PME UNIT-4 CONCISE

PME UNIT - 4 Notes (Controlling System)

Introduction to Controlling System:

- Controlling is one of the fundamental functions of management.
- Involves monitoring activities to ensure they are being accomplished as planned and correcting any significant deviations.

Key Points:

• 1. **Definition:** Controlling is the process of measuring actual performance, comparing it with planned goals, and taking corrective action if necessary to ensure that organizational objectives are achieved efficiently and effectively.

• 2. Importance:

- ► Ensures that organizational activities are aligned with established plans.
- Helps in achieving goals within set timelines and budgets.
- Minimizes errors and deviations from standards.
- Encourages better performance through feedback and accountability.

• 3. Steps in the Controlling Process:

- Setting performance standards.
- Measuring actual performance.
- Comparing actual performance with standards.
- Analyzing deviations and identifying causes.
- Taking corrective actions.

• 4. Features:

- A continuous and forward-looking process.
- ► Applied at all levels of management.
- Closely linked with planning—often called the "twin of planning".

Planning-Control Link:

• Emphasizes the interdependence between planning and controlling, often referred to as "twin functions of management."

1. Control is Based on Plans:

- ► Planning sets the goals and standards that control uses as benchmarks.
- Without a plan, there is nothing to control against.

2. Control Measures Performance Against Plans:

- ► The control process involves comparing actual performance with planned objectives.
- ▶ It identifies deviations and helps ensure that performance aligns with the original plan.

3. Control Helps Improve Future Planning:

► Insights gained from controlling (deviations, errors, inefficiencies) are feedback for better

planning.

▶ It helps managers revise goals, strategies, or resource allocations.

4. Cyclical Relationship:

► Planning and controlling form a continuous loop: Plans guide actions → Control monitors outcomes → Feedback improves future plans.

5. Mutual Reinforcement:

- Good planning makes control more effective.
- Effective control ensures that plans are successfully implemented.

Summary Statement:

- "Planning is looking ahead, while controlling is looking back—but both are essential to move forward effectively."
- Control is about guiding and improving performance. The process of control is a systematic sequence of steps.

Process of Control:

1. Setting Performance Standards:

- Standards are the criteria against which actual performance is measured.
- ► May be quantitative (cost, output, time) or qualitative (customer satisfaction, employee morale).
- ► Standards must be clear, realistic, and aligned with organizational goals.

2. Measuring Actual Performance:

- Involves collecting data and assessing actual outcomes.
- ► Methods include reports, audits, observations, and performance appraisals.
- Measurement should be timely and accurate.

3. Comparing Actual Performance with Standards:

- ► The measured performance is compared with predetermined standards.
- ► This comparison helps identify deviations—whether positive or negative.

4. Analyzing Deviations:

- ► Not all deviations require action; tolerance limits may be set.
- Important deviations are analyzed to understand their causes.
- Focus is often on critical deviations that impact goals significantly.

5. Taking Corrective Action:

- If performance is not as per standards, management must take corrective measures.
- ► Actions may include retraining employees, changing processes, or revising goals or standards.
- ► The aim is to bring performance back in line with expectations.
- This cycle is continuous and emphasizes the feedback loop.

Requirements of Effective Control:

1. Accuracy:

- Control must provide precise and reliable information about performance.
- Inaccurate data can lead to wrong decisions and actions.

2. Timeliness:

- ► Control information must be available at the right time.
- Delayed reports can make corrective actions ineffective or irrelevant.

3. Flexibility:

- ► The control system should be able to adapt to changes in the environment.
- ► Rigid controls can obstruct innovation and responsiveness.

4. Suitability:

- Controls must be appropriate to the activity and the level of management.
- ► Strategic-level controls differ from operational-level controls.

5. Economy:

- ► The cost of the control system should not exceed its benefits.
- ► Efficient control means using minimum resources for maximum effectiveness.

6. Simplicity:

- Control mechanisms should be easy to understand and operate.
- ► Complicated systems can confuse employees and reduce compliance.

7. Objectivity:

- ► Control standards and evaluations should be based on facts and data, not personal opinions.
- Objective control ensures fairness and credibility.

8. Forward-looking:

- Good control not only detects errors but also anticipates potential problems.
- ▶ It helps in preventive action rather than just corrective action.
- These elements ensure control supports decision-making, improves efficiency, and promotes accountability.

Problems of Control System:

1. Difficulty in Setting Standards:

- Hard to set clear, measurable, realistic standards, especially for qualitative areas.
- Vague standards lead to ineffective comparisons and control.

2. Resistance from Employees:

- Strict controls may lead to feelings of distrust or micromanagement.
- Employees may resist or bypass controls if overly monitored.

3. Cost of Control:

- ▶ Designing and operating a control system can be expensive and resource-intensive.
- If cost exceeds benefits, control becomes uneconomical.

4. Delay in Feedback:

- ► Some systems provide delayed feedback, making timely corrective actions hard.
- Can lead to continuation of errors or inefficiencies.

5. Overemphasis on Quantitative Aspects:

Systems often focus on measurable data and ignore qualitative factors (leadership, innovation).

6. Rigidity of Control:

- ► Some systems are too rigid, not allowing flexibility in dynamic environments.
- Can prevent quick adjustments or innovation.

7. Inaccurate or Incomplete Information:

Control depends heavily on accurate data. Flawed data leads to flawed decisions.

8. Control for the Sake of Control:

- Excessive control may create bureaucracy and reduce efficiency.
- Controls should be purposeful, not just a formality.
- **Conclusion:** To overcome problems, control systems should be flexible, economical, participative, and focused on strategic priorities.

NEED FOR CONTROL SYSTEM

- A control system is needed for four purposes:
 - 1. to measure progress;
- 2. to uncover deviations;
- 3. to indicate corrective action; and
- 4. to transmit corrective action to the operation.

• To Measure Progress:

► Control process continually measures progress towards goals, verifying conformity with plans, instructions, and principles (Fayol).

• To Uncover Deviations:

- Events can pull an organization "off target."
- ► Change: Markets shift, new products emerge, new regulations. Control detects these.
- Complexity: Vast, complex organizations with diversified products need close monitoring.
- ► Mistake: Managers and subordinates commit mistakes. Control helps catch them early.
- Delegations: Control system needed to determine if subordinates are accomplishing delegated tasks.

• To Indicate Corrective Action:

► Controls reveal if plans need redrawing, goals modified, or duties reassigned/clarified.

• To Transmit Corrective Action to the Operation:

- ► Controls needed to modify inputs or production plans to keep output "on course" (e.g., thermostat "feed forward").
- ► Control-related information flows (electronic impulses, reports) serve as input for comparison and decision-making.

BENEFITS OF CONTROL

- A well-developed control system:
- Increases Productivity
- reduces defects and mistakes.

- helps meet deadlines,
- facilitates communication,
- improves safety,
- ► lowers cost, and
- gives workers control over their environment.

Control techniques are broadly classified into past-oriented and future-oriented.

1. Past-Oriented Control Techniques (Feedback Control):

• Applied after the task is completed. Evaluate past performance to identify deviations and suggest future improvements.

Key Features:

- Focuses on historical data and results.
- Useful for assessing success/failure.
- Helps in correcting future actions, but doesn't prevent current errors.

• Examples:

- ► Financial Statements: Balance sheet, income statement, cash flow statement.
- Audits: Internal and external audits.
- Statistical Quality Control: Analyzes product quality after production.
- ► Performance Appraisals: Review of employee performance based on past results.

2. Future-Oriented Control Techniques (Feedforward and Concurrent Control):

Proactive techniques to identify and prevent problems before or as they occur.

• Key Features:

- Based on forecasting and planning.
- Helps in preventing deviations.
- More effective in dynamic and uncertain environments.

• Examples:

- Budgetary Control: Planning future income and expenditure.
- ► Break-even Analysis: Determines sales volume needed to avoid losses.
- ► Network Techniques (PERT/CPM): Plan and control project timelines.
- Standard Costing: Compares actual costs with pre-set standards.
- Forecasting Techniques: Predict future market trends, demand.

Summary Table (Control Type, Orientation, Timing, Focus, Examples):

- Past-Oriented Control: Feedback, After execution, Evaluate & correct, Financial reports/audits.
- Future-Oriented Control: Feedforward, Before/during, Predict & prevent deviations, Budgets/PERT/forecasting.

Market Control, Bureaucratic Control, and Clan Control are three major types of organizational control techniques.

1. Market Control:

• **Definition:** Uses external market mechanisms (price, competition, exchange relationships) to regulate

performance.

• Features:

- Based on economic forces.
- Works well when output can be clearly measured and compared with market standards.
- Common in decentralized organizations, divisions, or subsidiaries.

• Examples:

- Comparing division profits based on market rates.
- Using competitive bidding or outsourcing based on cost-efficiency.

• Advantages:

- Encourages cost-effectiveness and efficiency.
- Motivates performance by linking results to market outcomes.

• Limitations:

► May not work where performance is not easily quantifiable or market data is unavailable.

2. Bureaucratic Control:

• **Definition:** Relies on formal rules, policies, procedures, and authority hierarchies.

• Features:

- ► Emphasizes compliance, standardization, and clear reporting structures.
- Based on formal authority and supervision.

• Examples:

- Standard operating procedures (SOPs).
- Performance appraisals based on rule compliance.
- Internal audits and formal reports.

Advantages:

- Ensures discipline and consistency.
- Works well in stable, routine environments.

• Limitations:

► Can be rigid, slow, and reduce employee initiative or innovation.

3. Clan Control:

• **Definition:** Uses shared values, culture, traditions, and beliefs to influence behavior and performance.

• Features:

- Works through social norms, trust, and teamwork rather than formal rules.
- Employees are self-regulated through a sense of belonging.

• Examples:

- Organizational culture emphasizing collaboration or excellence.
- Mentorship and informal peer feedback.
- Strong corporate identity and shared mission.

Advantages:

- Encourages commitment, adaptability, and creativity.
- Effective in complex, dynamic environments.

• Limitations:

- Takes time to develop a strong culture.
- Difficult to measure or control directly.

Comparison Table (Type of Control, Basis, Mechanism, Best Suited For):

- Market Control: External market forces, Prices/competition, Measurable outputs/decentralized units.
- Bureaucratic Control: Formal rules/hierarchy, Policies/supervision, Stable/rule-based organizations.
- Clan Control: Organizational culture, Norms/values/traditions, Creative/team-oriented environments.
- A modern business may use a mix of all three.

OLD CONTROL TECHNIQUES

• **Budgeting:** Important old control technique; quantifies resources for objectives and compares actual performance.

a) Budgeting as a Control Technique:

- **Definition:** Involves setting financial/operational targets and using them as benchmarks to monitor/regulate performance. A planning and control mechanism.
- Key Features of Budgeting:
 - 1. Setting Financial and Operational Targets: Establishes financial limits and operational goals.
- 2. **Comparison of Actual vs. Planned Performance:** Track actual vs. budgeted values; identify deviations.
- 3. Resource Allocation: Helps in efficient allocation of resources.
- 4. **Control over Expenditures:** Sets limits on spending for cost control.
- 5. Facilitates Planning and Forecasting: Integral part of planning; acts as a forecasting tool.
 - Types of Budgets:
- 6. Fixed Budgets: Static budgets for a specific activity level.
- 7. **Flexible Budgets:** Adjustable budgets changing with activity levels; useful in dynamic environments.
- 8. Master Budget: Comprehensive budget including various individual budgets; gives an overall view.
- 9. Cash Flow Budget: Focuses on cash inflows/outflows for liquidity management.
 - Advantages of Budgeting as a Control Technique:
- 10. Cost Control: Helps control costs by setting spending limits.
- 11. **Performance Evaluation:** Tool for evaluating performance by comparing actual vs. budgeted.
- 12. **Resource Optimization:** Avoids wastage, best use of funds.
- 13. **Motivation:** Realistic budgets can serve as motivational tools.
- 14. **Planning for the Future:** Framework for long-term strategic planning.
 - Limitations of Budgeting:
- 15. Rigidity: Fixed budgets can be too rigid for changing conditions.
- 16. **Time-consuming:** Preparing/revising budgets can be labor-intensive.
- 17. Potential for Misuse: Managers may inflate budgets; budgetary slack leads to inefficiencies.

- 18. Short-term Focus: May overlook long-term growth or strategic goals.
 - Conclusion: Budgeting is powerful but needs careful design and review.
- **b) Financial statements and ratio analysis:** Fundamental tools for assessing financial performance and health.

1. Financial Statements:

- **Definition:** Formal records of financial activities and position, providing key info for analyzing profitability, stability, liquidity.
- Key Financial Statements:

1. Income Statement (Profit & Loss Statement):

- Purpose: Shows company's performance over a period.
- ► Components: Revenue/Sales, Expenses, Net Profit or Loss.

2. Balance Sheet:

- Purpose: Snapshot of financial position at a specific point in time.
- Components: Assets, Liabilities, Equity.
- ► Formula: Assets = Liabilities + Equity.

3. Cash Flow Statement:

- Purpose: Tracks movement of cash in/out, showing liquidity.
- ► Components: Operating Activities, Investing Activities, Financing Activities.

4. Statement of Changes in Equity:

Purpose: Shows changes in owner's equity over a period.

2. Ratio Analysis:

- **Definition:** Tool to evaluate financial performance by comparing relationships between figures in financial statements.
- Commonly used ratios:
 - Liquidity Ratios: Measure ability to pay short-term debts (e.g., Current Ratio = Current Assets / Current Liabilities).
 - 2. **Debt Ratios:** Assess ability to meet long-term commitments (e.g., Total Debt / Total Assets).
 - 3. **Profitability Ratios:** Express profits as % of sales or total assets (efficiency of operation).
 - 4. **Operating Ratios:** Measure efficiency of manufacturing/sales (e.g., Inventory Turnover = Sales / Inventory; Total Assets Turnover = Sales / Total Assets).
 - Return on Investment (ROI): (Du Pont system) ROI = (Sales Profit / Investment Sales) * Sales. (Actually, ROI = (Net Profit / Cost of Investment) * 100 or Net Profit / Total Assets). Note: The provided formula seems a bit off, typically it's (Profit from Investment / Cost of Investment) or linked to capital turnover and profit margin. The text describes it as (sales/investment) * (profit/sales).
 - **Break-even Analysis:** (Fig 18.2) Depicts sales volume necessary to cover costs (point where profit = 0).
 - Importance of Ratio Analysis:
 - 5. **Performance Evaluation:** Assess financial performance, spot trends.

- 6. **Decision Making:** Provides quantitative insights for pricing, cost-cutting.
- 7. Investor Confidence: Helps stakeholders understand financial health.
- 8. **Trend Analysis:** Reveals trends over multiple periods.
 - Conclusion: Financial statements and ratio analysis together provide valuable insights.

NEW CONTROL TECHNIQUES

• PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique) and CPM (Critical Path Method): Two new project management tools.

1. PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique):

- Purpose: For projects with uncertainty in activity times (e.g., R&D).
- Key Features:
- **Probabilistic Nature:** Uses three-time estimates (Optimistic-O, Pessimistic-P, Most Likely-M) to calculate expected time.

2. CPM (Critical Path Method):

- **Purpose:** For projects with predictable activity times (e.g., construction); optimizes duration/resources.
- Key Features:
- ► **Deterministic Nature:** Assumes fixed duration for each activity.
- ► Critical Path: Longest path of dependent activities determining shortest project duration.
- ► Time and Cost: Helps minimize project completion cost.
- ▶ **Network Diagram:** Represents tasks and dependencies, focuses on time/cost optimization.

Comparison of PERT and CPM:

- Focus: PERT (Uncertainty/time estimation), CPM (Time/cost optimization).
- Activity Duration: PERT (Probabilistic/estimated), CPM (Deterministic/fixed).
- **Usage:** PERT (R&D projects), CPM (Construction/manufacturing).
- Analysis: PERT (Task dependencies/uncertain time), CPM (Task dependencies/optimizing critical path).
- Key Differences:
- ► Time Estimation: PERT (range of estimates), CPM (single, fixed duration).
- Nature of Project: PERT (uncertain time frames), CPM (predictable time frames).
- ► Critical Path: PERT (no explicit critical path, focus on dependencies), CPM (critical path is central).

DETERMINATION OF CRITICAL PATH (Applicable to both, more explicit in CPM)

- Divide project into operations, draw Project Graph/Arrow Diagram (Fig 18.4).
- Critical Path: Path of activities determining the shortest total project time. Delays on this path delay the project.
- Sub-critical Paths: Other paths. Difference in time = slack/float (extra time available).
- Resources can be transferred from sub-critical to critical path activities to reduce completion time.

Organizational performance:

• Defined as the measure of how well an organization achieves its goals through efficient and effective

use of resources.

1. Definition:

- How efficiently and effectively managers use organizational resources to satisfy customers and achieve goals.
- Efficiency = Doing things right (minimizing resource use).
- ► **Effectiveness** = Doing the right things (achieving desired outcomes).

2. Components of Performance: (Robbins and Coulter)

- Productivity amount of goods/services produced relative to inputs used.
- ► **Goal attainment** how well the organization reaches its stated objectives.

3. Managerial Role:

• Managers drive performance by: Setting goals, Allocating resources, Leading/motivating, Monitoring/adapting processes.

4. Relevance in Management:

- High organizational performance means the organization is:
- Efficient in resource use.
- Effective in satisfying stakeholders.

Key Tools for Measuring Organizational Performance:

1. Organizational Productivity:

► Tool: Productivity ratios (output/input).

2. Organizational Effectiveness:

▶ Tool: Goal-based evaluation.

3. Financial Tools:

Profit and Loss Statements, Return on Investment (ROI), Profit Margins, Revenue Growth.

4. **Balanced Scorecard:** (Kaplan and Norton)

► Evaluates performance from four perspectives: Financial, Customer, Internal Business Processes, Learning and Growth.

5. **Benchmarking:**

Comparing performance with industry leaders or best practices.

6. Total Quality Management (TQM) Tools:

- ► Focuses on continuous improvement and customer satisfaction (e.g., Quality control charts, Six Sigma, ISO standards).
- **Summary:** No single tool is sufficient; use a combination of quantitative and qualitative measures.

Contemporary Issues in Control:

1. Cross-Cultural Differences:

Challenge: Control practices vary across cultures.

► Implication: Adapt control systems to local customs, laws.

2. Workplace Privacy:

- ► Challenge: Technology use for employee monitoring.
- ► Tension: Balancing control need with employee privacy rights.
- ► Implication: Ensure monitoring is ethical, legal, communicated.

3. Employee Theft:

- Issue: Significant concern, especially in retail/service.
- Control Response: Strong internal controls, ethics training.
- ► Emphasis: Building a culture of trust.

4. Workplace Violence:

- Challenge: Increasing concern for employee/customer safety.
- ► Control Mechanism: Safe environments, clear reporting, assistance programs.
- ► Manager's Role: Monitor signs, open communication, enforce zero-tolerance.

5. Controlling Customer Interactions:

- Focus: Monitor service quality as a key differentiator.
- ► Examples: Call center monitoring, feedback systems, benchmarks.
- Goal: Ensure customer satisfaction and brand consistency.
- **Summary:** Need to go beyond traditional financial controls; consider ethical, cultural, human-centered aspects. Flexibility, sensitivity, balance are key.

Control of overall performance:

- Process of monitoring and evaluating the organization's total functioning to ensure strategic goals are achieved effectively and efficiently.
- **Example:** (Manufacturing company scenario)
 - 1. Establishing Performance Standards (Profit, quality, waste targets).
 - 2. Measuring Actual Performance (Financial reports, QC metrics, waste tracking).
 - 3. Comparing Actual Performance with Standards (Identify deviations).
 - 4. Taking Corrective Action (Sales efforts, training, maintain effective practices).
 - Summary: Links strategy to actual results and adjusts management actions.

Information technology (IT) plays a critical role in the control function.

Information Technology's Role in Control:

1. Enhancing Data Collection and Monitoring:

► Real-time data collection; track performance indicators, spot deviations.

2. Improving Decision-Making:

► Management Information Systems (MIS) provide reports/dashboards for quick, informed decisions.

3. Supporting Corrective Action:

Identify problem areas quickly; ERP systems trace issues.

4. Enabling Decentralized Control:

► Cloud-based systems/mobile access empower decision-making at all levels.

5. Facilitating Communication and Coordination:

- ► Email, collaboration platforms ensure timely communication of control data.
- Effective control in modern organizations is virtually impossible without IT.

Therole of information and technology in control (Balanced View):

Opportunities Created by Information and Technology in Control:

- 1. Real-Time Monitoring and Feedback: Instant tracking, quick response.
- 2. Improved Decision-Making: DSS, data analytics enhance fact-based management.
- 3. Greater Transparency and Accountability: Automated records, audit trails increase visibility.
- 4. Enhanced Communication and Coordination: Fast, clear communication; synchronize efforts.
- 5. **Cost Efficiency:** Automation reduces manual tasks; ERP integrates functions.

Challenges Created by Information and Technology in Control:

- 1. **Information Overload:** Too much data can overwhelm ("paralysis by analysis" Koontz).
- 2. **Security and Privacy Risks:** Data breaches, cyber threats; need robust IT security.
- 3. Dependence on Technology: Can reduce critical thinking; risk of system failures.
- 4. Resistance to Change: Due to lack of understanding or fear of monitoring; requires training.
- 5. **Ethical Concerns:** Employee surveillance and trust; maintain morale.
 - IT enhances control but must be used wisely, ethically, and strategically.