of special political missions, runs for two consecutive calendar years, beginning on January 1 and ending in December of the following year, as opposed to the peacekeeping support account budget, which is annual and runs from July 1 to June 30 of the following year. For UN field missions, mandates and financial planning cycles sometimes do not coincide. This presents difficulties for multiyear planning in addition to implications for various time horizons and hierarchical levels of planning. As shown in Table 3, the hierarchical levels vary from the political level all the way down to the operational level, and the time horizons cover the life cycle of a mission[3].

Time horizon	Hierarchical level	
Variable time frame depending on mandate (decisions made on objectives and resources)	Political (UNSC resolution, UNGA budget allocation)	
Medium-term (development of the strategic plan)	Strategic (UN, Secretariat, and senior mission leadership)	
Short-term (implementation of plan through day-to-day operations)	Operational (military, political, and civilian units)	

Table 3: Represented	the Planning	Hierarchy	for UN Missions.
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Procedure for Planning Models Depending on their goals, capabilities, and resources, various organizations use a variety of methods to strategic management and planning. The purpose of this article is to provide a sample planning procedure and then provide some viewpoints on the drawbacks and benefits of such an approach, while also taking into consideration the unique difficulties managers have while preparing for UN field operations. Planning and developing strategies often include a set of actions. Planning procedures must generally utilize the same mix of phases, despite the fact that words used to identify the various phases are often different (notice the diverse terms used in UN field missions). As shown in Figure 1, we separate the planning process into five distinct phases: the "plan for planning" phase, the objectives-setting phase, the diagnostic phase, the design phase, and the implementation phase. Three fundamental issues for an organization are covered by these five stages of planning:



Figure 1: Represented that the Five Phases of the Planning Process.

This procedure may be expanded to include a sixth step called assessment, which assesses whether or not we are succeeding in our objectives. As shown in Figure 2, managers should see planning as a cyclical process that has to be repeated as a continuous obligation rather than as a linear and static task. Constant review is required, and sometimes plans may need to be modified, especially in the unstable environment of UN field operations. Plans may need to be modified to account for unforeseen circumstances and plans Objectives SWOT evaluation creation of a strategy Implementation now, where are we? Where ought we to go? How do we go there? Observed physical realities, to record and codify emerging strategies, and to align practises with the intended and articulated strategies. Recurring planning cycles are an effective way to establish a minimal amount of flexibility given the significance of keeping flexible and often updated plans[4].The planning cycle's objective is participatory planning: An organization's actions will be more in line with reality if it frequently updates and improves its plans and strategies, includes workers at all levels, and assures maximum responsiveness to internal and external changes.

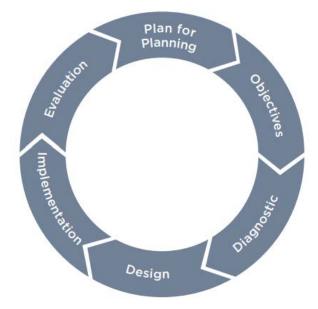


Figure 2: represented that the Planning Cycle.

Plan for Planning

It is necessary to provide the framework for strategy creation and planning by creating a plan for planning. In addition to a general organizational commitment to participate in a process of thinking about the organization's future, this calls for the allocation of personnel, their roles, and appropriate resources. Spending time and effort on this phase is vital since it disproportionately influences the likelihood that succeeding stages will be successful. It is necessary to have a common knowledge of what strategic planning comprises while arranging an exercise in it. Understanding potential outcomes, their effects on the organization, and how work will be carried out are also included in this.The following are significant issues that need to be resolved[5]:

- i. Who ought to be a part of the planning process?
- ii. Might we gain from other opinions, such as those of facilitators and experts?
- iii. How can openness be maintained and outside opinions be utilized effectively without slowing down the planning process?

- iv. How much time should be set out for planning?
- v. How should staff members allocate their time between planning and other responsibilities?
- vi. What are the financial repercussions?
- vii. Who is in charge of directing the planning process and afterwards ensuring its completion and implementation?

Objectives-Setting Phase

As the period of preparation is over, the organization's overarching objectives need to be established. The purpose, vision, goals, and objectives of an organization are the four main factors that make up the objectives-setting process. Collectively, they impose a variety of future conditions on an organization. So, it has to be very clear what the business aims to accomplish. The overarching purpose of an organization is outlined in its mission statement. The purpose, business, and values of the company should all be included in the mission statement. An organization's projected contribution to society should be framed in terms of a vision statement to provide a guiding picture of what success will look like. The purpose of vision statements is to give the members of an organization something to strive towards by presenting an idealized future state. The mission and vision statements' overarching themes are further developed by a thorough list of aims and objectives. The "SMARTER" criteria, which are also discussed in other sections of this manual, are a helpful benchmark for creating targets. Goals ought to be:

- **i.** Detailed (target a distinct group or thing)
- **ii.** Quantifiable (include numbers or outcomes that success can be measured against)
- **iii.** Transferable (assign responsibility to each person or group)
- iv. Reliable (consider only what can actually be achieved)
- v. Time-Bound v (have a start and end date)
- vi. Moral (respect the rights and interests of others)
- vii. Captured (track results and make available to stakeholders)

Objectives may be established at every level of the organization, which is related to the hierarchy of strategies and plans mentioned above. The vision, aims, and objectives may not always be explicit or fully developed in the context of UN field missions. A broader strategic vision for the nation beyond the UN presence is frequently absent from Security Council resolutions that establish and mandate a UN mission. These resolutions typically list the tasks that UN planning processes must plan for (through the IMPP and ISF, and to some extent in the Results-Based Budgeting and section or unit work plans)[6].

A mission statement and strategic vision may both be based on the UN Charter and the mission's Security Council mandate, respectively. In actuality, the objectives of the UN Charter serve as the foundation for and the goal of all UN actions. It might be useful to assess an activity in light of the mandate and the Charter's goals when unsure about its intended use. Carrying a pocket copy of the UN Charter with you is never a bad idea for these and other reasons.

DISCUSSION

A first step towards strategic synthesis is made during the diagnostic phase once the broad objectives of the company have been established. This phase's major objective is to learn more about the organization and its surroundings. This information may be utilized throughout the design process to create strategies and plans that will help the business reach its goals and guarantee the best possible fit with the environment. [7]

Planning at the UN is a difficult process involving many various organizations and political players, both within and outside of the UN. So, in order to better understand the important stakeholders those who will be impacted by the plans' outcomes and who may influence the plans' chances of success it may be useful to undertake a stakeholder analysis. Stakeholder analysis is covered in greater detail in the chapter on project management[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

The second analytical step in the process of developing strategic options is evaluating internal strengths and weaknesses. A team from diverse departments within the company is important in carrying out this activity since members inside the organization are likely to have differing viewpoints about the organization's strengths and shortcomings. Understanding the organization's key capabilities, financial status, organizational structure, and management culture is the aim. Resource limits must be properly taken into account since peace operations have little control over their own resources. As a consequence, it will become clearer if, how, and when the organization should participate in a certain activity in a peace operation. This choice also heavily relies on the mandate for that operation.

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CHAPTER 6

AN OVERVIEW OF THE BOUNDARIES OF THE MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Boundary management theory suggests that people create, maintain, and change the boundaries they hold around certain roles in order to simplify and classify the world around them. Boundaries are the rules and guidelines workers implement for themselves and human resources establish for a company to set clear lines between one's professional and personal life. Human resources departments often develop protocols to protect employees from workplace harassment.

KEYWORDS:

Human Resource, Industries, Leadership, Management, Organization.

INTRODUCTION

Trade in products and services was replaced by capital movements as the engine of the global economy. The connection between them became erratic and loose. The economy of the USA, Brazil, Japan, and India were influenced by the decline in raw material costs (with the exception of petroleum products), growing agricultural output, increased production of forest products, and the production of metals and minerals. With the exception of the Soviet Union, much of the world's food grain surplus production drove down food prices. For optimum utilization of raw materials, the stunning development of decreased raw material consumption for the same quantity of completed item production may be feasible. Manufacturing employment and production were decoupled. Despite increased output, blue-collar employment might be automated. Knowledge workers took on a central role. The "symbol" economy was created thanks to the proceeds from invisible commerce.

It was supposed to save two important economies, including those of the USA and the UK. In reality, at a time when industrial jobs were rapidly disappearing, the American entrepreneurial job engine created millions of jobs. Small and medium-sized, low-tech or no-tech firms generated all of the employment. Yet, the development of jobs in creative firms led to an unmanageable government deficit in the welfare state. Economic, social, and political systems suffered tremendous losses as a result of the inflationary cancer[1]. The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) would work to keep the cartel together without reducing oil output. Yet, energy consumption in industries like manufacturing and transportation had begun to decline relative to the expansion of the GNP. To encourage smaller companies that might sell below the cartel price, the powerful OPEC players reduced output by 40%. Market share would suffer, and the cartel's effects on product positioning would be long-lasting. The industrialized world would eventually purchase more expensive but politically secure supplies of petroleum. Reduced consumption would result from coercion.

Multinational corporations would use system choices. It would result in employment losses for the nation. Currency fluctuations would reduce the subsidiary's earnings in future growth areas.

Yet, economic realities would compel the multinational to change its status to transnational. Political circumstances would compel them to adopt more chauvinistic, nationalist, and protective stances. It is conventional opinion that a corporation would suffer significant losses if it did not trade in commodities or currencies. So, businesses would learn how to use hedging to safeguard themselves against foreign currency risks. Yet profit margin cannot be protected by hedging. The greatest method for a solely local operator to safeguard its finances is to internationalize it. Multinational may choose the speculative path. Although it was intended for floating exchange rates to be based on the trade balance, governments would implement rules to prevent manipulation.

Yet with all the talk about free trade, protectionism has always been an American trait. Up to the 1982 recession, US "multi-nationalism" increased the manufacturing labour market and provided work for people. Yet the dollar's inflated value paid the price. Protecting the nation's economic competitiveness has been a reasonable issue for policymakers. It must be included into the formulation of policies. It would not be unexpected if stronger protectionism allowed for foreign positions to be considered when crafting policy[2].

Some things to think about are the French government's emphasis on entrepreneurship, German venture capital for company startups, and a British proposal for government support for new business ventures. Yet low-tech or no-tech businesses are necessary to provide work for people. So, supporting strongly unionized smokestack businesses via subsidies and bailouts would continue. Every year, more than 6,000 000 industrial units begin operations in the US. Just 1.5% of it included advanced technology. More individuals would rather demanding, unglamorous occupations with solid career prospects in low- or middle-tech businesses, mostly in the public sector. High-tech stimulates the imagination but is not now profitable.

In contrast, Germany's industrial exports per capita were twice as high as those of Japan and the United States. Without being reliant on fewer sectors, it was much more evenly distributed. It had a huge entrepreneurial growth as well as a burgeoning labour market. These goals were all met with little inflation, low interest rates, and a small budget deficit. It enjoyed a huge trade and financial surplus. In the culture of apprentice training, theoretical and practical learning were done at the same time. The government gave their support. Yet even putting these aside, they should be studied for their overarching desire to make industries competitive in the global market. When one looks at Japan, one notices that the people there see business as a commitment. The relevance of age for superior positions among equals, lifetime employment, dedication to the provider as long as the product remains, investment in people's training, and lifelong work are a few of the variables to take into account. Finding a joint venture and the manufacturer taking care of the distributor and supplier are two things to bear in mind[3].

Economic theory and policy for the 20th century were affected by contemporary management prophets like Schumpeter and Keynes. They weren't hostile to one another despite having opposing political views. Keynes had a strong commitment to the free market. He wanted to put governments and politicians out of business. On the other side, Schumpeter supported intelligent monopoly. He placed more value on asking the right questions than on receiving the correct answers. Keynes and Schumpeter both had a unique definition of economics and saw various economic realities. According to Schumpeter, the contemporary economy is always in a state of dynamic disequilibrium, and profit serves an economic purpose. Marx believed that profit was the surplus value that had been taken from the workers, while Schumpeter's "The theory of economic development" demonstrated that only those who had made real inroads into a market generated true profit. His well-known statement, "Creative destruction," took into account capital creation and productivity to sustain an economy's ability to generate wealth. Keynes was more intelligent and bright than Schumpeter, who possessed the required wisdom.

Marshall and Sloan outlined fundamental guidelines for choosing the proper personnel. Which were:

- i. No cause for complaint. If an employee underperformed, the boss erred;
- ii. The organization's accountable individuals were expected to perform;
- iii. People-related decisions should be made carefully;
- iv. Giving positions to people whose conduct and habits were well-known was a good idea.

It would be important to consider the task carefully in order to make things achievable. Considering applicants who may be competent, giving them careful consideration, talking with multiple persons who worked with them, and ensuring that the new hires understood their roles were some of the things to bear in mind. The ratio of production units to the number of white collar workers on the payroll may be a simple but effective way to gauge white-collar productivity. Due to automation, the function of supervisors in an organization would be changing. An increasing generational difference, declining authority, and changes in labor relations would all be factors. Businesses were required to develop training plans as changes in technology, labor relations, and demography approached.

Executive remuneration would be the largest barrier to limiting wage/salary growth in the highly competitive economy. They left the company as a result of resentment in the union ranks and even among professionals and managers. The executive salary was given without increasing productivity by even one unit. Blue collar workers in the US earned about \$50,000 a year. That was practically on par with the after-tax pay for middle managers and engineers in unionized mass manufacturing units. Companies have to create rules in order to retain youthful staff. It would need imagination and ingenuity to satisfy the legal requirements for retaining ageing executives and the demographic requirement for establishing promotional possibilities for the younger employees. The creation of strategies for maintaining an enterprise's health via performance, productivity, and challenge would be required[4].

The need of funding professional education would emerge. Financing a professional education would become more challenging if expenses increased quicker. A professional school should be able to maintain itself and have the required financial independence with a reasonably modest fraction, or 5% of the graduate's earnings above the median salary. The mismatch between occupations and individuals would increase as professional education increased. People's values, expectations, and qualifications for work would change. Due to the shift in technology, individual professions and organizational structures would alter. The imbalance between the labour supply and demand for employment would be more affected by changes in the population and age structure. Companies would be forced to develop new structures, relationships, and policies as a result of the emergence of entrepreneurial individuals who would stimulate innovation. Employers would need to understand that jobs are things that are sold and advertised.

A new economic sector would arise around high-quality education. After a half-century of steadily declining economic rewards, it would be reasonable to anticipate adjustments. The main social event of the century was the profound shift in the economic status of the poorly skilled. During five years, it outperformed the whole pay package for a blue-collar worker, giving a run for their money to the sector's most spoiled darlings, the MBAs from elite B-Schools. But, things were shifting. Although while knowledge and talent are not a guarantee of success, without them, failure is almost a given. Knowledge and ability would become more and more important factors in the transition to knowledge-based employment and adoption of new technologies[5].

The Mayo Clinic is where management theory is systematically applied outside of the public sector. The military, contemporary university, and hospital were judged to be the institutions with the highest managerial awareness. But, in a society of organizations, management became an important social role and the main organ of social differentiation. Under the new pluralism, all institutions serve the same function: to teach and train individuals. One could dispute the legality of authority and the ownership rights of workers. In other words, management's task remained unchanged notwithstanding its success. Instead, it fundamentally altered what managing meant.

It would be crucial to have oversight of staff members' work. Corporate service personnel provided analysis, planning, and expertise. They advised and created policy. However in order for the personnel to be productive, they should only focus on a small number of high priority activities. Effective and productive operational personnel would be the genuine outcomes of staff labor. In the ICT-driven world, middle management is growing over a period of thirty years rather than contracting. Several organizations have had good expansion. It sought for fast expansion to cause obesity, much like inflation. It was not intended to replace positions left vacant by retirement, passing, or resignation. Going for employment expansion was the alternative strategy for reducing middle management[6].

Information-based organization would be required for management. Businesses like Citibank and Massey Ferguson were reorganizing their management structures to accommodate the information flow. There were fewer layers of administration and a flat organization. Seven out of the twelve levels might be removed. The organization was information-based, yet it was disciplined and had strong leadership. It valued performance and required self-control. Focusing on capital creation and productivity would entail acknowledging that the interests of the company and those of the employees were mutually exclusive. That may be seen as a rejection of the union's entire purpose for being. Strong management was essential in today's world. Also, it required an organ like a labour union. Yet the labour union would need to continue to be relevant if it was to develop into a vibrant, useful, and respectable institution. America's smoke stack industries must significantly increase their productivity. As comparison to Japan or Germany, the compensation was twice. As a result, profitability and competitiveness suffered. In principle, the labor leaders agreed. Yet, they weren't ready to discuss what they had been working on for years. If they refused restructuring, there would undoubtedly be a loss of employment and labour unions along with them.

The world is taught via discussions of management as a liberal art that individuals are profit centers. Moreover, the communication must be upward. To Drucker, defining the goals of the contemporary economy using values, customs, culture, and beliefs came easily. Even if management was influenced by science, he did not acknowledge it as such. The board of directors and management would fiercely oppose any stock market man oeuvre to acquire, combine, or divide a publicly owned corporation. In the 1970s and 1980s, it was unheard of. Companies did not go for acquisition unless management urged them to. They were driven to this avarice by the promise of quick expansion or diversification. Greed was fueled by structural changes in the economy, corporate capitalism, and inflation. Deliberations would be required on the sources of funding, the allure of cheap money, the risks of being defensive, and the collapse of corporate guardians. A hostile takeover was to be prevented for businesses[7].

It would be important to adhere to five acquisition success rules. The purchasing corporation should first consider what it can add to the company it is acquiring. Second, does it share a basic element of unity with the absorbed unit? Finally, the employees of the acquiring firm must appreciate the acquired company's customers, market, and product. Fourth, within a year of the merger, senior management from the acquiring business must be available to the new organization, and managers from both companies must get significant cross-functional advancements.

DISCUSSION

Bigger businesses could also focus on innovation. The instances were Merck, Citibank, and 3M. Innovations were occurring quickly in telecommunications, automobiles, manufacturing, banking and finance, medical, bio-genetics, bio-engineering, and bio-physics. Companies would need significant financial resources to compete in this climate. Contrary to their claims, the majority of businesses failed to expand at a 10% annual pace. Having excellent human resources would be difficult, particularly among managers and professionals. Even sluggish industries would be knocked by opportunities. But, it would only knock on the doors of deserving people. It was discovered that factory automation compensated for itself in three years. By lowering the cost of inaction, it allowed manufacturing to compete with low-priced international competitors. Market research is necessary to determine what extra income automation may generate. It necessitates a shift in emphasis from the cost per unit produced to the overall cost of the manufacturing process. Built by Thomas Watson Sr., IBM. He didn't become successful on his own until he was sixty. He had mediocre success with his time clock and tabulator. Aerial bomb and anti-craft gun were made feasible by his focus on statistics and knowledge. Watson's computer was a native of the United States. In today's world, it is rare to find a visionary like him. [8] "The teachings of the bell break apart" have something to teach everyone. They were compelled to make the important choice to install phones in every room as a result of antitrust actions against IBM and AT&T. Such changes were expected to hit the market. Fifteen years after the anti-trust liquidation, AT&T regained its position as the industry leader in technology[9]–[11].

CONCLUSION

This part finished with a discussion of wealth, business, and social responsibility. With scientific farming, Rosenwaldrealised the necessity for competence, production, and money. Long lead times, a willingness to try new things, and quitting the firm in the event of failure were all factors that William C. Norris considered to be contributions to research and development. Reindustrializing the United States would help it be more competitive abroad. The social obligation of business would be to raise money to support the financing of future employment. Today's need for capital creation would be comparable to that of a century ago. While generating enough profit to meet future expenditures would be the first social obligation of company, the correct social responsibility of business would be to transform a social issue into an economic

opportunity. Management was playing a bigger role in driving social innovation. To bring a variety of disciplines and abilities under science and technology research, researchers collaborated as a team. The idea of a "lab without a wall" operated as part of a larger plan and was directed from above. Karl Marx has valid arguments for considering peasants to be hopelessly stupid and unproductive. The increase in business productivity served as evidence. During the last 50 years, the discipline of management has evolved into a general social function. The goal became to make personal knowledge useful and personal deficiencies unimportant on a global scale. Everyone developed a niche. It would make sense to bring up Bismark. By the development of health insurance, old age pensions, and workmen's compensation insurance against industrial accidents, he produced social innovation. They were taken to stop a class conflict that posed a danger to society.

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CHAPTER 7

AN INTRODUCTION OF THE DIFFERENT PHASES IN MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Gradual management is often used to increase control and quality. This entails that a huge project be divided into smaller, more manageable phases, each of which is completed in a certain order and has a distinct deliverable. Usually, an evaluation of the deliverable and the performance of the project team is done at the conclusion of each phase. This aids the team in deciding whether the project moves on to the next phase or needs to be revised. It also decides how to enhance everyone's performance. The stages of a project are collectively referred to as the project life cycle and the industry-standard manual.

KEYWORDS:

Career Management, High Potential, Human Resource, Talent Management.

INTRODUCTION

The goals and analysis need to be merged into strategies and plans during the design process. Since they develop in unexpected ways, emergent strategies are by definition not a part of this process; yet, they will be examined again below. Strategic options produced from the analysis phase must be considered during strategy creation. Not every issue can be resolved with a single approach. Strategies should, instead, priorities an organization's actions and resource allocation while concentrating on particular issues. Alternate approaches that take these trade-offs into account might be developed in an effort to as closely adhere to the organization's purpose, vision, and goals. The final plans should include both advantages and advantages. After the creation of general strategies, appropriate work plans must be created, working their way from the top of the aforementioned hierarchies all the way down to the level of operations and individual activities. Planning is selecting particular activities with intention in order to accomplish the goals of the company, as was mentioned above. The "critical path method" for sequencing and prioritizing actions and "scenario planning" for managing uncertainty are two of the many techniques that can assist managers in making plans; they are briefly explained below, and literature references are provided at the end of the chapter for more information[1].

Implementation Phase

Plans are obviously only helpful if they are utilized and carried through. The implementation of well-laid plans may sometimes be so inadequate as to render them useless. For guidance and implementable techniques, see the chapters on project management, financial management, and assessment. Generally speaking, it is critical that accountability for monitoring the execution of plans be given unambiguously. Regular reporting obligations must also be set in addition to defining the supervisory tasks. Updates on the state of the plans' execution or lack therefor are crucial early markers for assessing a mission's success.

Evaluation Phase Evaluation

The component that turns a planning cycle out of an otherwise linear process. To be able to modify and update plans, an organization must demand continual examination of strategies by workers at all levels in addition to frequent reporting. In fact, developing a plan should take place both from the bottom up and from the top down. A field-level manager may contribute significantly in this area. Regular self-evaluation calls for the following questions: Are we succeeding in the objectives outlined in our mandate? Do our actions and the mission plan's tactics conflict in any way? Yes, but why? Do we need to update or enhance current tactics? Exist any new approaches to achieve objectives that have not been included in the mission plan?

Limitations of Strategic Planning

Understanding the boundaries of planning's consequences is crucial. There are many elements that, when present, increase the success of planning:

- i. The operational environment's stability,
- ii. The organization's maturity, which includes the presence of standard operating procedures and stable structures,
- iii. The ease of individual steps, despite the complexity of controlling and scheduling them.
- iv. Externality of control, which is when an outsider has the authority and the desire to command and control the organization.

While working settings are dynamic and volatile, missions are temporary rather than permanent activities, and influence over the direction of the organization is generally distributed rather than centralized, the UN, comparatively speaking, does not often benefit from many of these traits[2]. Yet, there are a number of elements that are often present in UN field operations that make preparation even more essential.

- i. Huge size: many employees, equipment, sites, etc.
- ii. Capital intensity: substantial resource investment
- iii. Complex organizational structures, elaborate integrated structures
- iv. Tight coupling: The operations of the organization are highly interdependent.

Comparing these lists to the features of UN field missions creates a contradictory picture since, at times, it might appear like both a requirement and an impossibility to design UN operations. In order to prepare missions for unforeseen events, relying on a scenario-based approach to planning that allows for accounting for some amount of uncertainty is a potential strategy. Periodic re-evaluations are also conducted at the mission level, often with assistance from HQ via technical assessment missions to determine the need of mandate revisions or mission reconfigurations. Occasionally, without altering the mandate, mission deficiencies, such as a failure to protect civilians, may also cause an adaptation of operational plans. This may be done by altering military deployments, the Concept of Operations, or providing specific instructions.

The complexity of this endeavor is increased by a variety of issues that are unique to the UN setting, in addition to the inherent difficulties in organizing UN field operations, such as the high degree of instability in post-conflict conditions. The area for planning and the degree of confidence with which plans may be created are further restricted by political demands, coordination difficulties, a lack of resources, and territorial rivalry. In certain situations, divulging strategy and intentions in advance may limit negotiating wiggle room with opposing parties. However a balance is necessary since the mission will need a planning framework in order to look for resources[3].

2010–2011 Integrated Strategic Framework (ISF)

As noted in a post disaster needs assessment (PDNA) conducted by the government of Haiti, the challenges Haiti faced in the wake of the January 2010 earthquake were numerous, and the UN system's presence in the nation was a reflection of the complexity and scope of the support required to address both urgent short-term and significant longer-term reconstruction needs. Under this situation, it was crucial that the whole UN system in Haiti coordinate its efforts to assist this initiative. The ISF was created by the multifaceted peacekeeping operation MINUSTAH and the UN country team in accordance with the UN Secretary-Resolution General's on Integration of June 2008. Nonetheless, the UN in Haiti had to innovate in order to remain relevant in a situation that was distinct from the typical post-conflict peacekeeping setting, even if it mainly adhered to the IMPP criteria.

During a retreat of MINUSTAH and top UN country team officials in July 2010, the ISF process was introduced, outlining the strategic direction of the UN in Haiti. To determine the strategic goals, outcomes, and distribution of duties for each pillar, including matrices and budgets, five ISF joint working groups (institutional reconstruction, territorial rebuilding, economic rebuilding, social rebuilding, and enabling environment) were created. This ISF differed from past "normal" ISFs in that it included a recovery and development component and that it had an eighteen-month schedule to fit with the government of Haiti's action plan. The ISF procedure received direction from the Integrated Strategic Planning Group (ISPG), a venue where MINUSTAH and the national team in Haiti regularly convened under the SRSG's supervision. To persuade some of the UN agencies (under pressure from their own headquarters) to completely buy into the process, strong leadership was needed from the SRSG, DSRSG, RC, or HC. The whole UN system in Haiti was then informed of the combined draught ISF plan in advance of the ISPG meeting that would approve it[4].

While the 2011 Consolidated Appeal for Haiti (CAP) and the ISF had distinct goals—the former sought to help peace consolidation and recovery, while the latter focused on humanitarian needs, especially the cholera response relevant CAP parts were in line with the ISF. Despite the fact that the ISF is typically an internal UN document, in the case of Haiti the DSRSG, RC, or HC informed the prime minister of its development, and during its development, discussions were held with the Ministry of Planning and other ministries at the technical level as well as with important foreign donors in Haiti. A meeting with the Ministry of Planning was scheduled as a last step to officially submit the ISF and request government approval. A small monitoring and evaluation team, headed by the ISF planning team, was established as part of the follow-up procedure to track progress in relation to established goals and metrics, with M&E focus points for each ISF pillar.

Early in 2011, UN management reviewed the ISF in order to detect delays in certain outcomes and examine the causes of these delays as well as possible solutions. Yet, accountability turned out to be a significant problem. The UN in Haiti attempted to solve this particular problem when the ISF was extended until 2012 by selecting a lead agency or MINUSTAH department for each of the ISF goals. The planning process has to be flexible, and support from the national team and the UN mission is crucial. To do this, it often calls for leadership from the SRSG and DSRSG or RC or HC. Even though it was occasionally challenging to maintain the process at the strategic level, it ultimately paid off in terms of developing strategic coherence and getting the country team and the mission to acknowledge that they share many similar objectives and to work together to achieve these in support of the Haitian people[5].

Understanding Leadership

A company's leadership gives guidance for its employees. Workers must be aware of the company's direction and who to follow in order to get there. Leadership entails routinely monitoring the accomplishment of duties by team members and demonstrating to them how to carry out their jobs efficiently. Setting a good example for your team to follow by being enthusiastic about your job, driven to learn new things, and willing to pitch in when required in both individual and group activities is another important aspect of leadership.

One aspect of effective leadership is having a solid character. Leaders demonstrate ethics, honesty, and reliability. Leaders acquire the right to be held accountable for others' achievement in the organization by acting in accordance with their words. Clear communication skills are essential for effective leadership.

Leaders interact with and pay attention to their team members, address their questions and concerns, and demonstrate empathy. Leaders employ strong communication abilities to advance their organizations and reach new heights of success. True leadership prepares the measures required to bring the organization where it wants to go. Leaders must see possibilities, observe market trends, and take calculated risks to expand the company[6]. Positive energy is given to the workforce by effective leadership, which exudes positivity. Excellent leaders are encouraging and really care about others' welfare. When problems arise, leaders identify solutions and reassure and motivate employees. The best leaders discover opportunities for their teams to collaborate and get the greatest possible outcomes[7], [8].

DISCUSSION

A deliverable is a component of an output that is within the purview of a project. It is the end outcome of work that was done throughout the project process with an objective emphasis. Project management deliverables may be internal or external. An internal deliverable is work that is completed inside your organization but is not visible to outsiders. Work completed for a client, customer, or stakeholder with the intention of making money is referred to as an external deliverable. In either scenario, it often indicates that a precise deadline has been set for the delivery. While goals and project deliverables are often connected, there is a distinct distinction between the two. A deliverable is a tangible product produced as part of a project, while an objective is a broad aim. Thus that would be an aim if you wanted to learn more about your customer base. A deliverable would be a report that you would create in order to accomplish this aim[9]–[11].

CONCLUSION

Early in the planning process, often in a project management plan, project deliverables are decided upon. This is so because when a corporation establishes its OKRs before to starting a project, deliverables and goals will be combined.

Inaccurately stated deliverables are a significant risk factor for project failure, claims CIO.com. For this reason, project managers should set up precise, quantifiable, and high-quality deliverables from away. The way to the project's success will be evident once they are put in place. Throughout the course of a project, a lot of different things might occur, and as a consequence, deliverables can differ somewhat.

The objective in this situation is to keep an eye out for any scope creep risk and manage any modifications to keep the project on track. This can include raising the quantity of project deliverables that were initially specified during the planning phase. A project manager may monitor project deliverables and communicate changes to stakeholders by preparing routine reports. Using flexible project management software is crucial to facilitating rapid and simple communication of any changes.

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CHAPTER 8

AN OVERVIEW OF STRATEGIC TALENT MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Talent management is how employers recruit and develop a workforce that is as productive as possible and likely to stay with their organization long term. When implemented strategically, this process can help improve the overall performance of the business and ensure that it remains competitive. Talent management is the full scope of HR processes to attract, onboard, develop, motivate, and retain high-performing employees. Talent management is aimed at improving business performance through practices that make employees more productive.

KEYWORDS:

Work Environment, Human Resource, Management, Organization, Strategic Talent.

INTRODUCTION

Academics and practitioners have given talent management a great deal of attention. The relatively recent emphasis on talent management can be seen as a paradigm shift away from more traditional human resource-related sources of competitive advantage literature, such as those that focus on organizational elites, including upper echelon literature, and strategic human resource management, towards the management of talent specifically suited to today's dynamic competitive environment. Even if the environment may have drastically altered throughout the latter part of the 20th century, the concept of talent management is still essential. In the recessionary climate of the latter half of the first decade of the twenty-first century, it's possible that the goal of maximizing an organization's competitive advantage in human capital is even more crucial. Our definition of strategic talent management includes the systematic identification of key positions that contribute differently to the organization's sustainable competitive advantage. It also includes the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill these roles, the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to make it easier to fill these roles with qualified incumbents and to ensure their continuity, and the systematic identification of key positions[1].

It is important to keep in mind that vital positions may exist at levels below the top management team (TMT), differ across operational units, and even change over time. I was motivated to write this evaluation for two major reasons. First off, despite the field's growing importance and more than a decade of debate and fanfare, the concept of talent management is still nebulous. The definition, scope, and overarching goals of people management are alarmingly unclear to practitioners, according to the results of a recent paper. Although only 20.0% of the HR professionals surveyed in the UK employed a formal notion of talent management in this context, 51.0% of them participated in talent management activities. Thus, a full description of the concept's definition, the current state of the talent management literature is made worse by the fact that there has been very little theoretical growth in the area. Academic studies on the

topic and its practical usefulness have been constrained by the aforementioned gaps in the talent management literature. Several factors make this defect significant. Most significantly, a sizable body of strategic HRM literature has focused on the potential of human resources as a source of long-term competitive advantage and argued that the assets and competencies that support firms' competitive advantage are closely related to the qualifications of the talented people who comprise the firm's human capital pool. In addition, a recent study of 40 global organizations found that almost all of them admitted a lack of talent pipelines to fill key positions inside the organization, which greatly limited their ability to grow their businesses. Last but not least, activities related to talent management consume a lot of organizational resources. In fact, a recent study found that Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) are taking an increasing amount of initiative in the people management process, with the majority of those surveyed allocating more than 20.0% of their time and some as much as 50.0% to talent-related problems[2].

Due to the current situation of the economy, the problem for firms trying to weather the current economic crisis has evolved from organizational growth to organization sustainability. Hence, talent management is an issue that interests a wide range of stakeholders outside of human resource (HR) academics and professionals. According to the Economist Intelligence Unit, the majority of CEOs explicitly said that talent management was too important to be left up to HR alone, and talent management was listed as one of the top five concerns for HR in Europe in a study by the Boston Consulting Group. The BCG findings were based on the skills that executives thought were most critical for managing human capital, as well as and perhaps more importantly those that they thought their companies lacked. As a result, the subject is undoubtedly relevant for academics and professionals working in a variety of fields, including strategic management, human resources, and organizational behavior. The unique contribution of the current research is the formulation of an exact and condensed concept of strategic talent management. We also provide a theoretical foundation for tactical talent management. In doing so, we assemble information from several various literary backgrounds. So, the following methods ought to assist future talent management research:

- i. Supporting the researchers' conceptualization of talent management's boundaries.
- ii. Providing a theoretical framework that may help academics organize their efforts to do field research.

Also, it aids managers in solving some of the issues they run across with talent management. There is plenty of discussion about the conceptual boundaries of the issue in a fast read of the talent management literature. It was evident that recruitment and selection process had one, distinct meaning. Notwithstanding this criticism, there are three primary ways of thinking about talent management. First, those who exclusively refer to talent management as human resource management. Research conducted in this area often focus only on certain HR practices, like as recruiting, leadership development, succession planning, among related activities. As it effectively rebrands HRM, this literature has limited impact outside of the strategic HR literature. Building talent pools, forecasting human resource needs, and managing career development are the subjects of a second body of writing. Publications in this lineage often reference earlier research from the literature on workforce planning or succession planning. Studies in this lineage at least indicate a distinction between intellectual capital and HRM, despite their somewhat narrow focus. The third stream focuses on managing talented people. This literature recognizes the removal of "C" performers, or those who consistently perform

below average, from the company and suggests that all positions be filled by top-grading personnel. We accept the shortcomings of the third technique, which is nonetheless extremely effective, and argue that it is not acceptable nor appropriate to fill every position inside the organization with top performers[3].

According to this, it may be difficult to discern between talent management and conventional human resource management if an organization's whole workforce including both high achievers and underperformers is subject to the talent management system. In addition to the three streams of thought listed above, we recognize and add a fourth, emerging stream of talent management thinking that emphasizes the identification of essential jobs with the potential to substantially alter the firm's competitive advantage. The crucial positions should be recognized first, as opposed to concentrating on one unique individual at a time. The latter approach informs our theoretical development. As a result, as previously mentioned, we see organizational talent management strategies as activities and processes that entail the systematic identification of key positions that contribute in various ways to the organization's competitive edge that is sustainable, the development of a talent pool of high potential and high trying to perform incumbents to fill these roles, and indeed the development of a differentiated people management architecture to facilitate filling these roles with competent candidates.

Our theory is built around the notion that the core of any talent management plan should be the rigorous identification of the essential positions that individually contribute to an organization's sustainable competitive advantage. This is consistent with the increasing idea that roles inside organizations should be more clearly distinguished, with a focus on strategic vs nonstrategic vocations or between organizational activities that have only marginal influence and those that may deliver above-average effect. The present tendency in many organizations, however, is to overinvest in non-strategic positions. The second part of our formulation is focused on the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill the jobs that specifically contribute to an organization's sustained competitive advantage. In line with the first element of our definition, we also argue that businesses should distinguish between employees must have essential or strategic roles in order for such positions to have a clear impact on the performance of the firm[4].

This point of view is in opposition to some of the earlier contributions that made the assertion that only top performers should be hired for all organizational positions. Also, it differs from the "fight for talent" approach advocated by the McKinsey consultants who encourage managing "C players" consistently substandard performers out of the organization. While the first approach runs counter to our call for a separation between critical roles and important employees in businesses, we do not endorse it. It is neither practical nor desirable to have performers in every position within a corporation. As a result, the business would spend excessively on non-pivotal tasks. Similar to this, we contend that rather than focusing on the whole workforce, talent management systems should focus on high-potential and high-performing employees who play crucial roles. Such a plan will make it possible to employ organizational assets on purpose. The last portion of our definition highlights the need of having a unique human resource architecture to make it simpler to employ suitable people for key positions inside a firm and ensure their loyalty to it.

We use ideas from the scholarship on strategic human resources in this regard. This aspect of our definition connects with the other two by making it easier to identify high potential and high performing employees as well as by promoting the enlargement of the organization's talent pool. After these individuals have been identified, the challenge for the business is to put in place the proper human resource procedures to ensure their strategic placement and support[5].

An essential first step in the development of the subject is to define the conceptual boundaries of strategic talent management. It provides academics and professionals with a framework for doing field research. Also, it is essential in assisting in the differentiation between strategic talent management and strategic human resource management. In this regard, we argue that, in contrast to strategic human resource management, which has recently acknowledged the varying contributions of various groups of employees within the firm, strategic talent management focuses on incumbents who are a part of the organization's pivotal talent pool and who either occupy pivotal talent positions or are being prepared to do so. Finally, a clear description provides a useful place to start for the field's theoretical growth. Next, we will provide a theoretical framework for strategic talent management that combines data from several unrelated but connected study fields.

Model of Strategic Talent Management

Our theoretical framework for strategic talent management is shown in Figure 1. The notion of strategic talent management mentioned above serves as the model's foundation. We now go into further depth about the model.

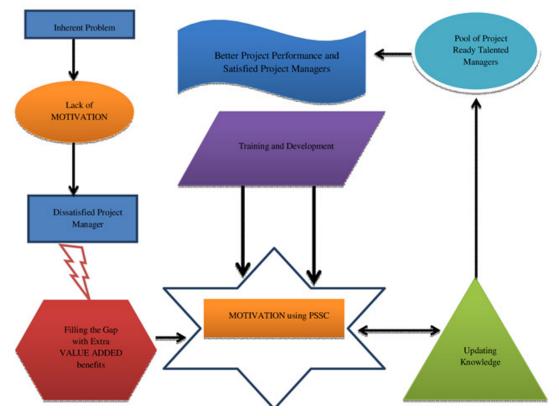


Figure 1: Represented the Block Diagram of Strategic Talent Managemnet.

Identifying Pivotal Talent Positions

Identifying key talent roles to ensure their growth and retention a growing body of research encourages an emphasis on the identification of crucial jobs or positions with the ability to have a different influence on long-term competitive advantage. Some strategic HRM (SHRM) experts advocate a bottom-up approach to the development of their theories, stressing the notion that workers may contribute to the strategic purpose of the company only by virtue of their worth and individuality. A top-down approach contends that not all strategic processes will be heavily reliant on human capital and that people have (strategic) value when they are able to contribute to a company's strategic goals. They understand that the work, not the individual person, should be the center of distinction in terms of fit. A position's disproportionate relevance to a company's capacity to carry out particular aspects of its plan, as well as the broad range of work quality that is shown by those holding these roles. While the company's workforce to which we will return below includes its strategic human capital, it is the systems and procedures of the organization that develop, manage, and guarantee that the strategic human capital's contribution is maximized[6].

If human capital isn't used to carry out the organization's strategic objective, it has little economic worth. In the end, the secret is to discriminate between strategic and non-strategic stances. They are aware, nevertheless, that they haven't fully quantified the strategic significance of certain positions or what makes one job more valuable than another. The way that companies see role and job assessment must shift quite fundamentally in order to engage with such problems. Jobs used to be distinguished based on inputs including skills, effort, and talents as well as working environment. This strategy places a strong emphasis on assessment in terms of possible outputs or a role's ability to support organizational strategic aim. Yet another important factor to take into account is how much different individuals in crucial jobs perform. Although certain jobs have strategic importance, others may have very uniform performance standards and little room for difference due to legislation, standardized training, or professional certification. As a result, strategically significant responsibilities that provide possible performance distinction in the function should have a special place in an organization's strategic talent management systems. We distinguish between average and marginal impact and contend that even if something may be very valued, changing its quantity may only have a little effect.

Therefore, the term pivotal is used to describe the marginal impact of resources, activities, and decisions on value to the organization. This calls for talent segmentation and a focus on the pivotal talent pools where an increase or decrease of 20.11% in quality or availability would have the greatest impact on organizational success. They contend that since most businesses lack a decision science to guide talent segmentation, they often overinvest in talent pools that are significant but not crucial, while underinvesting in crucial talent pools[7].

DISCUSSION

We define strategic talent management as the activities and processes that include the systematic identification of key positions that differently contribute to the organization's long-term competitive advantage, the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill these roles, and the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these roles with qualified incumbents and to guarantee the organization's long-term competitive advantage. A company must first identify the internal jobs that have the ability to have a differential influence on performance if it is to fully use the

potential of its internal personnel. The focus only then changes to filling such posts. To fill these crucial roles, we contend that the establishment of a talent pool of high potential and high performing workers is crucial. Lastly, we emphasize the need for a distinct HR architecture to support both of these phases in order to optimize the potential for using the talent pools. We suggest that firms will perform better if they use strategic talent management systems in this fashion. To represent the importance of the organization's talent pool's attitudes and actions in reaching this objective, we incorporate a variety of mediating factors rather than implying that strategic talent management directly causes these firm level outcomes. These factors take into account the role that the talent pool plays in attaining financial success. We believe that our framework and definition for strategic talent management will guide and inspire future talent management scholars. The model described in the current work might be experimentally tested in further studies in the field[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

It is rather ironic that the idea of talent management still has a lackluster theoretical foundation given the quantity of attention it has received over the last ten years. According to this analysis of recent literature, talent management is still in its infancy from a theoretical standpoint, and further theoretical development is needed. This study makes two contributions: it develops a precise and succinct definition of strategic talent management and proposes a theoretical framework for it. In doing so, we gather knowledge from several distinct literature backgrounds. By assisting in the clarification of the conceptual limits of talent management and by offering a theoretical framework that might aid in structuring their research efforts in the area, the study seeks to facilitate future research in the field of talent management. Also, it ought to help managers deal with some of the talent management-related problems they encounter. The elaboration of a research agenda in the field of talent management is therefore represented by this publication. While some helpful theoretical advancements have been made up to this point, talent management need to be developed if it is to become more widely accepted.

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CHAPTER 9

AN ANALYSIS OF THE COMMUNICATION FUNCTION IN MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Communication is a core managerial function that includes not only the exchange of information but also the management of information within and beyond the organization. Effective communication entails attentive listening and the clear delivery of messages to enable a shared understanding. Effective communication within an organization and with outside stakeholders is a key element in the successful fulfillment of a mandate.

KEYWORDS:

Augmentative Communication, Brain Computer Interface, Communication, Rehabilitation, Brain Machine Interface.

INTRODUCTION

A manager may use communication to get support, convince, inspire, gather information, spark ideas, educate, and even to provide constructive criticism or cool down enraged employees. It is a tool that an administrator may use to understand their team's strengths and limitations. It need good communication to function successfully. Exchange of information may often be just as significant as formal communication; the manner in which something is conveyed is just as significant as the message itself. As a result of the enormous range of UN field personnel and the multifaceted environment in which missions work, communication is not only more difficult but also a so much more vital instrument. A shared understanding of what has to be done is often necessary for a peace operation to succeed. In this sense, engagement and establishing that communication with external partners and stakeholders are crucial. This chapter explains the significance of strategic communications, gives strategies to improve your writing, speaking, delivering, and listening abilities, and provides standards for intercultural communication[1].

Types of Communication

An organization's communication style and flow usually reflect its organizational structure:

- i. In a hierarchical setting, communication is more likely to be formal, written, and topdown.
- ii. People prefer to communicate more face-to-face, via casual e-mails, and up as much as down in a flatter, less hierarchical environment.

A combination of the two are peace operations. UN field missions combine a de facto flatter organizational structure while having a formal, hierarchical organizational structure since they are made up of a variety of largely independent components military, civilian, police. Hence, communication cannot just be top-down and hierarchical. Also, staff members may act in a less

formal, more flexible way when working at a field duty station, where rank may not be as important as it is at headquarters. The way a manager interacts with his or her team and distributes work might sometimes depend more on interpersonal skills than on performance. Effective communication for a manager in this mixed context necessitates a stakeholder analysis:

- i. Who makes up my team? Whom do we relate to, both within and outside the company?
- ii. What format and media are best for communicating my message?
- iii. What are the restrictions and sensitivities?

Your chosen method of communication formal memos, e-mail, phone, Skype, scheduled and scripted meetings, one-on-one dinners, or simply a pleasant chat depends on your responses. The responses should also influence how you gather information, including how you pay attention, what you infer from silences, which meetings you choose to attend, what tasks you delegate, and who you turn to for advice[2].

It is frequently helpful to perform a quick mapping exercise in a complex environment, listing the stakeholders you and your team have daily contact with regarding important issues, the people within your own organization with whom you and your team frequently interact, and other significant external contacts in the local and global community. Determine the most prevalent and suitable channels and modes of communication for each stakeholder, as shown in Table 1. The decision also relies on how sensitive the mission's mandate is to external stakeholders. Whenever in doubt, reciprocity is often the best tactic. Just speak with them as they interact with you.

Immediate, Familiar Work Environment	Style: most informal Tools: walk-in verbal exchanges, team meetings without formal agenda or minutes, Emails, occasionally key issues are formally documented
Inside the Organization	Style: based on hierarchy and functional distance, varies from formal to informal Tools: phone calls, scheduled one-to-one group meetings with notes or minutes circulated, Emails, memoranda of understanding, newsletters, internal rules and regulations are documented and disseminated, manuals provided
Professional Contacts Outside the Organization	Style: mainly formal Tools: emails; scheduled one-to-one and group meetings with formal minutes or aide-memoirs; letters; contracts; newsletters
Public at Large, Customers, Clients, Beneficiaries	Style: ranging from journalistic and popular to formal and academic, depending on the organization's "persona" Tools: broadcast Emails via list servers; publications; website; social media; media releases; public events

Table 1: Represented the Communication of Stakeholders.

Building Trust

The foundation of successful communication is trust. By giving his or her team information, such as summaries of the conferences he or she attends, and by encouraging them to share and debate information freely, a manager may create and build credibility with his or her team. As a result, the manager will see that an acceptable two-way communication develops, benefiting from positive and often crucial interactions with the team. Face-to-face interaction is often necessary to create trust since it helps individuals get to know one another personally. If email is not an option, voice communication via the phone offers a different sort of interaction that is more personalized[3].

The bare minimum of information will trickle down if there is a lack of trust between the employees and management, and it will often just take the shape of guidance documents and instructions when flowing from the manager. When fear and uncertainty take precedence over the willingness to communicate openly and candidly with management, distrust among the team members will translate into far too little upward communication. Just the information that the superiors wish to hear will be provided by the staff. In accordance with the setting and the audience, several communications may be used to develop trust.

One-on-one interactions and an environment of open doors are crucial in developing two-way communication when talking with people. Respecting the privacy of certain communications and, where necessary, the sender's identity should also be given due consideration. A memorandum may not be as effective as meetings for town halls, brown-bag lunches, or web-based approaches such as intranet and video teleconferences. Some of these meetings might be planned on a regular schedule to provide staff members enough time to be ready. Building trust and communicating clearly your message may also be determined by your decision on the working language of your purpose or the language where your audience speaks the most[4].

Verbal Communication

Effectively presenting ideas and thoughts as well as actively listening to counterparts are both necessary for efficient verbal communication. Since successful communication requires a two-way interaction, it is crucial to actively listen to others. A decision-maker in any operations must be able to listen to the opinions of others in order to make an educated choice. This applies to both internal stakeholders and external stakeholders, most significantly the local community. Listening skills are not always visible.

Nonetheless, it may be learned with time and effort. Learn to read between the lines by watching the speaker's nonverbal clues, such as their facial expressions, tone of voice, posture, and bodily gestures, in order to become a better listener (and to be seen as a better listener). An evident and continuous but neglected talent is effective speaking. A manager should plan, practice, assess, and practice again as needed while participating in formal interactions, like as presentations. In general, a speaker should strive to while speaking in front of an audience[5]:

i. Simplify

Use clear language and reasoning to communicate your ideas in an understandable way. Keep in mind that hearing is usually more difficult for your audience than reading, thus spoken arguments must be simpler than written ones.

ii. Prepare

Consider the queries that your listeners could have.

iii. Be Vivid but Natural

If you come out as not being engaged in what you're saying, your audience won't pay attention. Talk slowly and naturally while speaking with excitement.

iv. Be Concise

Consider the time limits while you concentrate on what has to be conveyed. You need to be mindful of your audience's shifting focus.

Written Communication

The ability to convey a point in writing that is clear, succinct, and instructive is surprisingly uncommon. Good writing abilities will always be essential for effective managers due to the everyday communication requirements of a field assignment. It is crucial to communicate information properly and effectively both internally and to the corporate office and external partners. Sadly, writing proficiency is often overlooked in professional development courses. E-mails, notes, and reports help to keep track of the decision-making process and to update others, even if verbal contact in person is essential for establishing trust and closing a business. Hence, written communication is a crucial instrument for managing institutional memory and knowledge. Keep in mind that another manager might replace you, therefore continuity must be ensured to prevent losing important progress or, in the worst scenario, losing trust[6].

External Communication

Public information officers (PIOs) are nominally in charge of external relations in field operations. However, field mission personnel engage in daily interactions with a variety of distinct external stakeholders as part of the scope of their respective mandates, from national and local authorities, political parties, and civil society organisations to global humanitarian organisations and the donor community. The interactions can range from casual chats with villagers to formal meetings with representatives of the national and international governments, oral presentations, or formal written materials to headquarters like code cables, Secretary-General Reports, and ad hoc reports, or to donors like the Peacebuilding Fund reporting requirements, etc. The stakes are much greater when speaking on behalf of a UN field mission in an outside environment, even if many of the suggestions for public speaking and written communications outlined above are applicable regardless of the situation. Misunderstandings and distrust may result from a lack of or inadequate communication, which can make it difficult for the UN mission to carry out its job. It is vital that reporting rules be rigorously followed when informing funders, which necessitates tight collaboration with the mission's administrative components. It is crucial to use utmost caution while presenting mission policies in public to prevent delivering confusing or, worse still, contradicting signals. A delayed response is preferable than having to recant a false or misleading remark[7].

Cross-Cultural Communication

The taught values and standards that influence a person's or a community's behavior are an element of culture. Given the "hyper multicultural" setting that defines UN field missions,

effective cross-cultural communication is a continual need. Different institutional cultures that may exist between parts of a peace operation, such as military and civilian or substantive and support, might make things more difficult. Active listening, sharp observation, and acceptance of diversity are necessary for effective cross-cultural communication. Understanding fundamental cultural differences and knowing how to use this understanding practically are crucial for managing and getting the best out of a team. One's culture has an impact on how they think, feel, behave, and communicate. No matter how different from one another they may be, the individuals you deal with in a peace operation all think their ideas, emotions, and activities to be "normal." Their culture provides them with a framework of understanding and sense of self that they take for granted. In reality, cultural differences might impede effective communication between coworkers and the several parties involved in a peace effort. Recognizing significant cultural variations might make it easier for you to modify your communication approach for various contexts. Examples from the list below illustrate some fundamental cultural variances that may occur across individuals. Yet, no one individual or group will completely fit into any category, as is the case with every generalization[8].

DISCUSSION

While further study is needed to refine, adapt, and institutionalize the results of this project implementation review, the research may still provide useful practical advice since project governance is more than simply a single designated job. People with a number of various formal position titles may practice the discipline of programmer management given the wide range of circumstances in which it may be advantageous to a company. Thus, extensive training and communications are needed in order to fully use the approach's advantages. Relationship-based project manager is effective. The goal of product management should be to facilitate the stakeholder connections necessary for project managers to be effective. If projects are to continue to be aligned with the overarching drivers and strategic direction of the organization in the context of a changing environment, it is essential to establish a sufficient continuing link between the projects within the programme and the larger company. To ensure that they collaborate well and keep their attention collectively on achieving the overall business value, it is also a critical component of the programme management position to foster successful connections between the various project managers within the programme [9], [10].

CONCLUSION

This essay has claimed that programme management encompasses a lot more than merely overseeing significant projects. A critical analysis of the literature revealed that, in order to address the cultural, political, and organisational issues at the programme level, a distinctive viewpoint and strategy are needed. The study has stated that two false assumptions, namely that project management and programme management are basically identical, and that a single standard method to programme management is appropriate in all cases, are to blame for the inadequacies of conventional programme management approaches. These incorrect assumptions give rise to a number of specific problems, including. A dysfunctional and bureaucratic approach to programme management brought on by an overzealous emphasis on control and a lack of effective coordination between programs and a changing business environment and at last lost chances to foster true, efficient collaboration and mutual learning among project managers.

The use of a set of tools and techniques that are functionally identical to their project management equivalents, the insistence on a rigid programme hierarchy, and the assumption of a

linear programme lifecycle can all be linked to these problems in terms of the mechanical components of the standard programme management approaches. We contend that in order to overcome these problems, programme management research and practice that emphasizes relationship management and facilitates the gradual evolution of a programme through time are necessary.

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CHAPTER 10

AN OVERVIEW OF THE MANAGING PEOPLE PROCESS IN MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

HR is the root of people management, which involves executives and workers everywhere in a corporation. Good people management helps boost morale and engagement across staff members, lower attrition, as well as increase team communication. Let's examine what people management is, how it helps teams, and the abilities essential for good organizational leadership. All duties including new talent, job satisfaction, and career advancement are handled by people managers. They are often in command of new employee onboarding and training.

KEYWORDS:

Environmental Management, Human Resource, Sustainability, AMO Theory.

INTRODUCTION

Managing people is about enabling and empowering employees to provide their best efforts, both as individuals and as a group. To guarantee that the work of each employee and the unit as a whole can be both satisfying and sustainable, it takes great communication skills and relentless attention. The bulk of the United Nations peacekeeping budget for 2011 was assigned to human expenditures, with more than 7,200 international and 25,000 national civilians assigned in thirty peacekeeping and special political missions across the globe, along with roughly 100,000 uniformed soldiers. Although UN staff, many of whom work in harmful and remote environments between six and seven days a week, expect to be treated fairly and supported adequately by member states and UN management, member states want to see those resources to be managed efficiently and effectively in support of difficult mandates. International civil servants working in un peacekeeping operations, who currently make up 45% of the UN Secretariat, have a right to expect chances to develop their skills and mobility, training, and suitable contracts and working conditions that accommodate their service in challenging locations and their social position as international civil servants[1].

Managing people is difficult no matter what position you have, but it's particularly difficult at the UN. Besides the military and police, local and foreign civilians are deployed. The workforce is always changing whenever people join missions and leave them for various lengths of time. The expertise, experience, and motivation of the staff members also vary. Every six months, a mission's scope might change. At a workplace with a multitude of backgrounds and languages, where employees are stressed out and often away from their families, conflicts between regional staff members may readily occur. According to Figure 1, the conditions of a job are dependent on grade and position, and demonstrate the feasibility is often bureaucratic, complicated, and

centralized, giving employees little power to affect the progression or pay of the employees they are responsibility for. So, the UN manager often has a lot of duty and little power.



Figure 1: Display the Different Properties of People Management.

To get their staff to collaborate and achieve the mission's objectives, managers must be aware of the skills, talents, strengths, and weaknesses of each person. Notwithstanding the variety of the workforce and the inherent complexity of the operational setting, managers' success relies on their capacity to coordinate, oversee, coach, and motivate people towards shared objectives. The fundamental ideas covered in the previous chapter on communication are continued in this chapter. It offers advice on how to become the kind of manager that others want to be like: the manager that behaves honorably, delegated wisely, respected employees, enhanced staff performance, mentored, and promoted a collegial environment in the workplace[2].

To manage people effectively, one must promote an upbeat work atmosphere and inspire them to provide their best effort. Managers with these qualities are referred described as having "people skills." They establish a work environment and culture that will enable their employees to succeed and get along with others in the company. They don't go out of their way to be nice, but they are aware of how to interact with the different groups in their area. The following are significant components to successful people management that are talked about in this section:

i. **Open Dialogue with Staff**

Make an effort to be approachable and to treat your personnel like people whose views are appreciated. Participate in choices with them, and when necessary, delegate. Spend some time talking to each person separately.

ii. Know how to use Management Tools Made Available by the Organization

Recognize and communicate the value of job descriptions, guidelines, job postings, unit work plans, individual work plans, and performance evaluation systems (e.g., e-PAS). When attempting to remedy subpar performance, the latter is particularly crucial.

iii. Know how to Link Performance with Positive Incentives and Negative Consequence

Find methods to commend excellent work. Send them an email of congratulations, or publicly thank them for a job well done. Poor performance should be documented using official methods like e-PAS and Performance Improvement Plans.

iv. Respect the Private Life of your Staff

Currently, a dependent widow or kid lives with over 70% of foreign staff members working in peace missions. Recognize that corporate local and expat employees have lives outside of the workplace and their place of duty, and that taking time off improves performance at work. Encourage employees to use their paid time off and rest and recovery (R&R) benefits.

Empowerment through Information

Currently, a dependent widow or kid lives with over 70% of foreign staff members working in peace missions. Recognize that corporate local and expat employees have lives outside of the workplace and their place of duty, and that taking time off improves performance at work. Encourage employees to use their paid time off and rest and recovery (R&R) benefits.

The best method for disseminating significant information is via a staff meeting and an open discussion. These gatherings need to encourage discussion and encourage participation from various viewpoints. Everyone benefits from open communication because it makes people feel heard and it gives management a greater understanding of their employees' worries. Communication regarding potential job opportunities inside the organization might be especially difficult during times of mission reconfiguration and drawdown. Future uncertainty may increase tensions within the mission or result in workers leaving early at crucial junctures. Issues with employee management must be handled with the utmost openness, predictability, and frequent staff contact. Given how engrossed managers and workers are usually with day-to-day work, it might sometimes be good to meet away from the office environment for a day or two. Retreats provide beneficial possibilities for brainstorming while establishing shared objectives or resolving issues[3].

People Management Tools

i. Job Description

Every employee of an organization is chosen based on a job description that outlines the duties and responsibilities of their position as well as the minimal requirements for education and experience. Yet, the employer could require the employee to carry out duties not included in the job description. This may occur when a management loses sight of what an employee is expected to do, but it can also happen for a variety of reasons, such as operational needs, updated rules and regulations, the availability of new technology, etc. When this occurs, it is the manager's duty to inform the employee about the changes to the work and what the employee may need to be able to satisfy the new job standards. Consider taking training classes if you need to develop new talents. It cannot be believed that employees would automatically comprehend new needs, adapt to them, or develop the necessary competencies.

ii. Performance Appraisal System

Every successful company has a system in place to assess the work of its employees. It is the manager's responsibility to fully appreciate the significance of the performance management system in place at their company and to carefully carry it out. The goals of performance management systems are to reward top performers, keep them on staff, and make it easier for them to advance. As a powerful but underutilized tool for improving performance, performance management may also be used to discipline or even fire employees who consistently perform

below expectations. The system is also anticipated to encourage continual discussion about unique goals and strategies. Typically, performance evaluation systems include three fundamental parts: The unit work plan comes first, followed by the individual work plan and the end-of-cycle review[4].

Unit Work Plan

It is the manager's obligation to provide draughts of the unit work plan to the team members. To make sure that everyone on the team has contributed to the plan and that there is a common understanding of what the unit is expected to accomplish and how this will contribute to the organization's overarching purpose, a team discussion should be held. The work plan of a unit may vary in response to changes in the mission statement, and it is the manager's obligation to discuss any adjustments with the workforce. It is crucial for the manager to regularly review the unit work plan with personnel, regardless of any changes to the work plan of the unit.

Individual Work Plan

Each worker has to be aware of how their work affects the efficiency of their team. Similar to a contract, the employee's individual work plan outlines the objectives they must meet during the reporting period. Such clarity lowers the possibility of a miscommunication and makes it possible for managers and employees to have ongoing discussions about how to meet both individual and team goals. Every employee, including Undersecretaries General, should have a work schedule. These compacts are significant enough to warrant publication, ensuring that every employee is aware of the outcomes to which the department's leadership has committed. The finest work plans include "SMART" goals, which stand for specified, measurable, assignable, realistic, and time-bound objectives[5].

End-of-Cycle Appraisal

Last but not least, it's critical to evaluate the overall results of a work cycle. What kind of development has the organization made? Has the work plan for the unit been carried out? How has each person helped the team accomplish its goals and how well have their personal work plans been carried out? This should be a comprehensive activity that also takes into consideration earlier implementation-related comments, such as that provided during a halfway review. As a result, a management of a unit and personnel should have an in-depth discussion regarding the successes of the preceding time. Every employee in the company should thus be fully aware of their individual and group performance throughout the previous time period. Performance gaps will have been discovered, and actions may be made to fix them during the next cycle.

Addressing Underperformance

The life of a manager is made simple by working with highly motivated and successful employees. The manager's abilities are really put to the test when workers don't perform as expected. A competent intervention is necessary in this case, and it must take the shape of one or potentially multiple talks. The purpose of this intervention is to help the employee and the supervisor both understand precisely why the performance was rated as unsatisfactory see the section on providing quantifiable performance criteria above and what potential underlying causes there may be. The conversation should not have a threatening or unduly critical tone, and it should instead be an open discourse. There aren't many workers that are completely ineffective. Prior to examining the issues, it is essential to take note of all the performance's good

features. While evaluating performance, it's crucial to make a note of the position's job description and the work plan's objectives to make it obvious which areas need improvement. Keep in mind that occasionally uncontrollable external factors might impair performance. Managers must take into account any challenging family situations that employees may be going through. Workplace issues may easily spill over from personal issues. The management and staff may collaborate if an employee has a spouse who is ill or a childcare issue, for instance. Ultimately, it is important to have a written record of all discussions and decisions. In addition to deciding on a timetable for future meetings to examine the performance again, you should agree on and document the measures that need to be done to bring the performance up to the level of expectations[6], [7].

DISCUSSION

To manage employee performance effectively, a manager must strike a balance between the use of positive and negative reinforcement. Identifying incentives for excellent performance, figuring out how to assist underperformers improve, and finding a place for persistent underperformers are the three main issues facing managers in the UN. The following are some useful pointers for performance management.

With rare exceptions, provide staff with clear direction and quantifiable performance standards. Employees want to succeed in their work, want their contribution to a project to be recognized, and desire that their supervisor recognize their achievement. So, managers must be explicit about their expectations for their workers[8], [9]. Employees who are unclear about their roles might fall into a cycle of underperformance and poor communication. This may be prevented if time is set up to properly outline expectations for the personnel. Maintain written records of your staff's performance; it is not recommended to depend simply on recollection to keep track of employee performance. The occurrence of both positive and bad occurrences, as well as praises and complaints, should all be recorded. The completion of the performance review at the conclusion of the recording period is substantially facilitated by written records of performance. The notes will be very helpful as the starting point for a dialogue in the event of a dispute between a manager and a staff member[10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

While managers cannot boost the pay of or promote strong performers, there are other methods for a manager to acknowledge accomplishment. The United Nations has limited tools available to improve worker performance. Higher achievers at the UN need greater exposure and responsibility in order to advance.

The top employees will be given unique responsibilities and the chance to work on initiatives that will open doors for them by a good boss. For their finest employees, managers should hunt for and provide specialized training opportunities. While everyone needs and deserves training, top achievers are often especially eager to pick up new skills. Staff members have access to a variety of training options both within and outside the UN. Such training improves a person's employability for future opportunities. The chance to network and meet coworkers from various duty stations is another benefit of attending trainings. Another technique to recognize performance is to enhance someone's reputation. Praise given to other supervisors outside the employee's work unit may never reach them, yet it might be crucial. In essence, this is how careers and reputations are formed.

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CHAPTER 11

AN OVERVIEW OF DECISION-MAKING PROCESS AND ITS EXECUTION IN MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Good decision-making is a well-defined process that aids in selecting the most beneficial course of action from among multiple available alternatives based on a goal and an examination of potential outcomes. Making decisions is one of the most crucial tasks that school administrators perform on a daily basis. A school's or a district's performance is inextricably related to its ability to make wise choices. The rational paradigm and the limited rationality model, two important theories of decision making, are discussed in this research along with how individual choices are produced.

KEYWORDS:

Decision Making, Human Resource, Management, Organization.

INTRODUCTION

Making a decision between two or more possibilities is the process of decision making in management. In order to attain a desired result, this entails weighing the benefits and drawbacks of many options and selecting the optimal alternative. Making decisions in management involves taking actions that advance the aims and objectives of the company. For instance, a management of a firm can opt to spend money on marketing to draw in new clients. This choice could include weighing the advantages, disadvantages, and dangers of each potential course of action and selecting the one that is best for the company[1].Making management decisions is a crucial component of running any firm. It enables managers to define objectives, determine the steps necessary to achieve those objectives, and assess if the steps are having the desired effect. The term "management decision" refers to decisions made by managers to lead their companies in the appropriate direction.

Characteristics of Decision Making

i. Rational Thinking

Making judgements based on logic is a technique that helps managers make wise choices. It entails methodically evaluating the available alternatives and selecting the optimal course of action using logic and supporting data. We must first define our aims and objectives in order to think logically.

ii. Process

Many individuals believe that making decisions is a logical, cold process. Nonetheless, it involves much more than just picking the solution that makes the most sense. In actuality, both conscious and unconscious influences play a role in decision-making. For instance, our emotions, as well as our own values and beliefs, influence the choices we make. \Box

iii. Selective

Selectivity is a crucial aspect of management decision-making. Thus choosing requires identifying the greatest possibilities. What is chosen depends on a variety of elements, including the alternatives' clarity, the applicability of the criteria, and the weighting of the different considerations. \Box

iv. Purposive

A decision-making process that is focused on the particular aims and objectives of the person or company is known as a purposive approach. In order to choose the optimum course of action, this style of decision-making takes into consideration the intended result of the choice as well as all of the other outcomes.

v. Positive

Whether you're picking what to eat for lunch or which organization to work for, decisionmaking is a crucial life skill in management. Even though there are many various ways to make decisions, there are certain traits that are often shared that frequently result in favorable results[2].

vi. Commitment

It is essential to have dedication if you want to make wise selections. This entails having the motivation to follow through on the choice even when it's challenging. It also entails having the confidence to argue your position in front of others who disagree with you.

vii. Evaluation

Good decision-making is characterized by evaluation. This entails analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of each option before making a decision. It's crucial to evaluate the various possibilities with as much objectivity as possible and to take a comprehensive view of the issue.

Decision Making Process

Making a decision in operations management involves selecting from a range of options. It entails taking into consideration a number of variables, weighing the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative, and coming to a choice. Each decision-making process aims to arrive at a result that is as well-informed as is feasible given the facts at hand. Check out getting your PMP certification online to advance in the future. A demanding or stressful scenario may push a person to make a decision that may not be in their best interests. This may result in bad choices and results. Understanding the decision-making process and how it might be improved is crucial for this reason.Decision Making Process in Management with Example. Let us check the decision-making process in management with examples.

i. Establishing Objectives

One of the most important management decision-making processes is setting goals. Making choices that will effectively advance the organization's aims might be challenging in the absence of defined objectives. By establishing targets, precise goals that must be completed within a given time range are defined. For instance, if you are the CEO of a startup e-

commerce company and your company is growing, you would want to recruit the ideal people for a variety of tasks. In order to acquire new employees for various areas of your organization, you must first determine your goals.

ii. Identify the Decision

Finding the issue that has to be solved is a crucial next stage in the management decisionmaking process. After determining the issue, the manager will start gathering data on potential fixes. This might include doing research, conducting simulations, or consulting others. The management will choose the course of action they feel has the best chance of success after assessing the advantages and disadvantages of each choice. For instance, after deciding which areas of your company need new hires, you would need to collaborate with others to choose the best plan of action for finding the best candidates for the different job openings[3].

iii. Gather Appropriate Information

Information collection is the action of acquiring information. Surveys, interviews, focus groups, observation, and secondary data sources like publications and reports are just a few of the information sources that managers might employ. Managers must collect this data and then evaluate it to choose the best course of action. For instance, you and your team must properly acquire information on the different recruiting trends and how to find the best people after deciding on the course of action for the new hires.

iv. Identify the Alternatives

Finding alternatives is one of the most crucial steps in the management decision-making process. Making an educated selection might be tough if you are unaware of your possibilities. The alternatives may be found in a variety of ways, but some of the more popular ones include brainstorming, research, and consultation. Consider what options you may provide to attract talent after acquiring the necessary information on how to hire the best personnel. For instance, do you provide remote work or a mixed working arrangement.

v. Weigh the Evidence

Weighing the facts is a crucial element in the decision-making process as it relates to management. This simply means giving careful thought to all of the facts at hand before making a choice. This may include things like financial information, market research, and even intuition. Managers may make choices that are more informed and more likely to be successful by taking the time to carefully consider the available data. For instance, after deciding the choices you may provide to entice new hires, think about all the possibilities to determine which would be the most lucrative for your company. You may use market research, financial information, and even your gut feeling to draw conclusions for this.

vi. Choose Among the Alternatives

Weighing the facts is a crucial element in the decision-making process as it relates to management. This simply means giving careful thought to all of the facts at hand before making a choice. This may include things like financial information, market research, and even intuition. Managers may make choices that are more informed and more likely to be successful by taking the time to carefully consider the available data. For instance, after deciding the choices you may provide to entice new hires, think about all the possibilities to

determine which would be the most lucrative for your company. You may use market research, financial information, and even your gut feeling to draw conclusions for this[4].

7. Take Action

Weighing the facts is a crucial element in the decision-making process as it relates to management. This simply means giving careful thought to all of the facts at hand before making a choice. This may include things like financial information, market research, and even intuition. Managers may make choices that are more informed and more likely to be successful by taking the time to carefully consider the available data. For instance, after deciding the choices you may provide to entice new hires, think about all the possibilities to determine which would be the most lucrative for your company. You may use market research, financial information, and even your gut feeling to draw conclusions for this.

8. Review the Decision

The "take action" strategy is one of the most well-liked methods for making decisions. This strategy entails responding to a situation forcefully and without second-guessing or overthinking it. While this strategy might provide speedy results, it also runs the danger of causing rash judgements that might not be in the company's best interests. For instance, pursue the course of action of finding and interviewing candidates after selecting the most lucrative strategies to employ fresh skills.

Decision Making Styles

i. Psychological

The psychological decision-making process tends to be more flexible and creative since it incorporates intuition. This approach, unfortunately, may sometimes result in rash, poorly considered conclusions.

ii. Cognitive

The cognitive style of decision-making is one of the most common ones[5]. Making judgements based on logic and reasoning as opposed to gut instinct or emotion is required for this. While employing the cognitive approach, it's crucial to think about all the facts at hand before making a decision. This may sometimes entail deliberating for a while before deciding, but it also increases the likelihood that you will choose an intelligent course of action.

iii. Normative

In project management, normative decision-making refers to a method of decision-making that is based on adhering to established guidelines and practises. When there is little time for thought and the stakes are minimal, this method of decision-making is often used.

I. SWOT ANALYSIS

SWOT analysis is a common business decision-making process. This entails determining the advantages, disadvantages, opportunities, and dangers connected to a certain choice. Individuals may make wise and useful decisions by considering all of these elements[5].

ii. Marginal Analysis

Marginal analysis is a widely used method. It entails analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of each choice to determine which will provide the most value.

• Strengths

You are compelled to consider your activities in light of their potential ripple effects through marginal analysis. You will think more carefully about how your choices will affect other aspects of your life, which may aid in improved decision-making.

• Weaknesses

That takes a lot of time. Thinking about all the indirect costs and advantages might make it difficult to make a choice fast. Sometimes, this analysis might cause paralysis by analysis. It occurs when individuals are so preoccupied with weighing all the pros and cons that they never truly come to a conclusion.

• **Opportunities**

The benefit of marginal analysis is that it might show you chances that you would otherwise overlook. It's because contemplating indirect costs and rewards alters the way you see the world[6].

You may not consider the environmental effects of driving right away, for instance, while deciding whether to purchase a new automobile. Yet, if you weigh the indirect costs and advantages of automobile ownership, you could conclude that purchasing a hybrid or electric vehicle is better for the environment as well as for you.

• Threats

Marginal analysis does not take into consideration the other aspects that can be impacted by a choice; it just evaluates the incremental changes related to that decision. Since it only evaluates changes in absolute terms and ignores the relative amount of such changes, the approach might be deceptive if not applied properly.

iii. Pareto Analysis

The most crucial elements in a scenario may be determined using the decision-making method known as Pareto analysis. The method, which bears Vilfredo Pareto's name in honour of the Italian economist, is founded on the idea that 80% of effects originate from 20% of causes.

iv. Strengths

It may be used in a number of contexts with no training since it is quite easy to comprehend and apply. Decision-makers are more likely to trust Pareto Analysis since it is an objective approach that focuses on statistics rather than personal judgement. The study is adaptable and may be used to a variety of issues and businesses[7].

v. Weaknesses

It does not take into account other potential relevant elements and exclusively examines cause-and-effect linkages. It may be difficult to pinpoint every potential root cause of an issue, and some factors can even be more significant than others. Pareto analysis is based on statistical hypotheses, which may not always be true.

vi. Opportunities

You'll be able to concentrate your efforts in the best directions. Helps you rank opportunities so you may more wisely use your resources. Also, it may assist you in monitoring your advancement over time and making any required changes to your plan.

vii. Threats

Making ensuring the data you are collecting is correct and reflective of the whole population is crucial. Pareto analysis may sometimes favor more extreme results. All potential elements that can affect a choice are not taken into consideration in this study.

viii. Decision Matrix

The choice matrix is a tool that may be used to side-by-side compare several possibilities. People may be confident they are making wise judgements that will result in favorable consequences by using these strategies.

• Strengths

You are compelled to thoroughly analyse all of your possibilities and to compare them to the requirements. It may assist in preventing you from making a choice based on instinct or emotion may aid in preventing you from becoming unduly connected to any option by forcing you to evaluate each choice critically. It may provide you a direct, succinct approach to explain your thought process to others[7].

• Weaknesses

One problem is that the standards used to assess the alternatives may be arbitrary, which may cause different individuals to draw different conclusions from the same information. When the decision matrix is produced, it's possible that not all possibilities are known, which might result in erroneous or insufficient analysis. Decision matrices may take a long time to construct and need a lot of data, making them impossible to employ in circumstances when time is at a premium or data is in short supply[8].

DISCUSSION

Making decisions is one of the most crucial tasks that school administrators do every day. Making wise selections is crucial to a school's success. Making decisions is a process that involves options. The process typically involves multiple phases, including issue identification, generation of alternatives, evaluation of those options, selection of an alternative, implementation of the choice, and evaluation of the success of the decision. There are two primary methods of decision-making. According to the rational model, decision-makers are perfectly rational individuals who seek out the most accurate information before making the best choices. The ability of decision makers to process the information necessary to make complex decisions is constrained by their inherent imperfections as well as the social and organizational systems in which they are embedded. This is known as bounded rationality, and it forces decision makers to settle for less-than-ideal solutions[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

A project manager makes decisions on behalf of the organization. A smart decision maker is one who can weigh all the available information and possibilities before making a choice. Also, they must be able to consider the long-term effects of their choice and be able to successfully convey it to others. Each manager has to be able to make good decisions since they may boost productivity and operational efficiency. You may enroll in various program to constantly increase your understanding of decision-making, and by doing so, you will be better prepared to tackle any obstacles that come your way.

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CHAPTER 12

AN ANALYSIS OF THE TIME MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

The practice of managing and planning how to split your time between various tasks is described as time management. If you do it perfectly, you'll find that you are better able to do more in less time, even under time restrictions and under intense pressure. The wealthiest businessmen have great time management skills. Your attention as well as productivity will rise with effective time management approaches. They also lessen procrastination as well as distractions. Being productively in charge of own time with effective time management.

KEYWORDS:

Control, Job satisfaction, Performance management, Time measurement, Training.

INTRODUCTION

A common complaint among managers everywhere is that they do not have enough time in the day. In particular, a number of uncontrollable factors often frustrate the ability of managers in UN field missions to properly allocate their time. Unanticipated crises that require immediate attention are a day-to-day staple. Different time zones between headquarters and the field further complicate the matter. Priorities can shift quickly depending on needs in the field or demands from headquarters. The introduction of continuous and instant means of communication tools like smartphones designed to save time sometimes do the opposite. Instead of providing more time for creative thinking and planning, instant communication and time-saving devices have created a situation where unplanned and fragmented activities, all labeled as "rush," clash with the need for managers to spend time developing plans and thinking creatively[1].

Effectively and efficiently organizing time is the essence of good management practice. It is an indispensable skill to achieve professional and personal goals and to increase personal productivity. Time is a finite resource distributed equally to all human beings. The whole world functions on the same twenty-four hours per day, but the way time is used and perceived is not universal. Time management can reflect personal, educational, and cultural habits.Like most things, time management may be improved by certain skills, tools, and techniques that can be developed. But it requires self-awareness and self-discipline to develop and stick to a system that allows for the appropriate allocation of time among long-term projects, planned, and unexpected activities. In this chapter you will learn about ways to analyze and monitor how you spend your time, work more efficiently, and improve your overall performance[2].

Goal-Based Time Planning

Any plan to allocate resources strategically must begin with an understanding of what one hopes to accomplish. Describing and defining goals and objectives can be empowering and will help

you prioritize your time better. Once your goals and tasks have been specified, it makes sense to enter them into a calendar that can be reviewed and updated on a regular basis.

Goals become a guide to set up priorities and tasks to be accomplished on a daily, weekly, and monthly basis. SMARTER goals1 help managers decide whether a project should be delegated and allow them to devote more time to long-term projects or focus on the achievement of more important goals. Four common categories of goals are organizational, work unit, career, and personal. Organizational goals are outside of the control of an individual manager. In the United Nations, these goals are mandated and need to be achieved within a fixed schedule, leaving little scope for flexibility. Examples of organizational goals in UN field missions that impact on all managers and that require careful time management include[3]:

- **i.** Preparation of the mission budget;
- **ii.** Preparation of reports of the Secretary-General;
- **iii.** Preparation of performance appraisals;
- iv. Participation in mandatory training courses.

When preparing reports to the Security Council, the drafting can often only be carried out in a certain sequence, making efficient time management critical. Work unit goals are the responsibility of individual managers. Managers need to continuously review work processes in light of goals to identify strengths and weakness in the way business is conducted within their unit. The time trap created by a proliferation of nonessential tasks must be tackled. A first step is for a manager to define SMARTER goals to provide direction, vision, and a sense of common purpose, and to give everyone in the work unit a clear understanding of what is expected from each staff member. Unlike most work unit goals, career goals are specific to each individual. They are essential in an environment where mobility is encouraged, yet is often a challenge.

A goal-oriented approach will translate into time set aside to acquire new skills, refresh old ones, keep a network of professional contacts, and keep looking for new opportunities. An ad hoc or unplanned approach can easily lead to career stagnation. Planning one's career requires assessing one's career progress, potential obstacles to advancement, skills needed to advance, and an occasional reassessment of whether to stay in one's current line of work. Spending time to answer these questions and clarify your career goals will guide you in developing a path to meet your aspirations. In field operations, where separation from family and friends is part of the work environment, and the separation between personal and professional may not be as clear-cut, personal goals and personal time need to be factored into the equation as well. Personal goals should be identified and prioritized, and time should be set aside to reach them.

Transforming Goals into Activities

Breaking down goals into activities that are manageable is the first step toward achieving them. Each goal identified by category needs to be considered, and the list of tasks required to reach the goals must be articulated. Each task can be classified by its estimated time frame (urgent or not) and its order of importance (important or not). This creates four categories of tasks[4]:

- i. Tasks that are important and urgent,
- ii. tasks that are important but not urgent,

- iii. tasks that are not important but urgent
- iv. tasks that are neither important nor urgent

These categories of tasks are presented visually in Table 1 below. Managers have no choice but to take care of activities in quadrant a (important and urgent). In a field mission these would include a variety of mandated tasks. The key determinant of long-term success, however, is the amount of time spent on activities that fall into quadrant B. These are activities in support of important goals, but it remains up to each individual to develop a time system to spend time on them. These are often the goals that are neglected. The amount of time spent on activities related to quadrants C and D should be minimized or eliminated.

	URGENT	NOT URGENT
IMPORTANT	A: (Do it now) Crises Pressing problems Deadline-driven projects	B: (Schedule time for this) Prevention Planning Building relationships Empowerment True leisure activities
NOT IMPORTANT	C: (Quick fix) Some mails Some meetings Some phone calls Some trivia activities	D: (Ignore) Busy work Some mails and phone calls Some meetings Some pleasure activities

Table 1: represented the Prioritizing Goals and Activities.

This table can help you assess the priority of your goals. It can also assist you in determining which tasks to delegate in order to have more time for activities in quadrant B. Performance evaluations cannot be delegated, but parts of report writing often can be delegated and provide you with space to pursue other, often neglected, objectives that are also important.

Using an Activity Log

The reality of time allocation is often a far cry from how you would like to spend your time. Setting up goals and listing the activities required to achieve them is a guide that needs to be compared to the way time is actually being spent on a daily basis, as recorded in an activity log. An activity log should not be confused with a diary. An activity log is a rigorous exercise that requires keeping a detailed track record of how your time is spent throughout the day. The recording needs to be done for a few days, and preferably for a full week. An activity log is most useful if it covers both personal and professional time. The recording should take place as you go, not at the end of the day[5]. The activity log will pinpoint the "time robbers" that do not contribute to any of your important goals. It can help you decide on what activities can be

delegated or eliminated altogether such that activities in quadrants C and D. The next step is to focus on understanding why so much time is spent on less important activities.

There are five time robbers that turn up on most manager's lists:

- Assuming the work of subordinates,
- Attending meetings with no objective,
- Travel,
- Distractions,
- Paper disorganization

Supervisors sometimes feel that it will take less time for them to accomplish a task than to spend the time to explain what is required to a subordinate and to follow up on implementation. It is easy to fill a working day by doing other people's work. This leads to a prime management failure: lack of delegation and performance management.

Delegation

Delegation is the act of assigning authority and responsibility to another person, normally a subordinate, to carry out specific activities. The person who delegates a task remains accountable for the outcome. Delegation empowers subordinates to make decisions and can motivate them into action. Micromanagement is not effective delegation. It occurs when a manager provides too much input, direction, and review of delegated work. This leads to frustration on both sides, and a waste of time for all the involved parties. Your ability to delegate can partly be identified through your activity log. Your delegation skills need improvement if you see some of these warning signs[6]:

- i. Working overtime on minutia or repetitive tasks;
- ii. A backload of incomplete projects;
- iii. Too much time spent checking in on subordinates;
- iv. Too many interruptions from staff asking questions about simple tasks;
- v. Recurrent conflict between staff.

Some assignments, however, benefit from not being delegated. Where appropriate, managers need to retain responsibility for the implementation of things like performance evaluations, disciplinary and conduct issues, strategic visioning, or certain politically-sensitive tasks.

Meetings

The need to exchange information, coordinate, and empower means that an entire workday can be spent in a whirlwind of meetings. Meetings are a necessary evil, but well-run meetings can be not only useful but motivating. The problem is that many meetings are poorly run or held for no pressing reason. In large, risk-averse organizations, meetings are often held as substitutes for making decisions. When you call for a meeting, you bear the responsibility for ensuring that the meeting is well organized, efficient, and productive. You can often feel obliged to attend every meeting to which you are invited. With the exception of regular or mandatory meetings, you can save time by staying away from nonessential meetings that is where you have nothing at stake, cannot contribute, or have only been invited as a courtesy. Make sure to communicate your decision and consider sending a replacement, or ask for the meeting summary.

Travel

In the UN, travel is part of the job. Managers lose a lot of time in transit. Jet lag and fatigue add a further strain on productivity. But travel time can often be used productively background reading can be done, papers can be written, etc. Try to think of time spent travelling as an opportunity for activities to advance one's goals or activities in quadrant B: important but not urgent[7].

Distractions

E-mail, the Internet, phone calls, and unannounced visitors are all distractions that can diminish productivity or prevent focused work. Distractions shift attention away from the important tasks of the day.

A study on the cost of shifting attention concluded 149 that it reduces a company's efficiency by 20 to 40 percent.2 Ideally, slots of time should be scheduled to check e-mail and have phone conversations. Visitors should be kindly asked to request an appointment. Information overload is a major distraction. With the development of electronically available information, this problem has become even more serious. As a manager you should be in control of information rather than the other way around. Here are some tips to avoid distractions:

- i. Schedule time to read and answer e-mail.
- ii. Clean your inbox by archiving e-mails on a regular basis.
- iii. Do not answer e-mail that you are just cc'd on unless the issue really concerns you.
- iv. Forward e-mail to members of your team with clear instructions (e.g. "FYI," "for your immediate action," "please advice," etc.).

The lack of an adequate file management system is an astonishing time robber. If your activity log shows that you waste time searching for information that was already provided to you, you need to develop a better paper and electronic filing system. Also, remember that computer hard drives can easily crash. It takes little time to have a reliable backup system, while it can take days to reconstitute an important electronic file[8].

DISCUSSION

Another suggestion is to focus future research on specific target groups. As most studies have dealt with student samples, further research on time management at work could focus on employees in their work situations, preferably from different organizations in order to ensure sufficient variation in contextual factors. To be able to show the differences in decision-making and strategy between individuals, research groups could be divided into persons that are good or average time managers. They asked supervisors to name employees that they thought had the quality to either be good or not as good at performing a certain task. A shortcoming of the present study is that only 32 studies on time management were included in the study, which can account for a biased view of past research, although they were the only studies available within

the selected criteria. Also, as there were few time management studies available and time management measures were quite different, it was not possible to do a meta-analysis on the results of previous studies[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

This review of time management studies gives an impression of how useful time management may be. Although some appear to be skeptical about the results of implementation of time management in practice, scientific studies have demonstrated that the popularity of time management is justified in as far as it has some favorable effects on people's perceptions and feelings. Results of past studies were consistent in showing evidence of positive effects of time management on perceived control of time, job satisfaction, and negative effects on job-induced and somatic tensions.

Additionally, perceived control of time was found to be associated with higher job satisfaction, and to mediate the relation between time management and several other outcome variables. As for the effects of time management on job performance, results were inconclusive. In this article, we have introduced a new definition of time management and suggested directions for future research. We feel that time management deserves further research, using more rigorous methods of analysis. Such research may clarify both the processes involved and the effects on perceptions, feelings and performance. From a practical perspective, this time management review has identified aspects of time management, including time assessment, setting goals, planning, prioritizing and monitoring, that seem to affect outcomes positively. Several of these aspects were already covered in the original work. Incorporating all these aspects in a systematic manner may help to improve current time management training programs and to develop new time management interventions.

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CHAPTER 13

AN OVERVIEW OF THE MARKETING MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

The design, implementation, and monitoring of a company's marketing strategy is known as marketing management. This comprises the marketing strategy, initiatives, and techniques used to generate and satiate demand from the target market in order to increase profitability. Through attracting new consumers, growing an existing client base, enhancing customer interactions, and establishing a company's reputation, marketing management aims to guarantee a business is successful. Managing, evaluating, and aligning with business objectives are some of the key marketing tasks of marketing management.

KEYWORDS:

Content Analysis, Environmental Marketing, Environmental Management, Organization, Time Management.

INTRODUCTION

Effective marketing showcases your product or service to the right people: potential customers and your current customer base. The result? Brand awareness, leads, referrals, and sales. But good marketing management is often easier said than done. Hiring a dedicated marketing manager to own these tasks can boost your marketing efforts and free up energy and time, allowing you to focus on growing your business.

Furthermore, as with many areas of your business, there is an established process you can follow to improve and optimize your marketing management.

Marketing management refers to the control and operations of various marketing activities and the people involved in those activities, such as managers, marketing management professionals, contractors, and more[1].

Relevant actives often include:

- **i.** Setting goals and developing marketing strategies
- ii. Performing market research
- **iii.** Devising marketing campaigns
- iv. Identifying a company's target market
- v. Managing content on various channels (e.g., social media, email marketing, etc.)
- vi. Across different mediums (e.g., copy, images and videos, and podcasts)
- vii. Execution of marketing strategies and marketing plans

Work of Marketing Managers

A marketing manager is a person responsible for executing a company's marketing plan via delegation and planning. Relevant actives often include:

- i. Implementing a standard operating procedure (SOP), which outlines how specific (and, often, routine) tasks should be performed.
- ii. Researching the business's target market and customer base.
- iii. Creating, planning, and executing campaigns.
- iv. Creating and sharing branded content on social media platforms.
- v. Leading the creation of and scheduling of email newsletters and campaigns.
- vi. Tracking key metrics like page views, social media engagement, and email open rates.
- vii. Creating digital and/or print content to generate brand awareness.
- viii. Any additional tasks and needs.

Given the wide range of duties a marketing manager may handle, the position requires a working knowledge of the standard marketing mix, including various platforms such that Google Analytics, social media channels such that Facebook, and marketing best practices such that best times to send email blasts. Depending on the type of business and its marketing goals, marketing professionals may also need to have expertise in search engine optimization (SEO), social media marketing, or content creation. For example, an ecommerce business may require SEO specialization to help content rank on Google, whereas an events business may need a social media specialist to create buzz and attract attendees. A generalist may do a little bit of everything in order to help the business drive revenue and develop expertise in certain areas over time. A marketing manager's scope of duties can also vary based on the company's size or industry. At a larger company, for instance, a marketing manager may oversee a team of specialists. At a smaller company, a marketing manager may perform many of the tasks themselves[2].

5 Things Marketing Managers Do

Though marketing managers' jobs vary by business or industry, in general, you can expect a marketing manager to lead or assist with general marketing management processes and help keep the marketing department on track. Here's an example of how it might look when mapped out to the marketing process.

i. Evaluate Product and Market Fit

In a discussion with Shopify President Harley Finkelstein, Martha Stewart offered this productdevelopment advice to entrepreneurs: "Does the customer need it? Does the customer want it? If the business or product idea answers yes to either of those two questions, you're probably on to something that will be successful." It's a marketing manager's responsibility to make sure customers understand how your products meet their needs and wants. To do this, they might survey your customer base about product features while gathering feedback on customer satisfaction and product-market fit. For example, a marketing manager can send out a survey to the company's email list and ask them to rate their satisfaction with the product, how frequently they use the product, what would make it better, and how they would feel if it were no longer offered in the marketplace.

This process outlines the things your customers adore while providing insight regarding areas of improvement. Positive feedback can show up in marketing collateral because it communicates what your existing customer base loves about your product. Areas of improvement can go straight to the product development team or business owner, so they can make adjustments. At a large company, this work may fall to a product marketing manager. But on a small team, a generalist marketing manager will lead these efforts[3].

ii. Craft a Marketing Strategy

The cornerstone of marketing management is creating and executing a marketing strategy—a roadmap designed to take your revenue from point A to point B. This is a concrete plan that utilizes different channels and mediums to market the company's product or service. This is done through market research, customer interviews, and even analyzing feedback from customers. While the end goal of all marketing management is to increase sales, a marketing strategy includes much more than creating an incentive to press the Buy button. It creates a customer journey, which takes a potential customer from the very first time they hear of your brand to the moment when they purchase and beyond. This customer journey is divided into three stages:

- Awareness Stage: A customer realizes that they have a problem to solve and that your brand may offer a solution (e.g., someone is planning a hiking trip and realizes they need better hiking boots).
- **Consideration Stage**: The customer reviews potential solutions (e.g., they read the specifications of your hiking shoes to determine if they might fit the bill).
- **Decision Stage:** The customer makes an informed decision to buy (e.g., they determine that your shoes are of better quality for a reasonable price, and they buy).

A marketing strategy will specify how to reach customers at every stage and what type of content to show them. Strategic marketing management is about getting the most out of your marketing efforts and team[4].

iii. Create Brand Messaging

Brand messaging communicates a brand's mission and personality, and its products' value proposition(s) to its customers. Put another way: Brand messaging communicates what your company stands for, who it's for, why it exists, and what makes it unique. Marketing managers will contribute creative ideas and strategic insight to guide the development of marketing messaging. Specifically, they'll create:

- A mission statement
- Positioning statements
- Ad taglines
- Website copy

- Channel-specific copy for social media, email, and more
- On a small team, they'll own this process completely.

iv. Track Marketing Metrics

Marketing managers may set goals and track key metrics to measure the performance of a campaign, including:

- Website Traffic: Website metrics include page views, bounce rates, and the time spent on each page.
- Social Media: A marketing manager or social media team tracks the number of followers, comments, and shares, and engagement rate across platforms.
- **Email:** For email campaigns, key metrics include email subscribers, open rate, click-through rate, and conversions.
- **Search Engine Optimization:** Success for an SEO strategy is measured through search rankings, organic sessions, click-through rate, new users, and top keywords.
- Advertising: Advertisers track cost per lead, cost per click, return on investment, and conversion rate to measure the success of their campaigns.

Tracking these metrics provides valuable data on the status of your marketing campaigns and marketing programs as well as helps demonstrate the impact they're having on your small business. For example, tracking open rates on emails can let you know how successful your email newsletters are at getting customers to engage with your brand. Not getting enough opens? You may tweak subject lines or add images and emoji's. Reviewing page views each month or every quarter can provide relevant feedback on a company's SEO strategy and how content is landing (or not). Marketing managers can translate that data into informed action, such as where to allocate additional resources, where to pause marketing efforts, or where to take a different action plan altogether[5].

v. Build a Great Team

As your business grows, a marketing manager may need to hire a team or contractors to keep up with a growing marketing mix and get much-needed support.

- Sets Expectations: A marketing manager establishes measurable goals and communicates expectations for the team's marketing efforts.
- **Review Output:** A marketing manager may periodically review the team's output and performance and make adjustments. For example, if engagement is down on social media, what new tactics could help generate more likes, shares, and follows?
- Act as a Leader: When a marketing manager builds a team, they become a manager of people and marketing work. They will mentor budding channel specialists and secure resources to support the group. They'll also liaise with leadership to set goals and share results.

- **Oversees Tools and Resources:** A marketing manager can help procure the right tools for the job, which can include social media scheduler, email marketing platform, design program, task management tool, SEO keyword research tool, analytics tools, and marketing automation tools.
- Create Processes and Workflows: A marketing manager can create specific processes and workflows for the team. Having a workflow in place can eliminate questions about what should be done and when it should be done and by whom, so everyone stays on task with their defined marketing efforts.
- Manage the Marketing Budget: A marketing manager may also manage the marketing budget, which can include software and tools, staff salaries, events, and advertising costs.

Making that first marketing hire can help small business owner's transition marketing responsibilities to a pro. The result should be sales growth and more time for the business owner to focus on the big picture[6], [7].

DISCUSSION

The great diversity of the topics tackled, coupled with the different theoretical perspectives from which these are derived, implies that the focus has 21 been extensively stretched to view most of the existing marketing and management areas from an environmental angle. Certain issues have also been specifically developed within this stream of research, as in the case of environmental labelling, environmental ethics, and environmental regulations/standards. The increase in the breadth and depth of environmental research has contributed toward creating a meaningful body of knowledge that has helped to justify the identity of a new field within the marketing/ management sphere. Overall, this line of academic inquiry has accumulated an enormous inventory of information, with important conceptual, methodological, and empirical contributions that help in its theoretical development and practical usefulness. The fact that the planet's ecosystem has reached a state of emergency is responsible for the greater mobilization of political, social, religious, and other forces to find solutions to ecological problems. This, coupled with intensifying competitive pressures and growing consumer sophistication, are expected to increasingly sensitize organizations on environmental issues. Inevitably, this will encourage a greater amount and diversity of research on the subject and assist in further advancing the field[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

The proliferation of this discipline has not been smooth, however, since only a few contributions were made during the initial decades, as opposed to the recent plethora of writings. To some extent this reflects changes in various macro, meso, and micro forces influencing the firm's activities. With growing globalization trends, the role of these forces is expected to become increasingly more intense, thus stimulating further managerial and academic interest in environmentally-related issues. The study has shown that there is a tendency for more multi-authored, cross-cultural, and inter-disciplinary collaborative efforts, as well as a diffusion of research on environmental issues to various parts of the world. The trend is also for more data-driven publications. The fact that an increasing number of studies are theoretically-grounded on sound marketing/management paradigms is another positive development, although there is still potential to introduce additional theories and paradigms from more advanced disciplines, such as

economics, psychology, and sociology. There is also a tendency for increased length in manuscript size, as well as the incorporation of a greater number of references, which also imply a growing proliferation of knowledge on the subject. However, there is room for conducting more research based on case studies, longitudinal investigations, and laboratory, observational, and experimental designs. The scope of this research has also been expanded to cover a wide range of countries, industries, and products, as well as firms of different status, size, and geographic focus. Nevertheless, it would be useful if more studies were conducted on multiple countries, neglected industries were taken into consideration, and environmental research adopted a more international perspective. In addition, there is a clear tendency for researchers to use probability sampling designs, obtain high response rates, secure large sample sizes, and apply advanced statistical tools for data analysis. These developments have had a positive impact on the quality of the data collected and the results obtained. Environmental research covered a wide range of topics, with the thrust being on marketing management aspects, environmental management, and environmental corporate strategy.

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CHAPTER 14

AN ANALYSIS OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

The method or set of methods by which businesses collect, examine, and disseminate the information of their workers is known as performance management. It guarantees that the correct individuals get the right information at the right time when it is conducted out properly. It speeds up problem-solving, saves time, helps in planning, and has an impact mostly on formulation of policies and recommendations. It encourages learning and development in both your team and those who follow you. Technology known as knowledge management tools enables teams to store, arrange, and distribute information both internally and with clients. Community forums, knowledge bases, and self-service portals are a few examples of understanding management technologies.

KEYWORDS:

Human Resource, Industries, Leadership, Management, Organization.

INTRODUCTION

United Nations peacekeeping operations and special political missions have evolved into global, complex undertakings. The range of different activities performed and the need to employ resources efficiently require a systematic approach to the way in which operations are carried out. Thousands of similar tasks happen simultaneously in missions throughout the world, and although context varies from mission to mission, lessons emerge on a daily basis that are broadly applicable. Field missions have much to gain from sharing what works best commonly referred to as "best practices" or "good practices, applying lessons learned elsewhere, connecting specialized staff across the UN system, and being able to reference a consistent body of tested methods for carrying out tasks. Knowledge management helps to develop a disciplined approach to capturing, analyzing, sharing, and using practical information.

Knowledge management fits into a broader learning cycle within the UN: relevant information gathered from the field informs policy and guidance, while subsequent knowledge transfer (training) and the application of policy and guidance on the ground feed back into the development of revised guidance as demonstrated in Figure 1. Knowledge sharing within and between UN field missions has the added advantage of allowing missions to fill guidance gaps due to limited capacity at headquarters. Field mission staff come from varied cultural and professional backgrounds, and knowledge sharing across staff and components of a mission can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of certain activities. It promotes continuity where there is high staff turnover, and disseminates expertise through information sharing and training. Sharing knowledge is an opportunity for all managers to contribute to the development of future guidance and policy[1].

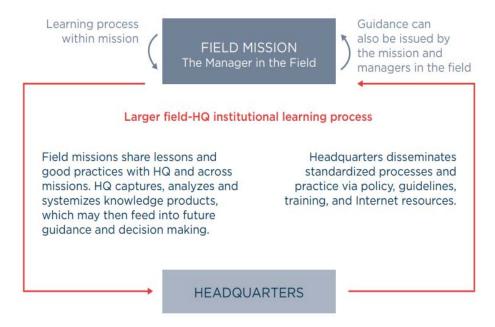


Figure 1: Represented the Knowledge Management and the UN Learning Cycle

Knowledge management tools:

- i. Facilitate learning and sharing of good practices and lessons learned;
- ii. Help you avoid repeating past mistakes;
- iii. Save time by making knowledge and resources easily accessible;
- iv. Facilitate networking with people who can support your goals;
- v. Help solve problems by utilizing the correct knowledge.

This chapter highlights the importance of KM in the achievement of individual and organizational goals. It describes practical tools and techniques that support the day-to-day activities of field staff in the creation, identification, collection, and organization of knowledge. While this chapter is focused on practical approaches for the individual, it is important to recognize that KM requires a supporting culture (often organization-wide), enabled by clear expectations, processes, leadership, and accountability, as well as appropriate systems and adequate technology[2].

Principles of the Knowledge Management

Turning tacit knowledge (experiential) into explicit knowledge (often written but also including lessons-learned workshops, etc.) is a fundamental KM process. Organizations, for lack of a better system, often rely on word of mouth or "learning on the job" approaches to share knowledge; however, these require face-to-face communication and significant time, limiting efficiency, impact, and increasing dependency on specific individuals. In UN field missions in particular, high turnover and vacancy rates make it impossible to rely solely on word of mouth to retain important information. Documenting experiences, processes, and "the way we do things" can help:

- **i.** Retain information and develop institutional memory, reducing organizational reliance on specific individuals;
- **ii.** Communicate and share information more clearly;
- iii. Store an idea or specific details about how a task was completed.

The term knowledge is broadly applied, but should be differentiated from that which is just information. Reports often merely contain information such that a shortage of equipment, the occurrence of an incident, etc. rather than knowledge such that how the incident was addressed and what was learned from this approach. It is always more challenging to capture knowledge than information. The below diagram differentiates knowledge from data and information.

Knowledge Management Techniques and Tools

The greatest challenge to effective knowledge sharing is not inadequate technology, but rather human nature. KM requires a change in organizational culture of sharing, rather than retaining, information, and it is therefore essential that subject matter experts, process experts, as well as technology experts work together toward devising effective KM strategies.

Although technology can be a critical enabler of KM providing the means to create, store, organize, and share information it should not be the primary driver of a KM strategy as display in Table 1.

Knowledge Process	Examples of knowledge tools and techniques
Capture/store	Documents, databases, picture albums, videos, diagrams, recordings, websites, blogs
Share	Conversations, meetings, documents, e-mails, text messages, tweets, websites
Identify	File names and structures, databases, stakeholder analyses, networking, websites, all communication, indexes, search engines
Create	Documentation, websites, analyses, experiences, conversations, understanding

 Table 1: Represented that the Knowledge Management Processes and Tools

Organizations rely on specialization creating teams and structures that develop specific skills and procedures to complete activities effectively and efficiently. As a result, specialization creates interdependencies between groups or teams of people, increasing the need for effective communication and collaboration[3].

A number of tools and techniques are used at different times during knowledge management processes documents, stakeholder maps, debriefs, communities of practice, e-mails, and knowledge bases, etc. Sometimes variations of these or organization-specific tools and techniques are used.

Stakeholder Mapping

A stakeholder is anyone who affects or can be affected by your organization's activities or projects. As demonstrated overleaf, stakeholder mapping can help you understand who is around you and, importantly, what knowledge they have and are responsible for managing.

Debriefing

A debriefing is a tool to capture the experience of an individual or group after completing an exercise. It allows the person or group to reflect on the process, outcomes achieved, and identify improvements and good practices. For particularly stressful situations or experiences, the debrief process can reduce tension and stress by providing a constructive mechanism to talk or write about how the person or group feels and about the impact the experience had on their work. Debriefs can vary from a one-on-one verbal debrief to a written or published report and are typically facilitated by a manager or team leader. Best practice officers can also facilitate debriefs, for example through after-action reviews (AAR). Common elements across these types of debriefs include a review of the process or steps completed, of who did what, and of outputs and outcomes. Project debriefs also comprise an identification of positive elements and strengths, as well as of areas for improvement[4].

Community of Practice

A community of practice (CoP) is a group of people who share an interest, skill, or profession, and who are active practitioners. Communities of practice can be informal or formal ways of working together, identifying common solutions, and sharing good practice and ideas. In the context of the UN, CoPs take the form of online platforms that bring together practitioners across missions. They are often moderated by a facilitator who can encourage conversations, follow up on queries, and upload interesting articles and links. CoPs often become dormant without a good facilitator.

There are many communities of practice relevant to the work of UN field missions. The UN has already developed a number of CoPs for various types of specialties (security-sector reform, DDR, etc.), but other CoPs also bring together multiple organizations on a similar topic of interest, such as the International Network to Promote the Rule of Law (INPROL) or the Stabilization and Peacebuilding Community of Practice (SP-CoP). CoPs work when members actively use them, and there are benefits for field managers in making use of this tool[5]:

- i. A CoP provides an environment (virtual or face-to-face) that connects people and encourages the development and sharing of new ideas and strategies (i.e., knowledge creation).
- ii. CoPs reduce time by supporting faster problem solving, reducing the duplication of effort, and providing easy access to expertise.

Knowledge Bases

Knowledge bases allow data, information, and knowledge to be organized, stored, and easily accessed. Examples of knowledge bases are databases, a list of frequently asked questions, intranets, and wikis that is informal, group-edited websites that make it easy to collect large amounts of information on a range of related subjects. Knowledge bases can be public or private,

paper-based or electronic. Private knowledge bases could be an organization's collection of hardcopy documents, or an electronic database, such as an intranet.

Getting the Basics of KM

There are a few guiding principles that will ensure you are making the most of your knowledge management efforts. Whether creating a template, contributing to a community of practice, organizing a presentation, or participating in a workshop, ask yourself whether the knowledge that you are planning to collect and share is relevant, practical, replicable, personal, and followed up on[6].

i. Relevant:

It should be up to date and current. Focus ideally on new initiatives or involvement in new processes that others may wish to replicate, or on mistakes that others should avoid repeating.

ii. Practical:

Remember that the UN is a practice-based organization. The knowledge that you share will potentially be translated into future projects and processes. The emphasis should therefore be on sharing practical experience and lessons. Wherever possible, try to back up recommendations and advice with concrete experience and an impartial and unbiased view of what worked and what did not.

iii. Replicable:

Examples of good practice are often heavily context dependent, and so are mistakes. Explaining the context political, security, socioeconomic, etc. and the various actors involved helps others judge whether replicating the project, activity, or process in another setting is likely to yield similar results, or whether certain conditions could be created before attempting replication.

iv. Personal:

Ideally the knowledge you share should be based on something you have directly experienced or witnessed, not something you have heard about second- or third hand[7].

v. Followed up

Contributing to a knowledge management process or drafting and disseminating a knowledge product is only the beginning of a process. It is important to follow up to ensure that lessons learned and recommendations have been received, understood, and acted on by your target audience. Good practice changes quickly in crisis prevention and recovery and it is essential to ensure that KM fits into a broader learning cycle consisting of information collected and analyzed that will go back into the system as knowledge to inform future policy and guidance.

DISCUSSION

In discussing codified knowledge reminds us that "as a practical matter, organizations need to manage knowledge both as object and process. This is a challenge to be sure, but not an insurmountable challenge. With an understanding of knowledge itself, how to gather and organize knowledge artifacts, and with a commitment to organizational learning, sharing knowledge can become part of an organization's usual way to work, especially in collaborative

endeavors. Knowing how to design nimble systems for ease of use can place information managers and systems staff in a position to help make an organization's knowledge more accessible. Although most information managers are not trained as journalists, a reporter's skills of capturing, recording, and reporting new knowledge could be beneficial in the active process of finding out what an organization's members know. The dynamic attributes of knowledge and the subjective nature of knowledge put even more demands on those who would elicit, codify, and transform knowledge into a sharable format[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

The central point of this article is that knowledge management is the Map is knowledge management. Managers working in this field should realize that knowledge management is more than groupware or an intranet, more than business intelligence and more than a yellow pages database of employee CVs. A person may choose to implement a yellow pages database via an intranet and this is certainly acceptable that person but she/he should know where she/he is navigating in the Map. Our research indicates that most companies implement such knowledge management projects on a small, experimental scale and then expand into other areas of the Map. The Map itself is a chart of the feasible options. It seems clear that knowledge management as a distinct field of work is now and has always been rooted in the individual and his or her behavior. With the formalization of this field, attention has shifted upward in the Map towards the systems and structures that encourage the generation, transfer, application and re-invention of knowledge in a company. Much of this movement has been occasioned by the information technologies that facilitate one-to-one, one-to-many, and many-to-one communication.

It also implies that successful knowledge management programs are conceptualized as processbased rather than static structures. This said, the Map appears to be a helpful visualization of the types of activities required in different areas and at different levels.

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CHAPTER 15

AN OVERVIEW OF MANAGING SECURITY IN ORGANIZATION

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ABSTRACT:

Taking ownership of and implementing measures to guarantee your own and your coworkers' safety are major elements of security management. Characterization of an organization's assets, such as its people, buildings, equipment, systems, and information assets, is the first step in information security. Then, policies and procedures to preserve these assets are developed, published, and implemented. In order to provide a safe and protected environment for everyone and to enable the delivery of the highest caliber of clinical care, the Local Security Management Expert will cooperate with their client organization.

KEYWORDS:

Management, Managing Security, Organization Security, Security Management, Safety Feature.

INTRODUCTION

A manager in field operations has a lot of duties, and nobody is flawless. Inadequate personnel choices, careless programmer management, and insufficient planning may all go down in history and be indulged in years from now. But, there is no room for mistake when it comes to the safety of one's coworkers, and any ignorance, bad judgement, or careless actions can never be forgiven.

The study by an independent panel of experts, which in part analyses how the United Nations lost seventeen staff members in a terrorist assault on its office in Algiers in December 2007, is one of the reads advised in this chapter. It highlights a number of people, both at headquarters and in Algiers, who failed to uphold their duties and portrays a culture of bureaucratic apathy while remembering how a similar incident in Baghdad resulted in 22 deaths with only partial lessons learnt[1].

The persons who were injured or traumatized in these incidents, as well as the many loved ones left behind, continue to suffer as a result of the disciplinary action that was taken. It is obvious that a manager's first duty is to ensure the security and safety of the workforce, which takes precedence above any political or ideological duties.

The chain of accountability has an impact on all managers and field personnel at every level since a security system is only as strong as its weakest link. Every manager is accountable for internalizing the security protocols, being knowledgeable with the equipment, taking no unreasonable risks, and successfully communicating. This chapter discusses methods for lowering the threats to your personal security when out in the field as well as the safety of the workforce. This chapter is not intended to replace the UN's own policies, procedures, or security and safety training.

Principals of the Managing Security

Keeping Others Safe

The majority of security management is about brains; it has nothing to do with brute force. Governmental and private international organizations have gained a lot of knowledge about the overarching ideas and operational methods necessary to maintain a safe environment throughout the years, sometimes at great expense. The need to comprehend the context of one's job, the need to adopt a strategy that fulfils one's specific goal or mandate, and the need to create and execute both preventative and reactive security measures are the three main elements that stand out.

Situational Analysis and Threat Assessment

It's crucial to recognize that, while working in a field environment, others around you could see your business quite differently than you do. A local audience may not understand the significance of your well-intentioned, globally legal mandate from the Security Council. They may also not understand your dedication to impartiality, humanitarian ideals, or the millennium development objectives. You can be employed in a setting where any outsider is looked with mistrust because they might pose a danger to the traditions, values, and customs of the area. As a result, it is vital that you try to comprehend how others see you while also making an attempt to favorably shape that perception. Your behavior at work and outside of it, the national staff you hire through competitive hiring processes might not be diverse and representative, the projects and programs you run to empower local women might not be well received in some communities, and your support for the host government and its security forces in particular can all either improve or worsen how some local groups view you[2].

Also, you must comprehend the context of your work. Information that might clarify your security position is readily available. What is the history of the war that sets the scene or perhaps explains why you are in the area? Who is making money off of the unrest and what is the political economy? What are the main participants, the participating factions, and their grievances? It's crucial to understand the local cultures and value systems, particularly if they can be endangered by outside influences or the activity of your organization. What do the people around you believe, do, and value? What divisions or groupings are there? In what ways do men and women interact? What do they wear? What are the primary emblems of the local ideologies or religions? What are the national flags, national colors, holy sites, and holy days? Conflicts involving politics, religion, or culture might result in violence and unrest, but there is also the risk of random, apolitical criminality[3].

Risk analysis may be the focus of a unit in your component, but it always helps to do one's own research since local newspapers and national peers are often well-informed and worthwhile of investigating. Further reliable sources include international and regional Organizations having a presence on a long-term basis in the places you sometimes visit. Most businesses do some sort of risk assessment using this information. In fact, the new United Nations Security Level System mandates a threat assessment to represent the overall security situation in a specific geographic region as part of the comprehensive UN Security Risk Management model. The comprehensive and prescriptive risk management and mitigation solutions have been kept distinct from the descriptive threat assessment in this paradigm. In the end, organization-wide evaluations and your own judgement should provide answers to several fundamental security-related queries for each activity and program you run: Do the advantages justify our presence here and outweigh the

risks? Can we identify any trends that would suggest an increase or reduction in instability if we stayed? What potential new dangers exist? How may they impact us? How susceptible are we, given our profile, to terrorist attacks, political violence, criminal activity, or simply the misdeeds of dissatisfied clients or employees? Don't only depend on your corporate office or your principals to do such risk assessments; actively participate! The effectiveness of your coworkers' protection measures and security strategy will depend on how well they comprehend the environment in which you operate.

Determining a Security Strategy

Most security specialists traditionally agree that acceptance, protection, and deterrent are the three main alternatives open to enterprises operating in violent settings. By strengthening communities' political and social acceptability of an organization's existence and its activity, an acceptance method seeks to lower risk. A defensive strategy hardens the target using tools and techniques. Last but not least, a deterrence strategy tries to dissuade a danger by posing a counter-threat that might range from the use of force to withholding assistance. In reality, operations often combine these three tactics, depending on their job and mandate[4].

Acceptance is the chosen tactic for the majority of humanitarian and development organizations to engage stakeholder populations, including those who could be motivated by distrust, and persist until permission is obtained. It necessitates a thorough examination of the parties involved, their potential issues, and strategies for addressing them. It is almost always crucial to maintain open lines of communication with local partners in order to close gaps and foster trust. A protection approach is simpler to adopt but less likely to be accepted by the community. Perimeter walls, barbed wire, armed guards, metal gates, controlled visitor access, armored vehicles, convoys, blast films, and secure rooms do make the office a harder target and are occasionally necessary, but they also don't exactly foster the perception of humanitarian or human-rights intentions; this is a difficult trade-off.

It is very challenging to put a deterrent strategy into practice. Making an alliance with the local strongmen or threatening program suspension or withdrawal are also common options, but they may also evolve into forms of blackmail. Should one take a chance in a conflict where their armed protection unit engages in combat? And how does one's attempt to seem unbiased be affected by hiring armed security from one particular group? The senior decision-makers in the company, who can evaluate the larger political and programmatic consequences of any measures, must once again be consulted by security managers[5].

Having a Security Plan

A concrete security strategy must be created after risks and threats have been thoroughly analyzed and a strategic approach that matches one's mission and operating environment has been developed. The issues covered by Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) to lower the probability of a risk occurrence are extensive. The following components are included in the strategies of several organizations:

- i. Duties and obligations of management and employees.
- **ii.** Field arrangements, security management teams, and chain-of-command structures.

- **iii.** Plans for the security of a particular nation, such as emergency communications and evacuation procedures.
- iv. Security stages and associated necessary activities.
- v. Management of money, reporting of incidents, information security, and medical procedures.
- vi. Concerns with people, insurance, travel, site choice and administration, visitor security, instruction, and briefing.
- vii. Armed conflict, abduction, and hostage situations.

Keeping Yourself Safe

There are many actions you can take on an individual level and you should make sure that your team does the same. As a manager, it is your responsibility to watch out for the safety of your employees by implementing organizational measures. In most cases, any United Nations system employees or consultants who travel with you will have completed the requisite online security training in order to get a travel permit. Yet, other guests, such personnel from bilateral programs or consultants who operate on their own, may not be as prepared. Reminding them of things to think about before going may be a smart idea[6].

Supervisors must keep a constant eye out for signs that workers may be becoming lazy about putting security measures in place. While assigning people to serve outside the UN reinforced locations, a current grasp of the security situation and sound judgement are important. Before they are dispatched into the field, further risk evaluations could be required. Also, managers should make sure that the cars provided to the unit are used responsibly and with consideration for the community, since car accidents, especially those that injure citizens of the host country, may have serious repercussions.

Find out whether you or your employees require any landmine awareness training or if there are any recommendations in case of roadblocks, vehicle hijackings, or being held hostage before you or your crew leave the region where your office is situated. Unexploded ordnance such as cluster bombs and landmines may take many various forms. Antipersonnel mines, which are detonated by mild pressure or a tripwire, may be fairly tiny and discrete. The national or UN mine action team may provide guidance. When in doubt, stay still and make an assistance request. Avoid buying military hardware, packaging, and vehicles in particular. The pursuit of mementos may be deadly. If your job require you to visit such locations, ensure sure you are escorted by military or mine action personnel who are properly trained[7].

UN Guidance on Security

For UN system staff, there are three levels of guidance available for managing security challenges: through a comprehensive Field Security Handbook, through a set of online interactive training programs leading to two levels of certification, and finally, through a formal set of operational standards.

All employees and consultants going to field duty stations, even for brief trips, must complete interactive security training. The main goal of these seminars is to provide employees safety advice. Managers who are in charge of other people's safety should pay special attention to the

Field Security Handbook and the operational requirements. The principles and best practices discussed in the previous section have been incorporated into these UN tools and translated into structures based on the overall integrated nature of the UN system's field establishments, where various agencies and programs increasingly share facilities and equipment as well as communications systems[8].

The Minimum Operational Security Standards (MOSS), a vital policy document that provides field-based standards for minimal security arrangements in UN field operations, is the cornerstone of this management system. It also creates an accountability structure for top managers at headquarters and in the field by establishing explicit principles. The MOSS encompass the many communications devices and tools needed in regional and country offices, sub offices, cars, homes, and staff security packs, including body armor, VHF and HF radio transmitters, blast-resistant window film, and backup power supply systems. The specifications for putting the security plans into action are as thorough; they include protocols, exercises, meeting schedules, warden systems, as well as monitoring, training, and briefing needs. It is highlighted how crucial responsibility and the chain of command are.

The idea of a security chain is a command and control structure that guarantees effective decision-making and up-close communication. The Undersecretary General for Safety and Security at the UN is where it all begins. Through the Department for Safety and Security, this official is in charge of risk assessments, security planning, ensuring country-level compliance with standards, designating and training chief security advisers, designated officials, and security management teams for service at the country level, maintaining the MOSS, managing hostage situations, and providing overall leadership to maintain the UN's security. The DO will probably serve as the SRSG or chief of mission in a nation where there is a peacekeeping presence. Alternates will be named in case the SRSG is unavailable for duty[9]. The UN system's finances, programs, and agencies are likewise covered by this security framework since they also maintain separate security arrangements that function in tandem with DSS and follow its lead. Employees are required by law to abide by all rules, complete all required training, and always be aware of who their local warden their closest counterpart in the security chain.

The UN system has lately worked to modernize security protocols, including threat assessments and overall risk management. The UN System Chief Executives Board for Coordination declared in 2009 that no program should exist without security since security management is essential to the UN's ability to provide services. The new method places more focus on actively managing risks by outlining "how to remain" rather than just specifying when to go. The most important innovation has been to distinguish between threat assessments and mitigation plans since risk in a given sector is not constant and partly relies on management decisions.

The proper security level for each nation, as well as for certain areas inside each nation, is also determined by DSS. The Security Level System, which was implemented as part of the new framework, makes clear the level of care needed in a certain region. In real terms, the security levels rank the existence of risks and hazards in a location and are determined from organized threat assessments. The security levels are no longer connected to the now-defunct security phase's system, which was responsible for automated actions including employee relocations and evacuations. As the DSS advice often draws on information obtained from sources throughout the globe in addition to local ones, many Organizations adhere to it[10].

The UN errs on the side of caution after the assaults on UN facilities in Algeria and Iraq. The operational UN agencies, particularly those providing humanitarian aid in crisis areas, often challenge the limitations imposed as a consequence of the security risk management system's policies since they feel constrained in contrast to their NGO partners. Other methods, such "remote control" operations, where risk is only transmitted to local players, have emerged as a result of these limitations.

DISCUSSION

Every business has dozens, hundreds, or even thousands of vulnerabilities, and you can never repair them all. That is why vulnerability management is challenging. Yet, the process is not insurmountable; a vulnerability scanner is a fantastic place to start. Conventional scanners, on the other hand, only examine vulnerabilities in the context of your organization, not in their entirety. Companies usually fail to consider vulnerabilities in databases or applications. They can't see what's been fixed and what hasn't.

Also, there isn't enough interaction with other security technologies to provide risk assessment and vulnerability comprehension in the context of intrusion prevention system (IPS) logs, event data, flow data, and other security-related data. The scanners exclude configuration or policy information from firewalls, routers, and IPS systems, which would offer further context to the routes leading to these vulnerabilities[11].

CONCLUSION

The pressures on national security are varied, difficult, and present in a more competitive era in which the nature and distribution of global power are changing. In light of this, Cleary and Darby's book makes a significant addition to the discussion on how countries defend themselves and their people.

The book promotes a systems approach that considers more than just individual players and emphasizes the significance of sometimes overlooked factors including legitimacy, organizational behavior, and human behavior. They urge us to rethink many of the tacit assumptions enshrined in policy and to reconsider our decisions by returning us to the fundamentals. With their efforts and those of its collaborators, they have created a work that will be useful to anyone researching or working in the field of national security and its ongoing adaptation to fresh dangers and threats.

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CHAPTER 16

AN INTRODUCTION OF THE FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Planning, allocating, and monitoring financial resources within an enterprise are all parts of financial management. It is essential to translating strategy and plans into action. Last but not least, financial management, particularly a budget, offers a foundation for program evaluation. Planning, arranging, managing, and regulating financial operations, such as the acquiring and use of a foundation's finances, is known as financial management. It entails applying corporate development ideas to the business's performance resources.

KEYWORDS:

Budget, Capitals, Financial Management, Human Resource, Organizations.

INTRODUCTION

Budgeting, predicting, managing, and controlling a company's financial resources to reach its goal is referred to as financial management. It seeks to optimize investor returns by maximizing the firm's financial management. It covers all topics related to profitability, costs, money, and credit. The core of any business is sound financial management which is mention in Figure 1. They must generate a greater rate of return on market-sourced capital than the associated costs. Financial management typically strikes a balance between a company's legal and accounting departments. Figure 1 shows that it comprises of four key elements: lowering the cost of financing, making sure there are enough funds, and using money wisely[1].

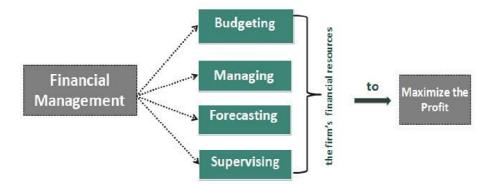


Figure 1: Represented the Financial Management.

The application of general management principles to a company's financial resources is known as financial management. Via financial instrument management, planning, and application, it aids the company in achieving its goals. For investing or funding a growth, securing credit from banks and related financial organizations is straightforward in all markets. The main challenge is in properly using it and allocating the funds to the right projects and activities to provide returns that outweigh the cost of borrowing money. As a result, it helps enterprises with their financial planning and administration. Three key elements make up financial management: choosing investments, finding funding, and paying dividends.

i. Investment

The quantity of short- and long-term investments made with the available funds is decided by financial managers. Working capital management choices have an impact on liquidity and investing when they pertain to short-term investments. Long-term investment choices, on the other hand, require capital planning, such as the purchase of real estate or equipment.

ii. Financing

It entails choices that guarantee money will be available as and when it is needed. Also, it helps in selecting external financing sources, share and bond issuance, bank borrowing, and retained profits when deciding on the capital structure.

iii. Dividend

It describes how a corporation distributes its profits to its shareholders and then reinvests them in its operations as necessary.

Functions

Let's examine the main financial management responsibilities that are essential to every company's success:

i. Evaluating Capital Requirements

To maximize a company's income, the finance manager assesses the capital needs. Such an assessment takes into account needs-based finances, which are established by projected costs plus profits and the business strategy.

ii. Evaluating Capital Constitution

After the capital needs have been assessed, the capital constitution may be decided. It contains studies of the long- and short-term debt-to-equity ratios based on the equity capital ratio of the firm and any externally raised money.

iii. Determining the Source of Capital

There are several ways to get money. The biggest risk in financial management is sourcing cash, thus the finance manager weighs the relative benefits and drawbacks of each source. The following are important sources[2]:

- The issuance of both bonds and shares.
- Credit provided by banks and financial organizations.
- The removal of bonds held in government deposits.

Taking Investment Decisions

Financial managers will choose pertinent investments and initiatives for the business to provide secure and profitable returns.

Managing Surplus Money

A financial manager handles extra cash when a firm has net gains by:

- Paying investors dividends after determining the dividend and bonus rate.
- The company's objectives for market growth, innovation, or diversification

Managing Liquidity

Paying employees, buying raw materials, acquiring inventory, paying creditors, adjusting current liabilities, maintaining inventory, and making monthly or annual payments for things like electricity and water bills, salaries, rent, and marketing expenses all require cash for a business to run on a daily basis. A finance manager balances the business's liquidity and reflowing capital.

Financial Control

Financial management requires constant monitoring and supervision of financing operations. Financial control may be achieved via cost and profit management, ratio analysis, and financial forecasting techniques[3].

Importance of Financial Management

Without competent financial management, a business might fail and suffer losses. Its significance is highlighted by the following points:

- **i.** It aids a company's financial planning and capital acquisition.
- **ii.** It is essential for making good use of borrowed money.
- iii. To make financial choices, businesses require financial management.
- **iv.** Having access to current financial reports and information on pertinent Key Performance Indicators is crucial for carrying out plans (KPIs).
- **v.** It makes sure the business complies with all statutory standards pertaining to financial matters.
- vi. It makes sure that every department runs on a budget and in line with the plan.

Establishing Internal Controls

It is crucial that financial systems be created to ensure that there are as few errors as possible and that there are as few possibilities for misappropriation or, more accurately, theft as feasible. Once your processes are in place, a certified accountant may need to review them, but the program or project manager is still in charge on a daily basis. The danger of misappropriation may be decreased by following several rules and management principles:

- **i.** Written financial management policies, processes, and guidelines should be accessible, and all staff members should be made aware of them.
- **ii.** To prevent issues from worsening into crises, management should routinely review its cash flow and budget compliance. Note that UN field missions only use and hence keep tabs on funds when installments come.

- **iii.** Accurate records must be maintained, and each transaction must be noted as it takes place. Every expense should be supported by receipts. All stakeholders, including workers, should have access to the annual financial accounts. Even if it's a loose organization, having a local monitoring board could make sense.
- **iv.** Name the managers who will serve as the certification officers, or those to whom the ability to authorize the disbursal of agency money has been granted. Furthermore, establish an approval mechanism for expenditures, unless they include recurrent expenses like rent or salaries.
- v. Internal procurement criteria should be followed when making larger purchases. Other funders could impose their own requirements. The UNDP, for instance, provides clear procurement standards to its implementing partners, many of whom are locally based NGOs.
- vi. Bank accounts should always be opened in the name of a company rather than a person. Any requests for bank withdrawals, such as checks, must be signed by two individuals or by two out of three whose names and signatures the senior program manager has deposited with the bank the only one also allowed to make changes. Never keep more than "petty cash" at the workplace; instead, keep all of your money in the bank. Checkbooks need to be secured[4].

If you use cash, store it safely, preferably in a safe. The cash should only be accessible to the cashier. Every monetary transaction should be documented with a receipt. Division of duties: divide up the work so that no one person is in charge of every aspect of a transaction (e.g., one person to order equipment and another to sign the check to pay for it). Via the manager's reporting line, a qualified auditor may be retained if there are fraud suspicions. Such choices need to be made with the director of mission support (DMS), who is in charge of the finances and budget for a field mission.

Financial Rules and Regulations of the United Nations

Virtually all international public sector organizations, whether they are intergovernmental or nongovernmental, have a common set of ground rules that regulate the way they handle their money. And those rules are equally important at the global and at the country level. The United Nations Financial Rules and Regulations (FRR) are an excellent example and can be considered a good summary of general principles of solid financial management. Their most prominent features and principles affecting operations in the field are the following:

i. Delegation of Authority

The Secretary-General delegates to the Under-Secretary-General for Management, and so it goes, all the way down to a finance assistant in a field office. The chain of command has to be clear and uninterrupted from top to bottom. Staff members are held personally accountable for their actions.

ii. Accountability for Program Budgets

Managers are responsible for the preparation of program budgets, defined in terms of outputs, objectives, and accomplishments expected during the period under review.

iii. Only the secretary general may open bank accounts for the organization

In other words, at the field level, proper authorization has to be obtained to do so, under the "delegation of authority" principle.

iv. Two signatures required on all checks or other payment instructions

This is the first of a series of measures aimed at minimizing fraud. All checkbooks have to be properly safeguarded.

v. Field offices may maintain a small amount of petty cash

The local administrative staff has clear rules how this should be managed, and how they should account for its use.

vi. All payments have to be made on the basis of supporting vouchers or invoices

In addition, documents must be kept showing that goods or services were received in good order. This is where the auditors are extremely precise, even when it comes to small sums[5].

vii. What has not been spent must be returned

If there are leftover funds twelve months after a project or program has ended, they must be returned. This ensures reasonably prompt closure of accounts and activities.

viii. There must be a firewall between certifying officers and approving officers

The certifying officer gets a request from a manager to buy or do something, and then has to certify that there is money in the budget, and that the proposed purchase or activity matches the provisions of the budget. The approving officer, who should not be in a reporting relationship to the certifying officer, then reserves the money in the budget (appropriation) and approves payment once services or goods have been delivered and found suitable.

Procurement

The procurement process is a key component of financial management and in the UN system is governed by four core principles:

- **a.** Best value for money (BVM): the optimization of whole-life costs and quality needed to meet the user's requirements, while taking into consideration potential risk factors and resources available.
- **b.** Fairness, integrity, and transparency: staff members must adhere to the ethical standards and responsibilities that apply to procurement activities.
- **c.** Effective international competition: procurement staff should make every effort to achieve as wide a geographical distribution in procurement as possible and practicable.
- **d.** The interest of the United Nations.

Acquisition

Acquisition is the action of purchasing or leasing property, including products, real estate, and services. Planning acquisition is a cooperative process by which the requisitioned or program

manager and UN procurement division devise a comprehensive acquisition plan for fulfilling the requisition's need in a timely manner and at competitive pricing. Planning includes the development of the overall strategy for managing the procurement and includes a detailed list of anticipated purchases over a period of time, usually one year[6].

The acquisition process consists of the following phases:

- **a.** Planning, funding, and definition of requirements.
- **b.** Identification of vendors.
- **c.** Development of source selection plan, including evaluation criteria and weighting (if applicable).
- **d.** Evaluation and source selection.
- e. Risk assessment and management.
- **f.** Contract management including vendor performance assessment and ensuring that the vendor complies with the terms and conditions of the contract[7].

DISCUSSION

Staff members who work on budget development and procurement are not the only ones accountable for ensuring a successful procurement process. Furthermore important roles and shared duties within the acquisition planning, requirement-setting, and contract management processes are held by requisitions, contract managers, finance officers, and program managers.

Limited expenditures for field operations are reviewed and authorized by a local procurement committee, but significant commitments need headquarters approval.

The staff should take the time to learn the rules and processes for procurement and be aware of the timescales before making big buy requests. A systematic and strict approach is needed to ensure that there are enough protections against corruption[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

The UN procurement process entails a wide range of tasks, including: acquisition planning; drafting; reviewing or approving specifications, statements of work, and terms of reference; identifying, registering, and assessing vendors; creating solicitations; assessing bids or proposals; source selection; negotiating price or terms and conditions of contracts; reviewing and approving awards of contracts; and providing legal services, including drafting.

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CHAPTER 17

AN ANALYSIS OF PROJECT MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

The use of procedures, techniques, abilities, knowledge, and experience to accomplish specified project goals in conformity with established guidelines is known as project management. Final deliverables in project management are subject to a specific amount of time and money. Planning and controlling a project in order to properly execute its stated objectives and deliverables is the mission of project management. It entails monitoring and controlling risks, prudent capital allocation, astute budgeting, and good communication between various teams and stakeholders.

KEYWORDS:

Human Resource, Managing Process, Organization, Project Management, Planning.

INTRODUCTION

Studying project management may help with project planning, implementation, oversight, and assessment. It offers practical resources for managing unconventional or one-off initiatives, which are increasingly common in UN peace operations. Achieving successes is important in any business, but so is showing them off. In the corporate world, where results come in the form of hard data like sales figures or profit margins, this is the easiest to understand. A political problem being addressed, an institutional arrangement being reinforced, or a security issue being resolved to stop bloodshed are examples of results in the contexts of peacekeeping and peacebuilding. These are important achievements. It's also crucial to be able to show how the inhabitants and government of the host country would immediately benefit, as shown in Figure 1[1].



Figure 1: Represented that the Charectrists of Project Managemnet.

Many humanitarian aid and special political missions are starting independent or cooperative programs in order to provide a "peace dividend" to the local population. For "quick impact

projects," money is often included in mission budgets (QIPs). Integrated peace operations are increasingly expected to handle complex projects and programs supported by financial resources, the Peacebuilding Fund (PBF), cooperation efforts with UN agencies, and financing. Effective project management calls for a similar set of skills and resources, despite the fact that varied arrangements may have different methods and guiding concepts.

Owing to this emphasis on projects, mission staff members may have to go above and beyond the scope of their regular duties to carry out initiatives that need special administrative skills and fiscal prudence. These programs also need to be managed in challenging environments with little assistance from headquarters, frequently in collaboration with other mission-related components like the military, police, civilian mechanical, and financial teams, as well as other UN organizations, funds, or NGOs on the ground. For the aforementioned reasons, all mission employees should be knowledgeable in project management principles and procedures[2].

Establishing the infrastructure necessary for a field operation to run and complete its purpose is another situation when having strong project management skills is essential. The start-up of a new field mission typically involves numerous projects and mission components, such as mission support and the military, that require coordination at the highest level in order to ensure that facilities, communication services, and support systems for presidency and logistics are brought online as quickly as possible, frequently in an oppressive environment with a shortage of staff and resources.

In order to arrange their work logically and achieve the objective effectively and efficiently, a project team not only the project manager can employ the basic method described in this chapter. Project management is useful for planning where and why you want to intervene, assessing the impact that can be expected from your participation, and figuring out what has to be done precisely to achieve results in a way that can be measured.

Use of Project Management

Projects, which are separate from everyday business activities, take place when a corporation wishes to provide a solution to a particular demand within the confines of a defined budget and time frame. Projects need the temporary assembling of a team of people to focus on certain project objectives. As a result, strong teamwork is crucial for the success of efforts.

Projects need the temporary assembling of a team of people to focus on certain project objectives. As a result, strong teamwork is crucial for the success of efforts. Separate work packages are maintained as part of a project to achieve defined objectives. How the work is completed depends on a number of distinct factors.

The project's size, significance, and complexity are clear deciding factors. Even if relocating a small office and organizing the Olympics include many of the same underlying ideas, they present quite different administrative challenges. One means of expressing an aim is[3]:

- i. Outcomes, such as a new corporate headquarters.
- **ii.** Outcomes like people moving to the new Headquarters from different locations.
- iii. Benefits include reduced travel and facility management costs.
- iv. Strategic objectives like doubling the stock price of the firm in three years.

Need of Project Management

The goal of project management is to create a final product that will bring about some change for the company that initiated the project.

To produce this final output, a number of actions must be started, planned, and controlled. Formal management is necessary for projects that:

- i. Create a physical or immaterial product that is new or changed;
- **ii.** Be limited in time, with a beginning and an end.
- iii. Probably complicated in terms of the amount of labor or the people engaged;
- iv. Call for change management;
- v. Demand the control of hazards.

Many advantages will result from an investment in efficient project management, including:

- i. Increasing the chance of reaching the targeted outcome;
- **ii.** Making sure resources are used effectively and efficiently;
- iii. Meeting the various demands of the project's many stakeholders.

Types of Project Management

The foundation of project management types relies on the work and the available resources, including time, money, and people who can do the job. Nonetheless, there are a few categories for organizing tasks and carrying them out[4]:

i. Waterfall

This method guarantees that one job is finished before the next one starts. Like a waterfall, as the name implies, a team of employees completes the task first in line and cannot go on until it is complete. For instance, revising a piece of material comes after authoring it.

ii. Agile

Task completion is independent of the predecessor and successor phases in agile project management. As a consequence, a team may operate at the necessary speed and implement modifications immediately at any point in the chain of events if any problems develop. For instance, several testing and trials aid in improving technology while creating any kind of programmer.

iii. Lean

A team may use this management style to try to be more effective by cutting expenses, decreasing waste, and increasing customer satisfaction. A team might begin by breaking down tasks step-by-step to identify any resource waste, including time and money. This approach may also be the most effective way to speed up delivery and increase productivity with limited resources. For instance, if there is a manpower scarcity or a lack of raw resources due to an energy crisis.

iv. Kanban

It is a Japanese project management technique that facilitates the planning of each project step on a visual board, sometimes referred to as a Kanban board. For firms looking to address issues while updating their business models, this process is helpful. It provides a fundamental and adaptable viewpoint to manage possible risks and seize opportunities.

Strategy and Project Design

The creation of a strategy and the writing of the project document is the second stage of the project cycle. This comprises the justification for the project's execution as well as a description of what will be done, how it will be carried out, who will do it, where it will be done, and when. In order for you to assess the project's accomplishments and effects at the conclusion, it summarizes the scenario as it was before to the project's commencement. Start by doing a stakeholder analysis, as shown in Table 1, to identify the important stakeholders in a project, as well as their identities, areas of interest (both positive and negative), and potential effects on the project. The "stakeholders" of a project are all the persons or entities who will be touched by the project, or who might make or break the project's success. They might be winners or losers, involved in the decision-making process or not, consumers of the outcomes or active players. You may create and maintain connections with these characters by mapping out the roles they should perform at various stages of the project[5].

	High influence	Low influence
Low Importance	Stakeholders who have nothing to gain or lose from the project, but whose actions have the potential to impact the project's capacity to achieve its aims. Keep an eye on them since they might be unexpected and a source of harm.	Stakeholders whose actions have minimal impact on the project and who have nothing to gain or lose from it. Simply make an effort to educate this group.
High Importance	Stakeholders who have a lot to gain or lose from the project and whose actions might impact its capacity to achieve its goals. Because of how influential these players are, solid connections must be built.	Stakeholders who have a lot to gain or lose from the project but whose actions cannot hinder it from achieving its goal. Even if these players are weak, you must ensure that their interests are taken into account.

 Table 1: Represented the Stakeholder's Analysis.

Finally, it is time to create an overview of the entire plan, and introduce some tools to refine the planning process: assumptions, risk assessments, and objectively verifiable indicators.

- **a.** Assumptions are those conditions outside the control of the project but critical for its success such that a supportive government, adequate legislation, continuing peace in the area, etc.
- **b.** Risk assessment is required to acknowledge that something can go wrong: the government may be replaced by a less favorable one, local staff may fear for their safety in joining your project, the security situation may deteriorate, etc. Risks should be part of your project plan. Generally, the risks are not very likely at the moment otherwise you would not propose the project.
- **c.** Indicators also need to be identified when you develop your logical framework, which will allow you to determine whether you have achieved the objectives or outcomes that you expected, whether you have delivered all the outputs you planned, and whether all the activities on your plan have in fact been completed. You should also develop or identify tools to verify these indicators[6], [7].

DISCUSSION

The project cycle's last phase includes evaluation and closure. Checking to see whether your goals are being met or are likely to be met is called evaluating. Effects and overall project or programmer effectiveness are the main topics of evaluations. These may be conducted out either internally by specialist departments inside your firm or outside through audits, inspections, and investigations.

Monitoring and assessment are essential. Your funders, your stakeholders, but most importantly you as the project manager or team member, are interested in how the project is being carried out and if it is yielding the outcomes you had hoped for. The process of properly completing all project-related contractual responsibilities is an administrative one, but it also involves acknowledging outputs by all stakeholders, recording lessons learned, and archiving. While being sometimes disregarded, finishing a project takes adequate planning[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

Project management is the use or application of knowledge while employing certain procedures and instruments to control procedures and resources in order to accomplish a goal. There are many variations on these themes in the numerous definitions of project management, but the definition will always vary based on your project, therefore it is ultimately up to you. Projects are common in daily life and are best characterized as a set of tasks or activities that must be finished in order to attain a goal. All of us will use fundamental project management strategies to plan the project and accomplish the goal, such as making a "To Do" list to organize activities and keep track of their completion. Where Projects are established in an enterprise the stakes are invariably higher more investment, more risk or more complex tasks and dependencies. As a result greater skills are required to manage the Project and more experience is required allowing greater control and predictability of issues and assurance of outcomes.

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CHAPTER 18

AN OVERVIEW OF THE EVOLUTION OF ANY ORGANIZATION

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ABSTRACT:

Every organization's basic processes include evaluation, which helps with efficient planning and program management, increases responsibility, and aids in organizational learning and improvement. At every level of the company, it is crucial. The coherence between outcomes and specified aims, as well as between specific objectives and overall objectives of institutional initiatives, program, or plans, is compared and analyzed using organizational assessment tools.

KEYWORDS:

Adaptation, Evolution, Organizations, Projects, Selection.

INTRODUCTION

With the extensive mandates, substantial financial commitments, and often significant environmental footprints of UN peace and security initiatives, it is crucial to comprehend the effects of a peace operation and if intended outcomes are being realized. This encourages member states, governing bodies, management, staff, and national stakeholders to think and learn on the applicability, efficacy, efficiency, impact, and sustainability of UN programs.

Activities, projects, initiatives, strategies, policies, whole organizations, etc. are just a few of the many items that may be assessed. The three evaluation tasks that will be covered in this chapter are strategic-level benchmarking, impact evaluations, and project and activity assessments. It outlines the hurdles involved in a thorough assessment of effect in post-conflict environments as well as the issues managers are likely to encounter when conducting or commissioning an evaluation.

Principle of the Evolution

The critical functions of evaluation are to: support strategic and evidence-based management, improve accountability, and assist organizational learning [1].

Strategic Management

UN field missions operate in changing environments, as was emphasized in earlier chapters. Planning, organization, and project management are therefore not "one-off" tasks, but rather ongoing iterative processes. Evaluation provides the evidentiary basis to assess whether changes are needed, ranging from specific programs all the way up to the overall mandate of the mission. This assumes special significance in complicated operations where there are numerous UN system and other actors present. A shared diagnostic, which is frequently an essential starting point for a shared strategy, is provided by well-managed evaluation.

Accountability

For the assessment of UN operations, there are often clear legal and policy criteria. They include, for instance:

- i. Results-Based Budgeting standards.
- **ii.** Security Council directives to measure progress.
- iii. The Integrated Missions Planning Process's policy framework (IMPP).
- **iv.** Program assessments by the Office for Internal Oversight Services, which concentrate on the success of specific political or peacekeeping operations.

There is a greater responsibility to the principles and the people of the host nation behind these formal criteria. The UN Security Council and General Assembly, both of which have a say in determining the specifics of UN field operations, are included in the group of principals. In most cases, it also involves contributors providing certain resources, including voluntary donations for program activities or trust funds covering the costs of mission support. By mission directives, financing agreements, or project agreements, these parties have the ability to create and do set precise legal criteria for review. Yet, assessment may also be a force multiplier or even a marketing tool for in-country management. To make sure that support stays flowing, it is crucial to invest the time and resources needed to evaluate if achievements are being accomplished. Also, when evaluation is done correctly, it may direct help in the appropriate ways at the appropriate moments[2]. The people who are meant to benefit from mission operations are included in the population of the host nation. Depending on the evaluation's breadth, the target group might be very small or extremely large, including anything from a single town targeted by a project to the whole nation impacted by a peacekeeping mission.

Learning

This function is intended to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of activities. Effectiveness is judged by the extent to which benefits were realized over and above any negative consequences of the program. Efficiency is judged by the net benefits relative to the cost of program inputs. In both respects, the learning function of evaluation means identifying areas for improvement getting a sense of what works and what doesn't. These can broadly be called lessons learned, and answer questions such as the following:What kind of management structure provides the right incentives? What structure helps to ensure good problem solving and decision making rather than hinder it?

- i. How can we design activities to increase positive impact? For example, should they be sequenced in a particular way?
- ii. Are certain benefits more significant or visible than others? Are there positive interrelationships (synergies) between different activities that could be encouraged?
- iii. How can activities be designed so that beneficial changes are sustainable beyond the direct involvement of the mission? These lessons can be used to modify ongoing activities or programs or to design new ones in the future.

Organizing for Evaluation

The best evaluations are prospective, meaning that they are initiated at the start of an activity, and not retrospective, meaning that they are initiated only after the activity is finished.

Prospective evaluations ensure that those doing the evaluation know exactly what is happening in the activity. Within a planning process it is essential to have a "baseline" as a point of comparison. Policy guidance such as the DPKO/DFS "capstone doctrine" accordingly emphasizes that considerations for transition and drawdown should be factored in from the very start of mission planning. The Integrated Missions Planning Process sets out specific expectations in this regard[3].

Articulating a Theory of Change

A "theory of change" is an explanation of your expectations about how activities or projects will ultimately translate into meaningful outcomes. This is the basis for sound impact evaluation. For example, community reconciliation efforts might be centered on interethnic community dialogue meetings.

The theory of change is that dialogue will help community members to learn new things about their common interests, and thus help to overcome mistrust across ethnic lines. Evaluation then has three focal points:

- i. Outputs: that meetings occur, and are attended.
- ii. Theory of change: whether learning occurs at these meetings.
- iii. Impact: whether levels of trust actually increase.

Being explicit about your theory of change helps to focus the evaluation and assess whether the program is working as expected.

Stakeholders

Those who need to be involved must also be carefully considered at the design phase. A largescale evaluation will invariably implicate multiple parts of the mission, usually other parts of the UN system, and very often other actors. Most notably these include the following:

- i. The host government. For some interventions, it may be important to have an evaluation that is independent of the host government. For others, it may be imperative to secure the buy-in and engagement of the host government, particularly when there are questions of transition and handover of responsibilities from the mission.
- ii. The UN system in-country. Most peacekeeping and political missions are now formally integrated. In practical terms, a shared diagnostic is usually the best starting point for shared programs, or for shared strategy. The Integrated Missions Planning Process (IMPP) sets out specific expectations in this regard.
- iii. Authorizing actors. This includes those headquarters offices that interface directly with the Security Council and member states. Above all, country-level benchmarking must connect effectively with processes at HQ level. For example, the technical assessment missions that usually precede the renewal of a peacekeeping mandate.

Beyond those who are directly involved, also consider who might be interested in the findings. This may include humanitarian actors, advocacy groups like Human Rights Watch or International Crisis Group, or diplomatic partners.

Types of Evaluation

For an evaluation to deliver what you want, you need to be clear about your goals. This section covers three such goals:

- **i.** Monitoring whether activities occurred as planned, and if they were relatively cost-effective;
- **ii.** Assessing the true impact of an activity, and lessons for the future;
- iii. Tracking the overall strategic picture, either for a specific sector or the country as a whole.

Evaluation of Delivery

There are two main perspectives for assessing the delivery of activities and projects: a beneficiary assessment and a performance evaluation[4].

A beneficiary assessment measures conditions among those receiving benefits, directly or indirectly, from the activity. It addresses the following questions:

- i. Are the intended outputs reaching the intended beneficiaries?
- **ii.** Are the beneficiaries satisfied with what they are receiving?
- iii. Is the activity generating any ill will in the targeted community or elsewhere?
- iv. How are the conditions of beneficiaries changing over time?
- v. Is the activity providing benefits that are relevant to the target community's needs?
- vi. Will changes brought about by the activity last beyond the period of direct engagement?

Beneficiary assessments can help managers understand whether the assumptions behind the design of the activity were good ones, whether the goals are valid, and whether immediate needs are being addressed appropriately.

They may use either quantitative information or qualitative information. Information may be gathered using management information systems or activity logs, questionnaires administered to beneficiaries, focus group discussions, or interviews with key informants.

Performance evaluation is a second perspective on activities and projects, which focuses on the individuals and organizations who are the implementers. It answers the following questions[5]:

- i. In implementing the activity, did the organization perform as efficiently as possible, and if not, why?
- ii. Did decision-making processes help to reduce mistakes? Did they help to ensure that all stakeholders' interests were taken into account or, did they unduly obstruct timely and effective problem-solving?

Performance evaluation is usually undertaken after the activity is finished, but it may be done at points in time during the activity period. The evaluation is usually based on interviews with staff, quantitative data such as budget execution reports, and qualitative information such as internal

after-action reports. Performance evaluations often also include vignettes that describe specific successes or failures that occurred during the program. These vignettes are used to suggest lessons for future management practice. DPKO's Best Practices Section publishes this type of material[6].

Impact

Evaluating impact is more ambitious and more technically challenging than evaluating project delivery. It tries to answer the following questions:

- i. For the people targeted by the activity, would their well-being have been worse, better, or pretty much the same had the activity never taken place?
- ii. Were there any indirect or unintended effects, whether good or bad, due to the activity?
- iii. Were the benefits of the activity sufficient to justify the costs?
- iv. What kinds of people benefited most from the activity?
- v. What strategies are effective for making the activity more beneficial?

According to the International Initiative for Impact Evaluation, "high quality impact evaluations measure the net change in outcomes that can be attributed to a specific program[7]. Impact studies help inform policy as to what works, what does not, and why."

DISCUSSION

The ideal is to identify a comparison group at the start of the activity. There are two types of strategies to do this. The first is to design the program itself in such a way as to allow for a rigorous impact evaluation. The second is to exploit almost-random variation and use controlled comparisons for a quasi-random comparison. Full randomization is always the strongest method. Potential beneficiaries can be narrowed down to a pool of eligible individuals, communities, or organizations. In some cases, the number of potential beneficiaries may be much greater than the number of people that the program can serve.

A lottery system is then used to determine who receives benefits and who does not. The impact evaluation then tracks outcomes among those selected as well as those not selected. It uses differences between these two groups to determine impact, either for the program as a whole or for different approaches within the program. A case study at the end of this chapter provides an example of a randomized impact evaluation, studying the impact of a community directed reconstruction program in eastern Liberia[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

There are approaches that can be tried in these situations, although generally they cannot reach the level of rigor of the approaches already discussed. One approach is to try to identify changes that could only plausibly occur as a result of the activity, and then to track outcomes to see if these changes happen. Such a strategy can benefit a great deal from qualitative information from beneficiaries who can provide details about how, exactly, the program has affected their wellbeing. The weakness relative to using a comparison group is that this approach relies on more assumptions; there is no way to say for sure whether an outcome is exclusively attributable to the program. Another approach is to use pre-activity information baseline information and the opinions of experts and informants to project what would have happened with no program, and then to track outcomes against this benchmark. These strategies are what national governments sometimes do in assessing the impact of, for instance, tax laws, in which case economic models are used to predict what would have happened had there been no policy change. The obvious weakness of this approach is that there is no way to validate these projections.

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CHAPTER 19

AN OVERVIEW OF THE NATURE AND FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Management is a process that balances the limited human and financial assets and inspires employees to work forward towards the organization's goals. Management is a continuing set of connected operations as opposed to one single action. The project manager is the culmination of these actions. It consisting of a group of interconnected tasks or duties required to meet defined organizational objectives. A process is a methodical approach to completing tasks. It deals with the process of turning inputs into outputs. Knowing the tasks the managers accomplish will be accessible via an examination of the strategy implementation.

KEYWORDS:

Evolution, Financial, Management, Organizations, Selection.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations have a plethora of goals which usually directs their energies and resources to achieve these goals. Organizations possess human as well as nonhuman resources such that plant, equipment, land, money, etc. that are put to use in the accomplishment of target oriented and time bound goals. Management is the force that unifies resources in the service of organizational goals. It is a process of getting results with and through people. Management is needed whenever people work together in an organization. The managerial functions which includes planning, organizing directing and controlling must be performed by a person who is capable of managing efforts, whether it is a business enterprise, religious organization, military outfit or a social. These functions are performed at all levels in an organization, regardless of its type or size. The services of management are essential in all cooperative endeavors. In this unit, you will learn about the various features of Management, science, art, profession, group/team, process etc.[1].

Nature of Management

Management is related to regulating human and physical resources in order to achieve organizational goals. The nature of management can be highlighted as:

i. Management is Goal-Oriented

The accomplishment of several management activities advances by its appearance of its planned aims or objective. Management is involved in descriptive action. It continues a facility which supports the operation of communal as well as corporal revenues to fulfil the pre-determined approaches. For simulation, the objective of a business is to claim maximum customer engorgement by developing specialty article additionally at feasible charges. This can be apprehended by exercising desirable persons furthermore bringing about favorable usage connectedly minimal reserves.

ii. Management integrates Human, Physical and Financial Resources

In an organization, communal presence functions with non-human reserves like instruments, components, financial inventories, frameworks etc. The entire establishment sticks together communal actions with those reserves. It carries about a conspicuous consonance among the communal, corporal as well as financial reserves.

iii. Management is Continuous

Management is basically an on-going approach which encompasses responding of difficulties as well as handling various consequences. It exists while considering the determination of difficulties which will achieve adequate grades to recognize it. It is analyzed that the objective of an establishment continues as utmost development mechanism. For arresting this destination, complex mechanisms are to be conveyed away furthermore which endures without conclusion. Marketing and broadcasting continues furthermore to be endeavored for comprehension generally which instructions acquire to be arranged, so this is called as an on-going mechanism[2].

iv. Management is all Pervasive

Management continues imperative in conclusive categories of organizations whether it continues political, communal and cultural or business which will handle and commands complex behaviors towards a perfect approach. We see that clubs, hospitals, political parties, colleges, hospitals, business firms all require management. If more that an individual person is engaged in common work, then under such situation, management plays an important role. It is immaterial of the small firm in trading or large firm, all requires management.

v. Management is a Group Activity

Management is not as concerned with individual efforts as it is about groups and team work. It involves the use of teamwork to achieve predetermined goal of management.

vi. Principles are Dynamic in Nature

Principle is a fundamental truth, which establishes cause and effect relationships of a function within a set- up. Based on integration and supported by practical evidences, the management has framed certain principles. However, these principles are flexible in nature and keep changing with the environment in which the organization exists. Because of the continuous development in the field, many older principles are replaced by new principles. Continuous researches are being carried out to establish principles in changing society and no principle can be regarded as a final truth. In fact, there is nothing permanent in the landslide of management.

vii. Principles are Relative, not Absolute

Management principles are relative, not absolute and they should be applied according to the need of the organization. The organizational difference between organizations may exist because of time, place, socio-cultural factors, etc. However, individuals working within the same organization may also differ. Thus, a particular management principle has different strengths in

different conditions. Therefore, principles of management should be applied in the light of prevailing conditions. Allowance must be made for different changing environment.

viii. Management is a Science, Art and Profession

There is a controversy whether management is science or art. However, management is both a science and an art because it follows principles of science and requires the skills of an art. Management has been regarded as a profession by many while many have suggested otherwise.

ix. Management is Decision-Making

Management process involves decision-making at various levels. This usually includes delegation of work. Decision-making basically involves selecting the most appropriate alternative out of the several alternatives available. If there is only one alternative, the question of decision-making does not arise.

The quality of the alternative that a manager selects determines the organizations performance and the future of the entire organization rests on the degree of right decisions are made by this class of executives. Therefore, the success or failure of managers can be judged by the quality of decisions that they make.

Management as a Process

When considering management as a process, management refers to a series of inter-related functions. It is the process by which management creates, operates and directs purposive organization through systematic, coordinated and cooperative human efforts. Management is a distinct process consisting of planning organizing, actuating and controlling, performed to determine and accomplish stated objective by the use of human beings and other resources. As a process, management consists of four aspects as mention in Figure 1[3]:

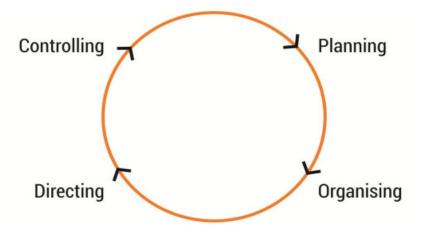


Figure 1: Displayed the Process of the Management Process.

i. Management is a Social Process

Since the human factor is most important among the other factors, management is concerned with developing relationships among people. It is the duty of the management to make interaction between people productive and useful for obtaining organizational goals.

ii. Management is an Integrating Process

Management undertakes the job of bringing together human physical and financial resources so as to achieve the end-organizational purpose. Therefore, it is an important function to bring harmony between various factors.

iii. Management is a Continuous Process

As a never ending process, Management is concerned with constantly identifying the problems and solving them by taking adequate steps. It is an on-going process.

Management as a Science

Management continues as a science in experience which is accurate, scientific as well as correct arrangements possessing as comprehended as well as digested. Many custodians will acquire a favorable control of assured quantitative mechanisms by encompassing financial as well as geometric documentation along with below scientific as well researched are checked as constituents which is similar as communal stimulation along with the consequence of contradictory incentive systems based on operation of no uniform assignments. In extension, it may additionally describe a science which depends on additional enclosed establishment of truisms which for time being approximated as outclass behaviors with their emphasis on calculation as well as explanation of assessments against contexts along with regions. It believes that management describes as science since it consists relevantly of balanced as well as accounted operations[4].

In acquisition, it endures science since of the measure to which caretakers are agreeable to invest in acquisition of information along with their acquiescence on which the management activity is based upon in form of critical operation of information. Management claims a comprehensively elaborated thinking to arrange as well as command the operation of the organization's reserves, an understanding that existed precisely relevant in intervals of economic critical moments. It can be called as science since the organizations led to expert handling and monitoring that can achieve better adaptability to have good planning for running and maintaining business goals. Management uses precise measurement, research and planning which makes 'scientific' disciplines to gear up in getting faster response. It can be called as science since the organizations led to expert handling and monitoring that can achieve better adaptability to have good planning for running and maintaining business goals. Management uses precise measurement, research and planning that can achieve better adaptability to have good planning for running and maintaining business goals. Management uses precise measurement, research and planning which makes 'scientific' disciplines to gear up in getting faster response[5].

Management as an Art

We can say that management behaves as an art related to fixed and definite structures, which led to use of creativity, imagination, initiative and invention in the overall sphere of the occupation.

In management, creativity is required. Skills and the techniques describe the art of management as described below:

- **i.** Managers will fight for resources from all other organizations with correct skills and methods.
- ii. Managers should only design that gives great value.
- iii. Inventors should be rewarded.

- iv. Purchase apart from what is there and label it again.
- v. Combine internal and external products in order to have more value.
- vi. Retain employees by being successful.
- vii. Become powerful and challengeable in the market.

Management can be an art if they possess:

- **i.** Logical reasoning with step by step achievement of goals and purposes.
- ii. Clear and attractive development policies to attain goals.
- iii. Control of desired resources.
- **iv.** Logical design organization, direction as well as monitoring of activities and resources for particular purposes.
- v. Rewarding and Boosting qualities in getting work done.

It is seen that management is a mixture of both economic and cultural activities that aims to be applied everywhere. If the above combination gets disturbed than management will not function properly[6], [7].

DISCUSSION

Organization science has been keen to address processes of change in organizations and organizational populations. Terms such as 'evolution' and 'coevolution' are commonplace but signify little. It is often unclear whether they refer to single entities or populations. With the development of the conceptual categories of generalized Darwinism, researchers into organizations are obliged to either adopt this framework or clarify the alternative type of evolutionary process involved. As yet, no adequate developed alternative framework exists for populations or organizations, where we are required to explain the processes of competitive selection, the sources of variation, and the manner of replication of key strategic information. Adoption of the conceptual framework of generalized Darwinism has in part been blocked by misunderstandings and mischaracterizations. Previous objections turn out to be groundless. The adoption of Darwinian principles is not primarily a matter of analogy, but of ontological communality at an abstract level. The consideration of generalized Darwinism has further been thwarted by misleading terminology in the debate between selections and adaptations it views on organizational change. There is no warrant to confine Darwinism to one side of this debate. Darwinism does not uphold that organizational development or adaptation are unimportant. Even if something like Lamarckian inheritance is apparent, Lamarckism is not an over-arching evolutionary framework. The framework of generalized Darwinism not only can accommodate differing empirical assessments of the relative importance of selection and adaptation, but also provide the conceptual structure for the development of detailed theories of organizational and industrial evolution[8]-[10].

CONCLUSION

Controlling can be defined as determining what is being accomplished, that is evaluating the performance, if necessary applying corrective measures so that the performance takes place

according to plans. Control is essential for achieving objectives of an enterprise. The planning of various activities does not ensure automatic implementation of policies. Control is the process which enables management to get its policies implemented and take corrective actions if performance is not according to the pre-determined standards. If planning is the beginning of the management process, controlling may be said to be the final stage. If planning is looking ahead, controlling is looking back. Control is not possible without planning and planning is meaningless without control. Control is a line function and executives at various levels of management continuously assess the performance of their subordinates. The main purpose of control is to see that the activity is achieving the desired results. A control system, to be effective, must conform to the nature of activity, report deviations promptly, reflect organization structure, assure corrective action and be economical.

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CHAPTER 20

AN OVERVIEW OF THE MANAGEMENT FUNCTION

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ABSTRACT:

Managerial Functions refers to all roles that are innately supervisory in nature and endowed with the authority to make all administrative and policy decisions within an organization. Examples include the ability to grant leave, grant raises, impose disciplinary measures, dismiss, suspend, or terminate a worker, as well as other similar powers. Whenever humans simply are to be made in order to achieve the desired goals, management inside some form is an essential element. Whether we are managing our lives or our organizations, the essential ingredients of management are constantly working.

KEYWORDS:

Directing, Function Management, Organizing, Planning, Staffing.

INTRODUCTION

Management can be called off as a social process which is responsible for economic and accurate arrangement along with rules of operation for a particular organization in fulfilling desired request. This is a dynamic way as it contains several constituents and activities that are different in terms of operations that could be in areas of marketing, finance, purchase, etc. Instead, such activities are similar among each other as per the different levels of manager status. Logically, it is easy to bifurcate the function of management while practically such can place one above another in nature. According to the Figure 1, every function will take the shape into other and further will affect the performance[1].

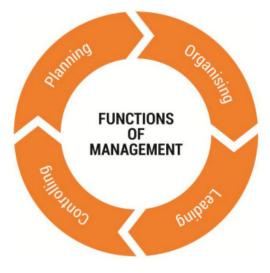


Figure 1: represented that the Function of Managements.

i. Planning

Planning is the foremost feature of a management which behaves with plans for future course of action and decides for the most correct course of actions in getting fixed goals. According to Koontz, planning is the advance preparation of action to be taken related to any work. This will link from the starting of a phase to the implementation phase. It is a future direction to be taken which could be worked in problem solving exercises and decision making. It is studied that planning shows related course of action to meet the required goals which involves straight and clear thinking about ways and means for doing fixed goals. Planning serves as a correct usage among human as well as non-human resources.

ii. Organizing

Organizing is related to involvement of physical, financial, human resources as well as development of productive relationships which appears amongst themselves for obtaining organizational criteria's. Henry Fayol relates organization as arranging a business which will give everything required for working and functioning. Practically, organizing a business needs finding and showing human and non-human constituents for organizational arrangements. The process of Organizing includes[2]:

- **a.** Exploring activities
- **b.** Classifying activity groups
- **c.** Declaration of responsibilities
- d. Delegating authority and responsibility
- e. Functioning with authority and coordination
- iii. Staffing

It involves association of manpower to support an organization function. With the advent of new technologies and spreading of business avenues, staffing play an important role in catering services rendered by organizations. The idea of staffing is assign right job for right people. This chapter explained staffing as manpower involvement in an organization as per desired selection Staffing involves:

- **a.** Recruitments after planning
- **b.** Processes related to recruitment, selection along with placement
- c. Activities related to Training and development
- **d.** Basic remuneration to be offered
- e. Appraisals
- **f.** Promotions and transfers

iv. Directing

This is the sector of managerial function which allows organizational methods to work correctly and efficiently in obtaining organizational challenges. This is an inter-personnel concern of a management that influences, guide, supervise and motivate sub-ordinates for obtaining organizational parameters. Direction has the following elements:

- **a.** Supervision: Inspecting the work of sub-ordinates with the help of superiors.
- **b.** Motivation: This involves the work of a superior to inspire, stimulate and encourage with passion to work.
- **c.** Leadership: It is the capability which shows the guidance given by mangers to his subordinate to work in certain direction.
- **d.** Communications: This involves sharing, communicating and passing of related information from one person to another. This serves as a bridge of understanding.

v. Controlling

It implies measurement of approach against particular standards with alterations in deflection, if any, will make sure the approach of organizational objectives. The idea behind controlling is to make sure that all will come in conformity with particular standards. A good effective mechanism will handle to think about deflection earlier at times when it actually occurs. Controlling, as per Theo Heiman is basically a mechanism of analyzing progress that happens towards particular aims and objectives if required to correct any deflection. This chapter explained controlling as mechanism that involves correction of activities of subordinates to ensure about enterprise objectives with related plans to get them arrived. Therefore, controlling has the following steps[3]:

- **a.** Establishing constant measures
- **b.** Measure real performance
- c. Comparing performances with standards and locating deviations
- **d.** Corrective action

Importance of Management

The importance of management may be traced in the following Figure 2:

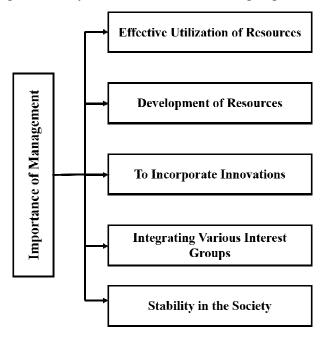


Figure 2: Illustrated the Importance of Management.

i. Effective Utilization of Resources

Management tries to make effective utilization of various resources. The resources are scarce in nature and to meet the demand of the society, their contribution should be maximum for the general interests of the society. The management not only decides in which particular alternative a particular resource should be used, but also takes actions to utilize it in that particular alternative in the best way.

ii. Development of Resources

Management develops various resources. This is true with human as well as non-human factors. Lawrence Appley has emphasized that, management is the development of people. However, most of the researches for resource development are carried on in an organized way and management is involved in these organized activities. Thus, through the development of resources, management improves the quality of lives of people in the society[4].

iii. To Incorporate Innovations

Today, changes are occurring at a very fast rate in both technology and social process and structure. These changes need to be incorporated to keep the organizations alive and efficient. Business organizations are moving from primitive to sophisticated. Therefore, they require high degree of specialization, high level of competence and complex technology. All these require efficient management so that organizations work in the most efficient way.

iv. Integrating Various Interest Groups

In the organized efforts, there are various interest groups and they put pressure over other groups for maximum share in the combined output. For example, in the case of a business organization, there are various pressure groups such as shareholders, employees, government, etc. These interest groups have pressure on an organization. In a more advanced and complex society, more such pressure is on the organization. Management has to balance these pressures from various interest groups.

v. Stability in the Society

Management provides stability in the society by changing and modifying the resources in accordance with the changing environment of the society. In the modern age, more emphasis is on new inventions for the betterment of human beings. These inventions make old systems and factors mostly obsolete and inefficient. Management provides integration between traditions and new inventions and safeguards society from the unfavorable impact of these inventions so that continuity in social process is maintained[5].

Management and Administrations

Administration means overall determination of policies, setting of major objectives, the identification of general purposes and lying down of broad programs and projects." It refers to the activities of higher level. It lays down basic principles of the initiative. Administration means guidance, leadership and control of the efforts of the groups towards some common goals[6], [7].

Characteristics of management

• Management of people

- Management of work
- Management is multi-dimensional
- Management is all-pervasive
- Management of operations
- Management is a continuous process
- Management is a Dynamic Function
- Management is a group activity
- Management is an intangible force
- Management is a goal-oriented process

Objectives of Management

- Maintain discipline and moral
- Optimum utilization of resources
- Ensuring regular work flow
- Mobilizing best talent
- Minimize element of risk
- Improving performance
- Promotion of research and development

DISCUSSION

Management helps in maintaining effective use of skillsets and knowledge of experts and professionals to reduce wastage of manpower, material and all related direct and indirect costs. Management enables maximum utilization of resources by selecting its best possible alternate use in industry. When the resources you use in terms of investment, transport, manpower and more are all noted down and calculated well in advance, there certainly would be no reason to see an increase in costs. Better yet, this helps an organization in maintaining effective utilization of manpower and machinery, thereby helping in reducing costs. Management as a function is responsible for growth and survival of organization. Management helps organizations adapt to changing demand of market / changing needs of societies. Thereby helping them thrive even as they experience change in market trends[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

The resources are coordinated, directed and controlled in such a manner that enterprise work towards attainment of goals. By defining objective of organization clearly there would be no wastage of time, money and effort. Management fills up various positions with right persons, having right skills, training and qualification. All jobs should be cleared to everyone. The sign of a good management system for an organization, is spelt by the way it helps the organization function well financially, as a team and as individuals.

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CHAPTER 21

AN OVERVIEW OF EARNINGS MANAGEMENT AND CORPORATE TAX

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ABSTRACT:

The administration of money for the purpose of having to pay taxes is referred to as tax management. Tax management deals with appropriate filing of Returns, having the accounts audited, deferring tax at source, and other related issues. Tax management aids in preventing the payment of interest, fines, and legal fees. The concept of managing earnings is using accounting methods to create financial statements that unduly advantageously portray a company's operations and financial standing. The management of a business must make decisions in order to comply with so many accounting regulations and principles.

KEYWORDS:

Avoidance, Corporate Tax, Earnings Management, Firm Value, Developing Country.

INTRODUCTION

Prior research has closely associated EM with tax avoidance activities. Particularly, it has been argued that tax avoidance has complementary techniques with EM, such that management who are tasked to avoid taxes can simultaneously use those avoidance techniques to manipulate earnings to derive some private benefit. Tax avoidance has been described as a transfer of value from the state to shareholders. It is ascribed to be value enhancing and beneficial to shareholders. This is because, tax expenditure often represent a very significant portion of a company's profits and poses potentially huge risks. Besides compliance cost are large such as employing tax experts and filling of returns and the burden of the tax paid by the company is borne by shareholders in the form of reduced dividends. Hence CTA is deemed desirable to shareholders as minimized tax payments leaves excess after tax cash flow that can either be distributed as extra dividends or invested in profitable projects.

On the other hand, EM can be viewed as a transfer of value from shareholders to management. This is because diverted funds could have been used for profitable investments or paid out as dividends. Consequently, firms associated with EM have been found to have lower valuations. If complementary technologies exist between EM and CTA, what then will be the ultimate impact of the interactions between EM and CTA on the value of the firm? This paper seeks to add to ongoing discussions on the subject matter by empirically analyzing the interactions among EM, CTA and firm value. Particularly, it examines two related hypothesis: First, CTA increases manipulative behaviors of managers. Second, the interaction between earnings management and corporate tax avoidance has an overall negative impact on firm value. Although, no previous study has tested both hypotheses in a single study, several papers have contributed to the study of EM and the agency perspective of tax avoidance[1].

The influence of taxes on corporations has largely been considered within a framework where taxes are involuntary payments that influence financing and investment choices on the margin. Such a framework does not dismiss the role of taxes but views them as inescapable environmental factors that must be weighed against a variety of other factors, such as those emphasized framework for understanding corporate financing decisions. Consequently, most scholarly attention has been focused on how taxes change capital structure, dividend or investment decisions. Accounts of rising corporate tax avoidance suggest that a pure compliance function no longer characterizes the way corporations and managers consider their corporate tax obligation. U.S. Treasury department officials have characterized corporate tax avoidance as what may be the most serious compliance issue threatening the American tax system today. Such assessments typically point to aggregate measures of tax avoidance including measures of the growing difference between income reported to tax authorities and capital markets, declining effective tax rates on public financial statements and the growing share of firms with no tax liability. These trends raise a variety of important issues for scholars and practitioners. The accounts of rising corporate tax avoidance have led some scholars to reframe these questions in an even more provocative way.

Given low levels of detection and penalties, why don't all firms avoid corporate taxes? In other words, why are firms paying taxes at all given the 2 likelihood that they could reduce tax obligations without suffering significant consequences raises even more puzzles about how managers and firms view corporate tax obligations. This paper attempts to address these questions by reviewing recent research on the prevalence and determinants of corporate tax avoidance. This recent research embeds corporate tax avoidance decisions within an agency framework that emphasizes managerial motivations. In doing so, this research attempts to analyze the determinants of firm heterogeneity in undertaking corporate tax avoidance. Such a research agenda requires defining corporate tax avoidance, devising a measure of corporate tax avoidance.

The results point towards a variety of factors that run counter to the typical characterizations of why firms engage in tax avoidance. Specifically, they suggest that opportunistic managers can employ the technologies of tax avoidance to advance their own interests, creating a tension between managers and shareholders on tax avoidance. Before going any further, it is worth emphasizing that defining corporate tax avoidance is non-trivial. Many scholars suggest that corporate tax avoidance activities or the use of corporate tax shelters, a largely synonymous term are most effectively defined by what they are not. Many corporate transactions including the most elemental financing choice of whether to finance oneself with debt rather than equity have important, but typically secondary, tax consequences. Such decisions are primarily motivated by an underlying business purpose.

Thus, even though they may generate tax benefits, they are not typically considered instances of corporate tax avoidance. This intuition for how to define corporate tax avoidance has become established in tax law through the economic substance, business purpose, and other avoidance doctrines. Such doctrines create exceptions to the otherwise applicable tax law in order to deny tax deductions generated by activities that are deemed to be purely or primarily motivated by tax avoidance[2]. As with obscenity, though, the most functional definition of corporate tax avoidance may be a somewhat more facetious one. It has defined tax shelters as transactions that are done by very smart people that, absent tax considerations, would be very stupid. In the following, we begin by discussing how corporate tax avoidance decisions can be embedded

within a broader agency framework. In order to clarify the intuition behind this alternative view of corporate tax avoidance, we dissect a real corporate tax shelter and distill its lessons to develop a simple stylized example. These examples illuminate how corporate tax avoidance activities need not advance the interests of shareholders. Then, we outline a method for measuring tax avoidance and discuss large-sample results on the determinants of corporate tax avoidance decisions. These results indicate that corporate tax avoidance decisions are not merely transfers from the state to the shareholders. We conclude with some implications for managers and scholars[3].

Managerial Motivations for Corporate Tax Avoidance

A simple and prevalent view in existing research is that tax shelters represent a means of reducing tax obligations and little more. As such, these investigations frame the use of tax shelters within the literature on non-debt tax shields, as one of many transactions that can reduce taxes. For the best example, estimate the degree to which tax shelters substitute for debt as a means of reducing tax obligations. This framework, however, ignores the distinctive nature of tax shelters that they serve no economic purpose other than tax avoidance and abstracts from any notion of managerial motivation.

A first pass at incorporating managerial motivations into an analysis of corporate tax avoidance suggests that managers with interests more closely aligned with shareholders would behave more like residual claimants and engage in tax avoidance more aggressively to advance the interests of their shareholders. Within this framework, the historic unwillingness of managers to engage in corporate tax avoidance can be explained as a reflection of a principal-agent problem that put a natural brake on corporate tax avoidance, as agents were unwilling to pursue actions that advanced shareholder interests. This intuition has the added benefit of tying together the rise of incentive compensation and increased levels of corporate tax avoidance over the last fifteen years. Essentially, shareholders want managers to avoid taxes and managers, once their incentives are sufficiently aligned, engage in tax avoidance. However, this view does not incorporate the central tension between managers and shareholders that managers may behave opportunistically and in a manner that is not in the interests of shareholders. How could this opportunism be related to tax avoidance?[4]

A critical dimension of corporate tax avoidance is the need to engage in actions that obscure the underlying intent of the transaction. Indeed, tax avoidance often demands such obfuscation to guarantee the tax benefits. Such obfuscation, however, can simultaneously provide a shield for managers engaging in a variety of diversionary activities. As such, the technologies of diversion managers engaging in actions not in the interests of shareholders and sheltering managers shielding income from tax authorities may well be complementary. Specifically, engaging in sheltering may reduce the marginal costs of diverting income. As discussed below, such an interpretation of corporate tax avoidance appears to be consistent with anecdotal and systematic evidence provided in recent research outline a model where managers can be opportunistic and a variety of such technological complementarities between sheltering and diversion are possible. Several conclusions emerge from this model. First, the relationship between tax avoidance decisions and managerial high-powered incentives is ambiguous and depends on the relationship between the technologies of avoidance and diversion.

Specifically, technological complementarities between sheltering and diversion make tax avoidance less likely when managerial interests are more closely aligned with shareholder

interests. This results stands in contrast to the simple intuition that increased incentive alignment results in more tax avoidance. The intuition for this contrary result is that more high-powered incentives make managers behave more like shareholders; if the technologies are not complementary, then this will increase avoidance. If, however, avoidance and sheltering are positively related, then an opposing force can overturn this result and increased high-powered incentives can result in reduced sheltering. The second related result from this model is that while the average relationship is ambiguous across firms and a function of this technological relationship, the governance characteristics of firms will mediate this opposing force. Consequently, better-governed firms will have a more positive relationship between high-powered incentives and tax sheltering decisions, regardless of the average relationship between high-powered incentives and tax avoidance. These two theoretical results are examined in large sample research described[5].

It should be emphasized that in the US context the term "diversion" should be understand broadly. While it is usually defined as the straightforward looting of the firm, any actions benefiting managers that are not in the interests of shareholders can be understood as diversionary. In particular, the examples below focus on the use of earnings management in ways that provide benefits on managers and that do not benefit shareholders.

Examples of Tax Avoidance

Prior to turning to more systematic evidence on the relevance of these alternative views of tax avoidance, it is useful to consider real world examples of how tax avoidance works and to illuminate its underlying motivations. This exercise requires finding a case where the details have become public; this is of course more likely in extreme situations. The example below is drawn from the activities of Enron; however, as the testimony of the actors makes clear, the lessons for managerial motivations are not limited to this extreme context[6].

A report by the Joint Committee on Taxation of the US Congress provides a unique perspective on how central earning manipulation was to Enron's extensive use of tax shelters. In summarizing various transactions, the JCT concluded that Enron's management set high financial accounting goals and realized quickly that tax-motivated transactions could generate sizable financial accounting benefits. Accordingly, "Enron looked to its tax department to devise transactions that increased financial accounting income. In effect, the tax department was converted into an Enron business unit, complete with annual revenue targets. The tax department, in consultation with outside experts, then designed transactions to meet or approximate the technical requirements of tax provisions with the primary purpose of manufacturing financial statement income."

One example of such a transaction was "Project Steele." As Enron had already guaranteed that it would not pay taxes well into the future through previous tax shelters, this transaction was motivated by the fact that it would create \$133 million in pretax financial accounting income. Ironically, in order to generate favorable tax treatment, Enron admitted that its "purported principal business purpose for the transaction was to generate financial accounting income." In addition to the fact that no current tax savings were generated, it is also useful to note that the very complex structure was extremely costly to undertake. Project fees were estimated at over \$11 million. As such, shareholders did not benefit from material tax savings, were manipulated by managers with financial accounting goals, and paid considerable fees in the process[7].

The documents released through the JCT's investigations reveal that the purveyors of the transaction recognized the centrality of financial accounting benefits to corporate tax shelters. Bankers Trust, the advisor to Enron on this transaction, initially showed a variant on the final structure that did not provide financial accounting benefits. Internal documents reveal that Bankers Trust concluded "that it would not receive much, if any, interest for the tax benefits alone but if the transaction were redesigned to provide for financial accounting benefits, as well, then corporate clients would be extremely interested and would pay a substantial fee....other less expensive alternatives exist to generate equivalent tax benefits." As such, it appears clear that tax avoidance opportunities are usefully bundled with earning management by purveyors of those shelters.

Corporate Governance

Corporate governance arises due to principle-agent problem. Corporate governance could reduce monitoring cost by creating a higher level of control and transparency. It is a system that influence how a corporation directed and controlled found corporation with better corporate governance will have a better performance compare to corporation with worse corporate governance.

Earnings Management

Earnings management occur when management make an accounting decisions that change bottom line of corporation and distorting the application of generally accepted accounting principles. According to this chapter corporation with better growth prospects are tend to be more motivated to do the earnings management[8].

Tax Management

Tax management is a process to organize a corporation so its tax liabilities stay in the minimum position according to tax code with opportunity cost and political cost.

That earnings management and tax management is affected by corporate governance. The optimal number of board in a corporation differs according to characteristic of each corporation. In the contrary, less number of board will create better oversight function which will be more focused to convince management for conducting an earnings management and tax management[9].

DISCUSSION

For the first test using generally accepted accounting principle effective tax rate, we have found that all variables significantly affected tax management in 1% and it is only board compensation and enterprise value which have significant influence to earnings management board compensation is significant in 5%, and enterprise value is significant in 1%. Number of board has a positive coefficient. We also found a negative coefficient of number of independent board which is supported.

The last one is board compensation. From our research, we have a negative coefficient of compensation. When we use current ETR as our dependent variable, the only difference we found with the GAAP ETR is in number of board. The negative coefficient in number of board in the second study means higher number of board will result in lower current effective tax rate. Which found higher number of board in a big corporation will result in better corporate

performance. From the research of corporate governance using GAAP effective tax rate and current effective tax rate, we conclude that there is a different result using different tax rate[10], [11].

CONCLUSION

In this chapter we can conclude that some part of corporate governance significantly affected both tax management and earnings management. We have found evidence of mixed correlation to tax management. Independent board and board compensation consistently show a negative correlation to tax management. While for number of board, we found a positive correlation to tax management by using ETR and a negative correlation to tax management by using current ETR. Given this evidence, we suggest all corporation to pay a serious attention to its corporate governance practice as it is proved corporate governance has a significant impact to corporate tax management. While it appears it is only board compensation that has significant influence to earnings management.

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CHAPTER 22

AN OVERVIEW OF STAFFING IN MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

A wide range of activities try to compensate staffing. Staffing and hiring may sometimes be used interchangeably. Yet recruiting is substantially more limited in scope than staffing. The selection stage of the total employment process is exactly what hiring is. Similar to staffing, recruitment can sometimes be employed. Again, a lot of people think that advertising more explicitly relates to the sourcing and advertising stages that constitute the entire hiring process. Let's evaluate what precisely staffing involves.

KEYWORDS:

Personnel Selection, Practice Effects, Personality Testing, Response Distortion, Staffing Management.

INTRODUCTION

The practice of selecting qualified applicants from inside the organization or business for certain jobs is known as staffing. In terms of management, staffing refers to the process of hiring new workers after assessing their qualifications and assigning them particular job tasks in accordance. Let us find out more about what is Staffing and what it comprises along with its roles and qualities. Definition: One of the most crucial management tasks is staffing, according to certain definitions. It entails the procedure of filling the open position with the appropriate persons at the appropriate work, at the appropriate time. As a result, everything will go as planned, as seen in Figure 1[1].

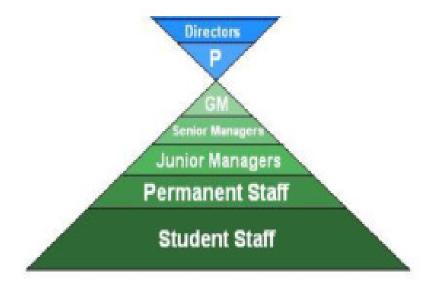


Figure 1: Represented that the Staffing Process

In other terms, we may say that staffing is the administrative activity of identifying, recruiting, and training the necessary employees to fill open jobs inside a company. The amount and types of employees needed are both determined as part of this function. It is also focused with employing the proper sort of individuals and enhancing their talents via training. The staffing process is concerned with preserving and enhancing an organization's human resources. It is undeniable that human resources are among the most important for any firm, as they enable the effective and efficient use of all other resources, including cash, materials, machinery, etc. As a result, it is crucial that each and every employee be placed in the ideal position within the company, one that is in line with their skills, aptitudes, and areas of expertise. This will enable the company to effectively use its human resources to reach its predetermined objectives. Hence, it is safe to say that personnel is a crucial part of any commercial organization. "Staffing refers to recruiting, selection, development, and remuneration of subordinates," claims Theo Haimann. The administrative task of staffing entails manning the organizational structure via effective and appropriate selection, evaluation, and development of the people who will perform the tasks that have been delegated to the employers or workforce[2].

Nature of Staffing

The management responsibility for personnel is ongoing. The organization's personnel requirements must be taken into consideration by the management. The organization's hiring practices must be created in accordance with its long-term needs. The following qualities may be used to describe the nature of staffing:

i. Staffing is an Important Managerial Function

In addition to planning, organizing, directing, and managing, the staffing function is the most significant management activity. These four functions' activities rely on the human resources made available by the staffing function.

ii. Staffing is a Pervasive Activity

In all sorts of businesses where business operations are conducted, managers are responsible for personnel.

iii. Staffing is a Continuous Activity

This is because staffing function maintains throughout the life of an organization owing to the transfers and promotions that take place.

iv. The Basis of Staffing Function is Efficient Management of Personnel

A system or suitable technique, such as recruiting, selection, placement, training and development, giving compensation, etc., may effectively manage human resources.

v. Staffing Helps in Placing Right Men at the Right Job

Effective hiring may be achieved by following the right processes, followed by the selection of the best applicant according to the job criteria[3].

All managers are responsible for staffing, depending on the kind of business, the size of the organization, the managers' credentials and talents, etc. The top management often handles this

duty in small businesses. It is specifically carried out by that organization's people department in medium- and small-scale businesses.

Importance of Staffing

Importance of staffing can be explained with the help of the followings:

i. Key to Other Managerial Functions

It is seen that function of staffing is closely related to managerial business areas which influences direction and control in organization.

ii. Building Healthy Human Relationships

It builds the required man-power relationships in an organization. With smooth human relation, excellent coordination and communication takes place.

iii. Human Resources Development

For any business establishment, hardworking and skilled man-power is welcomed prerequisite which serves as an asset of a business concern.

iv. Long Term Effect

The work operations of the company depend upon the effective decision making quality. It is noted that skilled, laborious and well-motivated people becomes an asset to an organization[4].

v. Potential Contribution

The idea about staff selection depends upon the ability of effective employees which can manage future challenges which is needed by an organization.

Staffing Process-Steps involved in Staffing

Following are the steps involved in staffing. Which is mention in Figure 2:

i. Manpower Requirements

It is seen that the first step towards staffing is planning of good manpower which will match the need of particular work.

ii. Recruitment

As per the demand from the organization, the applications of concerned workers are entertained as per invitations by company to the desired candidate.

iii. Selection

After receiving applications from candidates, they are scanned as per suitability of position and candidature.

iv. Orientation and Placement

After a job proposal is given to the candidate, the initial work is to make the candidate familiar with working style and environment[5].

v. Training and Development

Training is part of inducements which is provided to worker so as to frame and grow as per the concern. It involves working capability and scope.

vi. Remuneration

It is the sort of compensation which is paid by the concern to the new joiners. It depends on nature of job skilled or unskilled, physical or mental, etc.

vii. Performance Evaluation

Performance evaluation is a method which will record candidate behavior, attitudes and progress. It involves regular assessment based on reports from different departments.

viii. Promotion and Transfer

It involves transfer in job sector and level which depends on past performance of the candidate. It is non- monetary incentive.

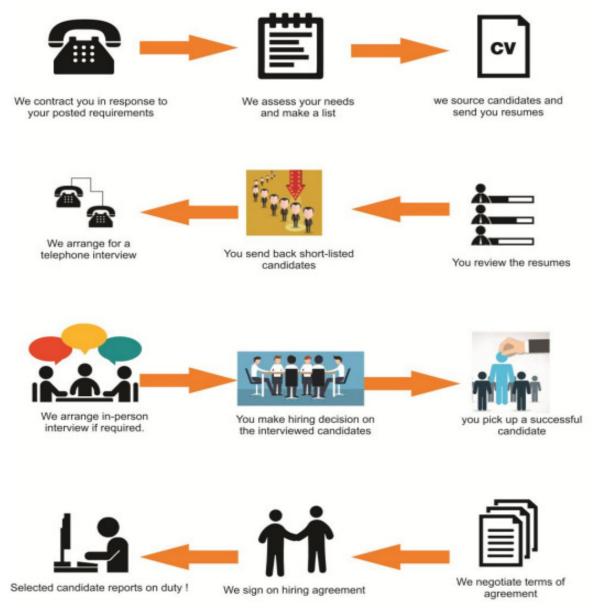


Figure 2: Represented that the Staffing Process of a Firm.

Manpower Planning

Human resource planning is the process of matching the appropriate quantity and kind of people with the appropriate items at the appropriate time and place in order to achieve organizational objectives[6].Planning for human resources is crucial in the context of industrialization. Systematic thinking and established procedures should guide human resource planning.

Steps in Manpower Planning

Following are the steps for manpower planning:

i. Analysing the Current Manpower Inventory

Before a manager makesforecast of future manpower, the current manpower status has to beanalysed.

For this, the following things have to be noted:

- a. Type of organisation
- b. Number of departments
- c. Number and quantity of such departments
- d. Employees in these work units

Based on this data, the manager scrutinises the needs of eachdepartment and then moves on to future forecasting.

ii. Making Future Manpower Forecasts

Once the factors affecting the future manpower forecasts are known, planning can be done for the future manpower requirements in several work units. The Manpower forecasting techniques commonly employed by theorganisations are as follows[7]:

a. Expert Forecasts

This includes informal decisions, formal expertsurveys and Delphi technique.

b. Trend Analysis

Manpower needs can be projected through extrapolation means projecting past trends, indexation means using base year as basis and statistical analysis means central tendency measure.

c. Workload Analysis

It is dependent upon the nature of workload in adepartment, in a branch or in a division.

d. Work Force Analysis

Whenever production and time period has tobe analysed, due allowances have to be made for getting netmanpower requirements.

e. Other Methods

Several Mathematical models, with the aid ofcomputers, are used to forecast manpower needs, like budget and planning analysis, regression and new venture analysis.

f. Developing Employment Programmes

Once the current inventory is compared with future forecasts, the employment programmes can beframed and developed accordingly, which will include recruitment, selection procedures and placement plans.

g. Design Training Programs

These will be based upon extent of diversification, expansion plans, development programs, etc. Training programs depend upon the extent of improvement intechnology and advancement to take place. It is also done to improve pon the skills, capabilities and knowledge of the workers[8].

DISCUSSION

Staffing is often seen as a people-centered activity, making it relevant for all sorts of organizations. It is focused on different types of employees across the whole business. The fundamental job of management is staffing, which requires constant management involvement on the manager's part. They are actively involved in the hiring, choosing, educating, and evaluating of his subordinates. Hence, in relation to their subordinates, the chief executive, departmental managers, and foremen carry out the tasks. The staffing function is primarily involved with various forms of training and development of human resources, thus managers should utilize their interpersonal communication skills while guiding and teaching their employees. If the staffing function is carried out correctly, the organization's human interactions will be friendly and orderly[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

This research looked at personality test rehearsal effects and retesting behavior determinants in order to add to the selection literature. The profile of retest candidates, as well as the nature and scope of experience effects in operational selection settings, have been revealed via analysis of almost four years' worth of selection data.

One argument is that the company chose highly responsible applicants after the first exam, leaving mostly low scores as prospective retest candidates. Although the responsibility dimension was not used in the weighting of candidates' overall composite scores, responsibility was positively correlated with three dimensions that did affect the candidate's pass/fail status, which raises potential indirect range restriction concerns that could lead to a Type II error. On the responsibility scale, however, there was only a little degree of truncation, and unstandardized regression coefficients are often resistant to range limitation, indicating that any impacts, if any, might be identified. Results indicated that internal applicants were approximately five times more likely to repeat the selection process than external candidates, despite the persistence-based prediction not being substantiated.

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CHAPTER 23

AN ELABORATION OF THE RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION PROCESS

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ABSTRACT:

The value that a business's workforce creates is crucial to the present knowledge economy. As workers constitute their most valuable asset in such a fiercely competitive climate, firms have begun to pay close attention to the recruiting and selection process. The objective of this study is to execute an empirical review to identify the crucial elements of the hiring process that may impact the choice based on various participant experiences, including hiring members, effective candidates, and failed applicants. New variants, including the provision of feedback, the willingness to participate and preparation of the admissions committee, the relevance of the interview questions, duration, and bias, were examined, and their comparisons have always been studied to gain insight into how to best offer suggestions for improving the operation.

KEYWORDS:

Human Resource, Recruitment, Selection Process, Critical Factors, Education Sector.

INTRODUCTION

Recruitment

Searching for prospects to hire and promoting them to apply for positions inside the firm is known called recruitment. The process of hiring brought together companies and job seekers. According to Dale Byers of Stanford University, recruiting is the process of obtaining sources of labor to satisfy employment schedule requirements and applying efficient methods for luring that labor in sufficient numbers to enable efficient promotion of a labor force. The task of recruiting prospects comes before the selection process and contributes in building a pool of potential personnel for the business so that administration may choose from this pool the appropriate candidate for the position. The acquisition procedure's primary mission is to hasten the choice process[1].

Recruitment Process

The recruitment method is the first stage in forging an organization's competitiveness edge and operational advantage. The hiring process is a methodical process that encompasses selecting a small pool of applicants, setting up appointment times, and completing the interviews.

- i. Identify vacancy
- ii. Prepare job description and person specification
- iii. Advertise the vacancy
- iv. Manage the response

- v. Short-list candidates
- vi. Arrange interviews
- vii. Conduct interview and decision-making analysis activities

Factors Affecting Recruitment

The internal elements or factors are the ones that the administrator may organize. In addition, external variables are these that a business cannot regulate by developing recruiting protocols and filling open positions without the most suitable candidates.

Internal Factors Affecting Recruitment

The internal forces i.e. the factors that can be controlled by the organization are:

- i. Recruitment Policy
- ii. Human Resource Planning
- iii. Size of the firm
- iv. Cost
- v. Growth and Expansion

External Factors Affecting Recruitment

The external forces are the forces, which cannot be controlled by the organisation. The major external forces are:

- i. Supply and Demand
- ii. Labour Market
- iii. Unemployment rate
- iv. Competitors

Types and Sources of Recruitment

Recruitment is of two types:

i. Internal Recruitment

It is a hiring process that operates inside the business or organization. An organization has wide access to internal sources of hiring. Employee productivity may rise as a result of domestic recruiting when their level of engagement rises. Also, it prevents the waste of time, money, and effort. Internal hiring has the disadvantage of restricting the company from bringing in fresh talent. However, not all of the staffing shortages can be filled by internal hiring. There might be outside hiring. Generally, there are three corporate sources for hiring[2]:

- **a.** Transfers
- **b.** Promotions
- c. Re-employment of ex-employees

ii. External Recruitment

It is necessary to seek for external methods of recruiting from outside the company. A worry is related to external sources. Yet it takes a lot of research and money. Among the outside alternatives for hiring are:

- **a.** Employment at Factory Level
- **b.** Advertisement
- **c.** Employment Exchanges
- d. Employment Agencies
- e. Educational Institutions
- **f.** Recommendations
- g. Labour Contractors

Selection

The process of identifying the best applicants for a profession is called selection. It is a method of matching business needs with people's competencies and credentials. Only when they is effective matching can selecting be done. The company will get better work and greater production if the right applicant is chosen for a given position. It saves money and boosts output using fewer waste. At the time of the selection process, a candidate screening is conducted. Despite the fact that both choosing and recruiting are connected for the hiring process, they vary from one another. There is encouragement in hiring when several individuals apply for a similar job description. On the other side, selection may also be done in reverse, which is inappropriate since it keeps contestants waiting[3].

Distinction between Recruitment and Selection

Recruitment precedes selection in staffing process. Selection involves choosing the best candidate with best abilities, skills and knowledge for the required job.

Employee Selection Process

The employee selection process takes place in the following order:

- a. Preliminary Interviews
- **b.** Application blanks
- c. Written Tests
- d. Employment Interviews
- e. Medical examination
- f. Appointment Letter

Now, in Table 1, describe the distinction between recruitment and selection:

Sr. No.	Basis	Recruitment	Selection
1.	Time Consuming	Less time is required.	More time is required.
2.	Economy	It is an economical method.	It is an expensive method.
3.	Sequence	It precedes selection.	It follows recruitment.
4.	Approach	It is a positive approach.	It is a negative approach.
5.	Hurdles	The candidates do not have to cross many hurdles	Many hurdles have to be crossed
6.	Process	It is a simple process.	It is a complicated process.
7.	Objective	It encourages large number of candidates for a job.	It attempts at rejecting unsuitable candidates.
8.	Meaning	It is an activity of establishing contact between employers and applicants.	It is a process of picking up more competent and suitable employees.

Table 1: Represented the Difference between Recruitment and Selection Process.

Orientation and Placement

After applicants have been chosen for the position, they must be modified based on the requirements. It is believed that placement is the process of matching the chosen individual with the appropriate position or environment, i.e., putting square pegs in square holes and round pegs in round holes. After he is chosen for the position, he is informed of his responsibilities and given the tasks he must do. Afterwards, orientation is offered to the newly hired applicants in order to familiarize and introduce him to the firm. Typically, the following information is provided during the orientation program[4]:

- **a.** Employee's layout
- **b.** Type of organizational structure
- **c.** Departmental goals
- d. Organizational layout
- e. General rules and regulations
- f. Standing Orders
- g. Grievance system or procedure

In summary, during orientation, individuals get familiar with the organization's objective and vision, overall way it operates, as well as its policies and procedures. The primary goal of steering orientation is to increase the employee's confidence, morale, and sense of trust in the company so that he may grow into a successful and productive member of the team. The orientation program's nature changes depending on the size of the company; the smaller the business, the farther casual the orientation, and the bigger the organization, the more formal the

orientation program. The likelihood that employee absenteeism will be lessened by effective staff placement. The workers will be calmer and more content with their profession[5], [6].

DISCUSSION

In the framework of defining the important components of the selection process, this present research also discovers that there are no discernible statistically significant variations in the views and thoughts of a successful and failed candidate. These findings to some degree clashes with the talks offered in the literature which emphasizes that depending on the situation and outcome of the process there is likely to be a change in the opinion and thoughts of the applicants in the selection process. Yet, these data also illustrate in line to the aforementioned literature that there can be change in the strength of the association dependent on the conclusion of the procedure. According to the data, both successful and failed applicants see constructively applicant feedback as a critical component of the selection process. Nevertheless, unsuccessful applicants express the need for this component more often than qualified applicants[7], [8]. The interviewer training is a potential additional crucial factor from the hiring member's viewpoint based on the study's findings. While the majority of these businesses had clear guidelines and practices recorded, some of which are included in the appendices for reference, all 50% of the hiring members who participated in the survey said that they had not attended any formal interview training. A rookie interviewer is left to depend on their own judgments and rational thinking in making selection judgements, which is an indication that they have it in principle but not in reality. These findings are reinforced by research on talent acquisition that highlights the significance of the personnel screening process in a business[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

The study's cross-sectional design, which only provides the participants' sentiments and judgments of the selecting process at a certain timeframe, is its first disadvantage. As a consequence, rather than taking into account all of the participants' evidence spanning time, the conclusions are only predicated on the participant's feelings at that moment. Another drawback is that the conclusions are only based on the perspectives of the survey's participants, one that only provides a partial picture of the decision process evaluation when all other organization workers who did not take part in the study are taken into account. In this regard another restriction is the sample size where extra data might always enrich and allow engagement with the research topics in a more full-bodied manner. An essential implications of the study's findings is to conduct more thorough and inclusive research by including more participants from each business in the industry. This will significantly expand the body of empirical research on staff selection and provide insightful comparisons of how different industries conceptualize the acquisition of talent. Also, as the number of participants rises, care should be taken to include multilevel selected respondents from all organizational levels in order to get comprehensive, multidimensional data on personnel selection approaches and techniques. This will make a major impact on the expansion of a more thorough grasp of employee selection and talent acquisition throughout the recruiting process.

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CHAPTER 24

AN ANALYSIS OF TRAINING IN ORGANIZATION

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ABSTRACT:

Training is the activity of imparting understanding and abilities that pertain to certain operational capabilities, either to ourselves or to others. The purpose of training is to develop one's ability, capacity, productivity, and performance. This essay strives to give a conceptual examination on the advantages of staff training and advancement programs. The structure and contents of employee training and advancement programs will be examined in this essay, after which your research will highlight the benefits for both personnel and enterprises. In the modern global economy, it is impossible for organizations to maintain competitive. Employee development programs are becoming more significant for business looking to get an initiative over rivals.

KEYWORDS:

Human resource, Organization, Training Design, Training Component, Training Benefits.

INTRODUCTION

The 1970s saw a focus on young personnel who had shown they had a lot of promise for career development and development. It has been advised that businesses prepare plans for the future and train and develop potential new hires to fill high-ranking roles down the road. Nonetheless, the conservative commitment that individuals would provide to their firm helps the career path model flourish extremely successfully. As a consequence of providing workers with a safe place to work, possibilities for professional progression, and training opportunities, companies are often assured of their employees' loyalty for a long time commitment to the firm. As businesses tried to transition to a flat hierarchy with fewer prospects for advancement in the 1980s, the ability to secure immediate commitment at the top of companies decreased. In any industry, an organization's success is heavily dependent on its workforce.

There are, however, other factors that also play a significant role; a firm must guarantee effective staff in order to be financially successful and competing in the market. Hence to preserve this important human resource, firms had to be mindful of the work engagement and retention of employees. Some enterprises believe that workers are exclusively motivated by financial gain from their labor. This remark disregards the great value that the majority of workers put on the inherent advantages of their professions. As a result, it affects companies negatively in addition to human job satisfaction and retention. Every business needs personnel that can quickly adapt to the continually changing business environment. To stay innovative and effective members of the company, the majority of businesses nowadays spend a lot of money on staff training and development. Employer training is becoming more important, and organizations are utilizing it as a weapon to outbid rivals in the marketplace[1].

There is a significant debate around academics and professionals over the effectiveness of training and development programs in achieving organizational and employee goals. Some

academics contend that high staff turnover increases the possibility of training opportunities, while others said claimed training is a tool that helps retain employees. Notwithstanding the debate, the majority of authors agree that staff training is a challenging human resource strategy with a significant impact on an organization's success. Also, businesses are vying for success in the global market by separating themselves based on the skills, knowledge, and passion of their personnel. Organizations spend more than \$126 billion annually on personnel training and development, according to a published research produced by the American Association for Training and Development. Training is a structured technique to learning and development than boosts individual, group, and organizational effectiveness. Development refers to the successes that result in the acquisition of new expertise and skills for an employee's personal development. Also, it is usually difficult to discern whether a thorough research study pertains to training, development, or both. Throughout the duration of all this evaluation, we employed the word "training" to imply training and development[2].

Training

Training of employees is the step subsequent to orientation. Training is the process of augmenting the skills, capabilities and knowledge of employees for doing a particular job. Training process shapes the thinking of employees and leads to quality performance of employees. It is a continuous and never ending in nature.

Importance of Training

The success and growth of an organization depends on training. Employers and workers of an organization benefit from it. If a worker is properly trained, he will become more effective and productive. Training is provided on four fundamental pillars:

- **a.** New hires are given the proper training when they join a company. They get acquainted with the corporate purpose, vision, guidelines, and working circumstances via this training.
- **b.** The current workers get training to update and improve their expertise.
- **c.** If there is a technology wave, training is provided to deal with the new vicissitudes, such as buying new equipment, altering manufacturing methods, and imparting computer skills. The usage of new tools and working procedures is taught to the staff.
- **d.** As career advancement and promotion become crucial, training is provided to ensure that workers are ready to share the duties of the more senior positions.

Different Ways of Training

Training is generally imparted in two ways:

i. Job-Based Training

Methods of on-the-job training include those that are given to workers while a company is doing its regular business. It is an easy and affordable training technique. Employers who are competent or semi-proficient may benefit from this kind of training. The training takes place in a working environment. The training's guiding principle is "learning by doing." Examples of these on-the-job training techniques include coaching, interim promotions, and work rotation[3].

ii. Off-the-Job Training

Methods of training that take place away from the actual working environment are referred to as off-the-job training. It is often used to new hires. Workshops, seminars, conferences, and other forms of off-the-job training are examples. Such an approach is expensive and only works when a big number of people need to be taught quickly. Off-the-job training is also known as vestibule training because it takes place in a distinct space a vestibule where the working circumstances are replicated. This space might be a hall, an entrance, a reception room, etc.

iii. Salaries for employees

Remuneration in the context of a job refers to a reward or pay that is given to different workers depending on their productivity and performance. It demonstrates the fundamental appeal that an employee needs in order to operate effectively and professionally. Employees rely on their financial compensation or pay as a significant source of revenue to maintain their level of life. At various levels within a company, different wage slabs are offered[4].

So, it can be observed that compensation plays a vital role for both management and workers.

Methods of Employee Remuneration

i. Time Rate Method

In this, pay is directly related to how much time an employee spends on a certain task. Regardless of the production, the money may be sent hourly, daily, weekly, or monthly. Of course, this is the most straightforward approach of compensation with little resource waste and negligible unintentional costs. It is the finest method for producing high-quality work and is helpful for new hires. As members of a given group or cadre get equal pay, it inspires staff cohesiveness.

ii. Piece Rate Method

This strategy is connected to the concept of compensation when an employee gets paid according to the quantity of work they perform or create. As their income fluctuates with production, determining the employee cost/unit in this situation is not difficult. This strategy aids in raising employee morale since the remuneration in this workplace is based on performance. The productivity of the task rises with this kind of approach.

iii. Program for Training and Development

Globally diverse organizations provide their staff training and development programs to increase their skills and capacities. Sears Credit started a major restructuring at the beginning of the 1990s and responded with career-development initiatives. This program was created for employees in order to align their abilities with changing employment situations and to guarantee that it was beneficial for the expansion of their company. Businesses believe they were not providing their workers with career chances who have the contacts and skills to profit from them[5]. Tires Plus University was created for its workers by the tire retailer, located in Minnesota, to help with recruiting, retention, and filling important roles as well as staff development overall. In order to provide and calculate organizational development and training programs that meet the requirements of both businesses and individuals, U.S. Tsubaki, Illinois, founded UST University. Several businesses provide a variety of initiatives based on the same premise for the enhancement and skill development of its staff members. An effective employee training program should focus on developing individuals' operational skills, managerial abilities, and orientation. All staff development program is built on these assumptions programs for employee development must include fundamental skills and a suitable framework for how companies are developed at the corporate level[6].

The theory's primary goals are knowledge acquisition, teamwork, creative issue solving, and problem solution. Many employee development programs' main objectives are to carry out the organization's purpose and aid employees in assimilating the culture of the company. By enabling learning opportunities and supporting corporate culture, these objectives aid in achieving the strategic goals of company. The need of technical training programs for staff members increased their level of work satisfaction and aided in their comprehension of the company culture, both of which contributed to the organization's success. We must be careful to ensure that the employee has the most up-to-date information possible regarding their position. Employee productivity will increase if employers teach them according to work requirements.

Individual Benefits from Training and Development Program

i. Career Competencies

The employee development and development program has several advantages for employees. They acquire the technical and soft skills needed for their careers. As there are fewer prospects for expansion, the lowest unemployment rates in 30 years make it unwise for employees to start new jobs. Most recent college graduates want to work for companies that provide rigorous training packages to their workers, but this strategy runs the danger of losing recently trained individuals after a few years. Professionals working in the information technology sector understand that knowledge is power and that they must continue to develop their skills in line with market demands. The majority of workers like training programs and therefore like to see their pay rise. That is also required of recent graduates who are ill-prepared for the dynamic work world. Young individuals with entrepreneurial aspirations are aware of their lack of expertise and resources, so they make an effort to join organizations that provide retraining programs to educate their staff for a brighter future[7].

Employee development program allows workers to survive in the future and build their skills to deal with new technology. From many years the needs for blue-collar employment is continuous, and several organizations have produced a modification for demanding learning software and programmed systems. Workers must evaluate their professional qualifications to maintain their job due to this need. Owing to this circumstance, many individuals have changed their mindset to be promoted inside their businesses so they may work and grow outside of the firm. Workers used to make 10-year plans for the future and then revise them every two years to account for changes in knowledge and technology. Tires Plus offers training to advance a variety of careers within the company, including 80 hours of training for supervisors to advance them to manager[8].

DISCUSSION

Affect might play a more prominent part in the training process overall. Its function in measuring responses to training has been recognized. Affective states during training and learning have received less attention in prior studies than the association between loving a training program

(positive emotions) and employee learning or performance. Giving workers learning chances may be seen as a sign that the company values its staff. Even if the concept and execution of the training may not have been the best, this perception may ultimately result in advantages. The degree to which educational opportunities are considered as a sign that the business cares may be explored in future study, which would be useful in the downsized and employee-littered industrial environment of today. Fourth, we determined that moderators need to be studied in various contexts. Moderators describe the circumstances in where a link or impact is more likely to exist and to be stronger. The links between training interventions, trainer learning, and job performance have consistently shown supported by both individual and situation moderators, according to training studies. For instance, we emphasized the use of moderators in this review's discussion of the connections between training results and behavior modeling, cross-cultural training with expat adjustment, and the connections between instruction and transfer[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we identified specified training design and evaluation features and then used meta-analytic procedures to empirically assess their relationships to the effectiveness of training in organizations. Our results suggest that the training method used, the skill or task characteristic trained, and the choice of training evaluation criteria are related to the observed effectiveness of training programs. We hope that both researchers and practitioners will find the information presented here to be of some value in making informed choices and decisions in the design, implementation, and evaluation of organizational training programs.

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CHAPTER 25

AN INTRODUCTION OF DIRECTION AND SUPERVISION ROLE IN MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Basic directing supervision meanings it means directing, teaching, it implies directing and supervising the actions inspiring and observing the people, of subordinates, so the targeted outcomes may be realized and they can operate effectively. It is a broader phrase, scope. While there isn't a single, universally accepted definition of supervision, it may be boiled according to a professional learning and improvement process that allows employees to reflect on and advance their knowledge, competence, and experiences with the frequent, pre-agreed-upon help of someone professional.

KEYWORDS:

Direction, Employee, Human Resource, Recruitment, Supervision.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most crucial management roles, staffing, was covered in the preceding unit. It entails managing the human resources of a company, including the identification of staffing needs, recruiting, selection, training, development, evaluation, promotion, transfer, remuneration, etc. The planning, organizing, and staffing phases of management are insufficient. Effective managing and directing are required to support them. To get things done, every manager must provide instructions to his staff. An initiating function is one that involves directing. Resources, both human and non-human, make up an organization. To get the intended outcomes, these resources are used appropriately. The management delivers information and inspires employees to act in a certain manner to achieve organizational goals via direction. Other management tasks like staffing, organizing, and planning become ineffectual without direction[1]. Here, the manager will monitor, advice, teach, and control each employee's performance in order to meet predetermined objectives. The major component of management is in charge of staffing, planning, and organizing. The main components of direction are human elements that clarify instructions to employees so they can do their tasks. In the context of management, direction refers to actions used to motivate staff members to operate effectively and professionally.

Definition of Directing

"Directing is the direction, the inspiration, the leadership of young men and women that comprises the fundamental heart of the responsibilities of management," according to Urwick and Brech. As a result, directing entails giving out directives and instructions, inspecting the work of the subordinates, and managing their behavior. "Directing consists of a procedure or technique through which instructions may be provided and activities can be carried out as originally intended," claims Haiman. The following components are often included in the process of directing:

- **a.** Giving the subordinates commands and guidance about the tasks they are doing.
- **b.** Showing the subordinates how to carry out the assigned tasks while guiding, counseling, and teaching them.
- **c.** Continual monitoring of the task they are doing to make sure it is going according to the plan.
- **d.** Encouraging and motivating the subordinates to carry out commands, adhere to instructions, and move in the designated direction.

Nature of Directing

There are certain characteristics related to directing which are:

a. Pervasive Function

Although leadership is necessary at all levels of a company, it is the manager's responsibility to provide pertinent advice and to encourage his staff.

b. Continuous Activity

During an organization's existence, guidance functions as a consistent action.

c. Human Factor

It is evident that directing involves subordinates and the human element. As both are complicated and unexpected, guidance plays a crucial role.

d. Creative Activity

You can put any ideas into action with direction because without it, people would become motionless and physical resources will be worthless.

e. Executive Function

As can be observed, instruction is given to all managers and executives at certain levels without the business running.

f. Delegate Function

It is a job that has to do with human direction and involves people.

Need and Importance of Directing

The foundation of managing a process is directing. It is the focal point of organizational displays of diverse achievements. The required objectives may not be attained in spite of excellent planning, an appropriate organizational structure, efficient staffing, and effective regulating without adequate directing.

Only via the directing process are organizational activities started to achieve its goals. On the basis of the following criteria, which are mentioned in Figure 1, it is possible to comprehend the significance of directing in more depth[2].

i. Directing helps in achieving Co-ordination

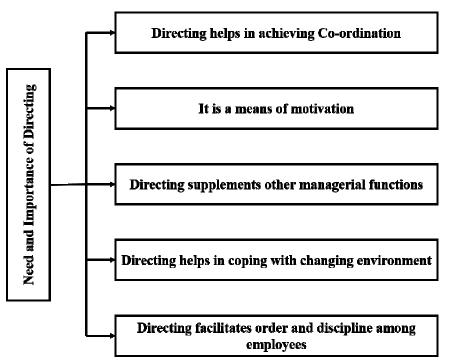
Coordination is seen as an outcome of successful directing. Every manager integrates the actions of every subordinate throughout the directing process in order to accomplish previously established organizational objectives. This is done via monitoring, direction, and counseling.

ii. It is a means of motivation

Encouragement of the workforce is vital for the company to achieve its goals. The act of guiding encourages workers to perform effectively and voluntarily. Underlings are motivated to obey commands and instructions provided to them with a wholeheartedness by the superior who directs their operations.

iii. Directing supplements other managerial functions

The manager must carry out several management tasks over the course of managing, including planning, organizing, staffing, and regulating, among others. The guiding function is essential for all of these functions to produce the intended consequences. Other management tasks are started and activated by directing. The management tasks are either fully ineffective or just partially successful when the direction is inefficient[3].





iv. Directing helps in coping with changing environment

The organization may be forced to make changes to its functioning, structure, or objectives due to the changing business climate. With the use of direction, such changes may be successfully conveyed and controlled. In leading, the manager offers vivacious headship and open, honest communication with subordinates to persuade them of the benefits of change. They may be taken

on as confidants and convinced to embrace the change and provide full cooperation for putting it into effect.

v. Directing facilitates order and discipline among employees

Workforce discipline is necessary for efficient organizational operations. Briefings and instructions are delivered to the subordinates throughout the directing process, and they are inspired and encouraged to follow them. To get things done by subordinates is the primary goal of direction. Subordinates are trained to work in a disciplined way by being closely supervised, guided, instructed, and watched over throughout their actions.

Principles of Directing

In order to make directing more effective and meaningful, certain principles are followed. Some important principles of directing are as follows:

i. Harmony of objectives

The establishment is made up of all the people together. It represents the interests of many different societal groups, including owners, workers, clients, investors, and so on. This concept states that all competing goals must be coordinated so as to reinforce and advance one another in order to ensure the organization's greatest profitability and work more effectively for the interests of other organizations. Henri Fayol interestingly speaks about giving up one's own interests in order to attain organizational goals since one's personal interests may only be better served if an efficient organization can achieve its overall aim.

ii. Unity of command

This rule states that while managing subordinates, a single superior should be the exclusive source for all orders and instructions pertaining to the task for each subordinate. When this theory is put into practice, one superior must control all of the actions of all of the subordinates. By doing this, they may efficiently oversee their actions and keep order while avoiding dual command[4].

iii. Direct supervision

If directing is enhanced by the superior's personal touch, it becomes more effective. The superior stays in close touch with the subordinates, pays attention to their wants and requirements, assists them in carrying out their duties, and quickly resolves any issues that may arise. Contented subordinates often make more contributions to the achievement of corporate objectives.

iv. Participative leadership

It's intriguing to see how participatory leadership on the side of superiors may increase the effectiveness of directing. Subordinates become more devoted and honest and provide the superior greater cooperation if the superior appreciates their opinions and pays attention to them. Subordinates should be taken into confidence and must be consulted at least on subjects that are connected to them before the superior makes a decision, according to this notion, in order to improve performance levels.

v. Follow up

The main responsibility of direction is to provide commands and instructions. The superior must engage in certain follow-up activities to increase the effectiveness of directing. He has to inspire

his team members to follow instructions and carry them out. When he supervises the work of subordinates, evaluates their performance, and directs them to take appropriate action for doing the Task, he must be watchful.

vi. Unity of direction

Making the whole process of directing more meaningful is vitally necessary to get the complete company functioning, which makes it crucial to adhere to the idea of unity of direction. This concept states that a set of related activities with a common goal should have a single coordinator and a single plan. For instance, the production manager should have control over the implementation of the production plan, which should be the one plan for all production-related operations. Using this idea prevents tasks from being repeated or duplicated while securing the advantages of specialization[5].

Supervision

The act of supervision requires watching over and managing the work of subordinates who may not fully understand the idea at hand. In a business, professional, or personal situation, supervision does not imply control over another person but rather direction. While the word "supervision" has several definitions, in most cases, it refers to the activity performed out by supervisors to control the productivity and advancement of workers who work directly for them. For instance, first-level managers are in charge of managing new hires. First-level supervisors are supervised by middle managers, who in turn are supervised by chief executives, etc., depending on the scale of the firm.

Supervisors have a management function in the company since supervision is an administration activity. On occasion, authors will replace direction and control. The two things go hand in hand. Leadership is needed for supervision. Supervision is not always a need for leadership.

Role of a Supervisor

The supervisor plays a crucial function in a company. The supervisor's job in an organization is to keep an eye on the workers. At businesses and factories, the supervisor's job is to keep an eye on the things being produced. It has been discovered that a supervisor will function as a first line manager and is a member of the management team. A first line manager is someone who will work on several tasks that will support productivity. For this reason, a supervisor is only referred to be a manager when they play a significant part in implementation. A manager simultaneously performs the following roles[6]:

i. As a Planner

A supervisor performs the role of a planner since they are responsible for creating the daily work schedules for an organization. He divides up the job in planning and assigns it to various employees in accordance with their skills.

ii. As a Manager

Although the supervisor is a member of the management team, he is known as the operational manager since he is ultimately responsible for running the business.

iii. As a Guide and Leader

A supervisor provides the daily tasks that must be completed by the employees under him.

iv. As a Mediator

A supervisor is somebody who acts as a liaison between management and employees. He acts as a coordinator for both management and employees.

v. As an Inspector

Monitoring, establishing uniform workplace policies, organizing work hours, and overseeing employees' daily performance are all crucial supervisory duties. In a different approach, it performs the role of an inspector by checking compliance with rules, quality of work, and productivity in addition to employees' individual and group advancement.

vi. As a Counsellor

When a supervisor becomes involved in a worker's concerns, they may take on the role of a counselor. At that point, he must really develop into a person who can provide the employee pleased replies[7].

DISCUSSION

Sometimes there is a misunderstanding between supervision and direction. The context in which the word "supervision" is employed is the primary cause of this misunderstanding. As a result, the context and meaning of two phrases, direction and supervision, are different. There are two ways to define the word supervision. First, it is utilized as an element of direction and, thus, every manager in the business fulfills the duty of supervision irrespective of his degree in management hierarchy. In this situation, supervision entails directing others' actions in order to accomplish the specified goals. To attain specified work outputs, for instance, Terry and Franklin describe supervision as "guiding and directing activities of personnel and other resources." As a result, the scope of supervision is significantly less than that of direction, which also entails engaging with and inspiring personnel in addition to directing them. Second, the phrase "supervision" refers to the duties carried out by supervisors, a group of employees who sit between management and operators. When the term "supervision" is used in this context, it refers to all supervisory duties, including staffing, planning, organizing, directing, and controlling, with differing degrees of emphasis on each duty. The daily interaction between an executive and his immediate assistant, which includes training, guidance, motivating, coordination, upholding discipline, etc., is referred to as supervision in this sense by Newman and Warren[8]-[10].

CONCLUSION

In this unit, we discovered that directing is a management task that is primarily concerned with persuading, directing, overseeing, and motivating subordinates in a deliberate way. According to research, the process of directing includes giving out commands and instructions as well as providing direction, counseling, and proper information to subordinates, as well as supervising work to keep and motivate workers. It has been discovered that there are a number of key directing principles, including unity of direction, direct supervision, harmony of aim, and unity of command. The technique of monitoring over someone else's work or responsibilities when they are unfamiliar with the subject matter is referred to as supervision in its broadest sense. It won't interfere with another person's control, but it will be able to direct your professional or personal job. The purview of supervision is restricted to that of direction, which includes inspiring and guiding personnel as well as fostering dialogue among them despite providing them with counsel.

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