~ MPE MASTER LIST ~

UNIT – 1:

QUESTION 1: Fayol's 14 Principle

Henry Fayol's Principles of Management

One of the oldest and most popular approaches, Henry Fayol's theory holds that administration of all organizations – whether public or private, large or small – requires the same rational process or functions.

This school of thought is based on two assumptions -

- Although the objective of an organization may differ (for example, business, government, education, or religion), yet there is a core management process that remains the same for all institutions.
- Successful managers, therefore, are interchangeable among organizations of differing purposes. The universal management process can be reduced to a set of separate functions and related principles.

Fayol identifies fourteen universal principles of management, which are aimed at showing managers how to carry out their functional duties.

Universal principles of management	Managers Functional Duties
	This improves the efficiency of labor through specialization, reducing labor time and increasing skill development.
Authority	This is the right to give orders which always carry responsibility commensurate with its privileges.
Discipline	It relies on respect for the rules, policies, and agreements that govern an organization. Fayol ordains that discipline requires good superiors at all levels.
Unity of command	This means that subordinates should receive orders from one superior only, thus avoiding confusion and conflict.
Unity of direction	This means that there should be unity in the directions given by a boss to his subordinates. There should not be any conflict in the directions given by a boss.
Subordination of individual interest to common good	According to this principle, the needs of individuals and groups within an organization should not take precedence over the needs of the organization as a whole.
Remuneration	Wages should be equitable and satisfactory to employees and superiors.
Centralization	Levels at which decisions are to be made should depend on the specific situation, no level of centralization or decentralization is ideal for all situations.
Scale of chain	The relationship among all levels in the organizational hierarchy and exact lines of authority should be unmistakably clear and usually followed at all times, excepting special circumstances when some departure might be necessary.
Order	There should be a place for everything, and everything should be in its place. This is essentially a principle of organization in the arrangement of things and people.
	management Specialization of labor Authority Discipline Unity of command Unity of direction Subordination of individual interest to common good Remuneration Centralization Scale of chain

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11	H 0114T17	Employees should be treated equitably in order to elicit loyalty and devotion from personnel.
12	Darconal familes	Views unnecessary turnover to be both the cause and the effect of bad management; Fayol points out its danger and costs.
13	Initiative	Subordinates should be encouraged to conceive and carryout ideas.
14	Penfit de corne	Team work, a sense of unity and togetherness, should be fostered and maintained.

QUESTION 1: Explain in detail various types of plans

Types of Plans

mission or purpose

the mission or purpose identifies the basic function or the task of an enterprise or an agency or any part of it.

Objectives

This is the first step in planning the action plan of the organization. Objectives are the basics of every company and the desired objective/result that the company plans on achieving, so they are the endpoint of every planning activity.

For example one of the objectives of an organization could be to increase sales by 20%. So the manager will plan all activities of the organization with this end objective in mind. While framing the objectives of the organization some points should be kept in mind.

- Objectives should be framed for a single activity in mind.
- They should be result oriented. The objective must not frame any actions
- Objectives should not be vague, they should be quantitative and measurable.
- They should not be unrealistic. Objectives must be achievable.

Strategy

This obviously is the next type of plan, the next step that follows objectives. A strategy is a complete and all-inclusive plan for achieving said objectives. A strategy is a plan that has three specific dimensions

i. Establishing long-term objectives

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- ii. Selecting a specific course of action
- iii. allocating the necessary resources needed for the plan

Forming strategy is generally reserved for the top level of management. It actually defines all future decisions and the company's long-term scope and general direction.

Policy

Policies are generic statements, which are basically a guide to channelize energies towards a particular strategy. It is an organization's general way of understanding, interpreting and implementing strategies. Like for example, most companies have a return policy or recruitment policy or pricing policy etc.

Policies are made across all levels of management, from major policies at the top-most level to minor policies. The managers need to form policies to help the employees navigate a situation with predetermined decisions. They also help employees to make decisions in unexpected situations.

Procedure

Procedures are the next types of plan. They are a stepwise guide for the routine to carry out the activities. These stepwise sequences are to be followed by all the employees so the activities can be fulfilled in an organized manner.

The procedures are described in a chronological order. So when the employees follow the instructions in the order and completely, the success of the activity is pretty much guaranteed.

Take for example the procedure of admission of a student in a college. The procedure starts with filling out an application form. It will be followed by a collection of documents and sorting the applications accordingly.

Rules

Rules are very specific statements that define an action or non-action. Also, rules allow for no flexibility at all, they are final. All employees of the organization must compulsorily follow and implement the rules. Not following rules can have severe consequences.

Rules create an environment of discipline in the organization. They guide the actions and the behaviour of all the employees of the organization. The rule of "no smoking" is one such example.

Program

Programmes are an in-depth statement that outlines a company's policies, rules, objectives, procedures etc. These programmes are important in the implementation of all types of plan. They create a link between the company's objectives, procedures and rules.

Primary programmes are made at the top level of management. To support the primary program all managers will make other programs at the middle and lower levels of management.

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Methods

Methods prescribe the ways in which in which specific tasks of a procedure must be performed. Also, methods are very specific and detailed instructions on how the employees must perform every task of the planned procedure. So managers form methods to formalize routine jobs.

Methods are very important types of plan for an organization. They help in the following ways

- give clear instructions to the employees, removes any confusion
- Ensures uniformity in the actions of the employees
- Standardizes the routine jobs
- · Acts as an overall guide for the employees and the managers

Budget

A budget is a statement of expected results the managers expect from the company. Budgets are also a quantitative statement, so they are expressed in numerical terms. A budget quantifies the forecast or future of the organization.

There are many types of budgets that managers make. There is the obvious financial budget, that forecasts the profit of the company. Then there are operational budgets generally prepared by lower-level managers. Cash budgets monitor the cash inflows and outflows of the company.



QUESTION 1: Organisational Structure

- The organisational structure is the system of tasks, workflows, reporting relationships and communication channels that link the work of individuals and groups.
- Structures allocate task assignments, through division of labour and provide for the coordination of performance results.
- A good structure that does both things well is an asset to an organisation. There is no structure that meets the needs of all circumstances.

Formal structure

- Structure is known best in the form of an organisation chart, which is a diagram that shows reporting relationships and the formal arrangement of work positions within an organisation.
- A typical organisation chart identifies various positions and job titles, as well as the lines of authority and communication between them.
- This is the formal structure, or the structure of the organisation in its official state. It represents the way the organisation is intended to function.

Informal structure

- Behind every formal structure lies an informal structure.
- This is a 'shadow' organization made up of the unofficial, working relationships between organisational members.
- If the informal structure could be drawn, it would show who talks to and interacts regularly with whom, regardless of their formal titles and relationships.
- Importantly, no organisation can be fully understood without first gaining insight into the informal structure, as well as the formal one.
- Informal structures can be very helpful in getting needed work accomplished in any organisation.
- Access to interpersonal networks of emotional support and friendship that satisfy important social needs.
- Because they exist outside the formal authority system, the activities of informal structures can sometimes work against the best interests of the organisation.
- They can also be susceptible to rumour, carry inaccurate information, breed resistance to change and even divert work efforts from important objectives.

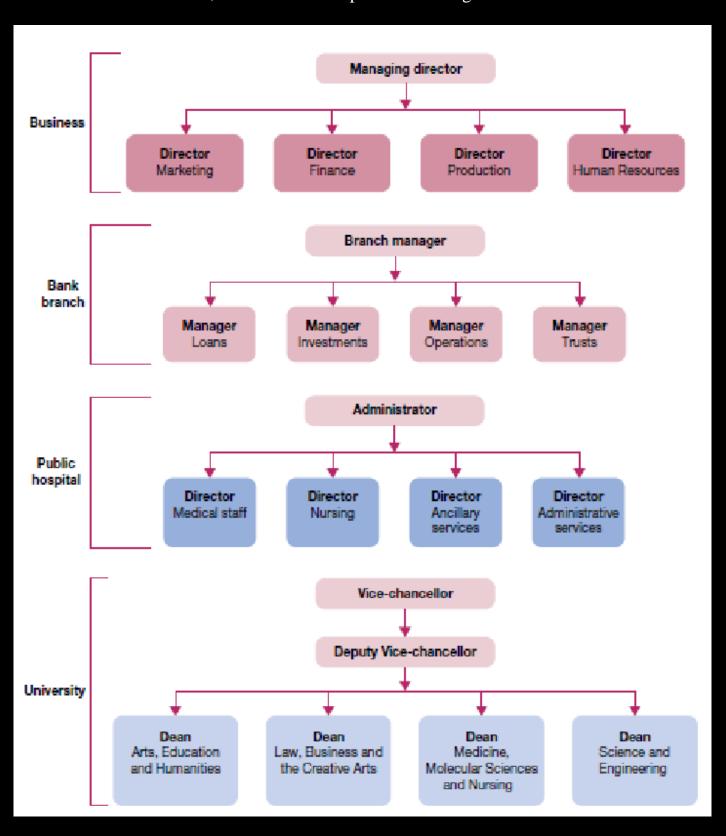
TRADITIONAL ORGANISATION STRUCTURES

- A traditional principle of organising is that performance gains are possible when people are allowed to specialise and become experts in specific jobs or tasks.
- Given this division of labour, however, decisions must then be made on how to group work positions into formal teams or departments, and then link them together in a coordinated fashion within the larger organisation.
- These decisions involve a process called departmentalisation, which has traditionally resulted in three major types of organisation structures the functional, divisional and matrix structures.

Functional structures

- In functional structures, people with similar skills and performing similar tasks are formally grouped together into work units.
- Members of functional departments share technical expertise, interests and responsibilities. The first example in figure shows a common functional structure in a business.
- In this case, senior management includes the functions of marketing, finance, production and human resources.

- The major advantages of functional structures include the following:
 - ✓ Economies of scale with efficient use of resources
 - ✓ Task assignments consistent with expertise and training
 - ✓ High quality technical problem-solving
 - ✓ In depth training and skill development within functions
 - ✓ Clear career paths within functions.
- There are also potential disadvantages of functional structures.
- Common problems with functional structures involve difficulties in pinpointing responsibilities for things like cost containment, product or service quality, timeliness and innovation in response to environmental changes.
- Such problems with functional structures are magnified as organisations grow and environments begin to change.
- Another significant concern is often called the functional chimneys problem, refers to the lack of communication, coordination and problem solving across functions.



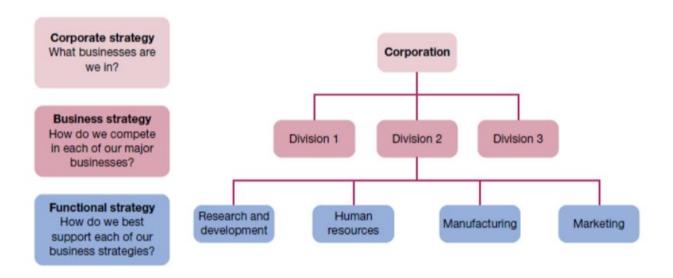


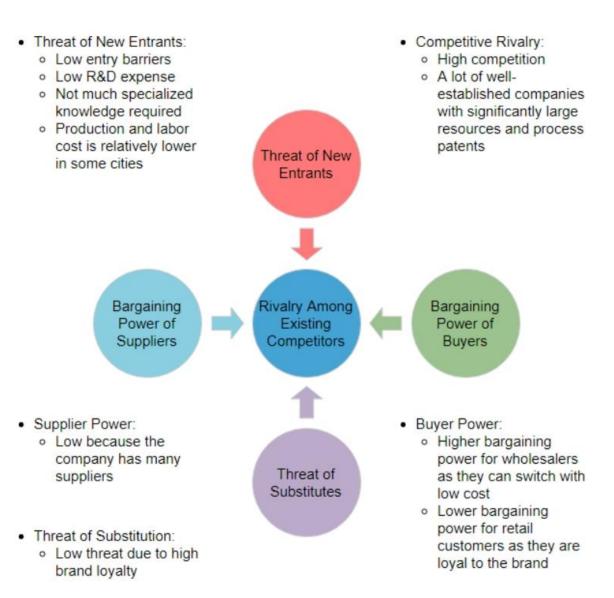
Fig 4.4.1 Levels of strategy in organisations

Levels of strategy

The level of **corporate strategy** directs the organisation as a whole towards sustainable competitive advantage. For a business it describes the scope of operations by answering the following question: In what industries and markets should we compete? The purpose of corporate strategy is to set direction and guide resource allocations for the entire enterprise. In large, complex organisations like General Electric (GE), corporate strategy identifies the different areas of business in which a company intends to compete. The organisation presently pursues business interests in aviation, home and businesses solutions, financial (capital) services, healthcare, energy and transportation, for example. Typical strategic decisions at the corporate level relate to the allocation of resources for acquisitions, new business development, divestitures and so on across the business portfolio. Increasingly, corporate strategies for many businesses include an important role for global operations such as international joint ventures and strategic alliances.

Business strategy is the strategy for a single business unit or product line. It describes intent to compete within a specific industry or market. Large conglomerates such as GE, are composed of many businesses, with many differences among them in product lines and even industries. The term **strategic business unit (SBU)** is often used to describe a single business or a component that operates with a separate mission within a larger enterprise. The selection of strategy at the business level involves answering the question: How are we going to compete for customers in this industry and market? Typical business strategy decisions include choices about product/service mix, the location of facilities and new technologies.

Functional strategy guides the use of organisational resources to implement business strategy. This level of strategy focuses on activities within a specific functional area of operations. The standard business functions of marketing, manufacturing, human resources, and research and development illustrate this level of strategy. The question to be answered in selecting functional strategies becomes: How can we best use resources to implement our business strategy? Answers to this question typically involve the choice of progressive



The effect on Internet on Porter's 5 forces model

The entry of new competitors

Today, it's not just traditional industry competitors the firm needs to worry about, but new entrants from outside the industry, equipped with new digitally based business models and value propositions. This is often tech giants and startups that have envisioned and built a new business model from the ground up, powered by a new platform ecosystem for digital business. They're leveraging the familiar social, mobile, analytics and cloud technologies, but are often adding in personas and context, intelligent automation, the Internet of Things, and cybersecurity to further enhance the value proposition of their platform.

Why can new entrants move in so easily? Digital business changes the rules by lowering the traditional barriers to entry. A digitally based business model requires far less capital and can bring large economies of scale for example.

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The threat of substitutes

The threat of substitutes has to do with the threat of substitute products or services. In terms of internet based business, this can come from a purely digital substitute or a hybrid digital/physical substitute. Taxi services, such as Uber and EasyTaxi for example, provide a hybrid model via a digital app for consumers and taxi drivers, coupled with the physical taxis.

Digital services wrapped around a physical product are another example and can range from one extreme such as the industrial Internet to another such as home automation technologies or personal fitness products. In addition, the long-term revenue stream from the digital services may be worth far more than the one time sale of the physical product.

The threat of substitutes is high in many industries since switching costs are low and buyer propensity to substitute is high. In the taxi services example, customers can easily switch from traditional models to the new model simply by installing an app on their smartphone. Propensity to switch from the traditional model is high due to consumer wait times for taxis, lack of visibility into taxi location and so on.

The bargaining power of buyers

Perhaps the strongest of the five forces impacting industry competition is the bargaining power of buyers since the biggest driver of digital business comes from the needs and expectations of consumers and customers themselves.

This bargaining power lays out a new set of expectations for the digital customer experience and necessitates continual corporate innovation across business models, processes, operations, products and services.

Customers and consumers have amassed far more bargaining power today due to instant access to information, insights from social media including access to reviews and feedback, low switching costs via digital channels, price sensitivity, access to substitute products and services with greater ease of use and convenience, as well as increased industry competitiveness as a result of the other forces.

The bargaining power of suppliers

Suppliers can accelerate or slow down the adoption of a digitally based business model based upon how it impacts their own situation. Those pursuing digital models themselves, such as the use of APIs to streamline their ability to form new partnerships and manage existing ones, may help accelerate your own model.

Those who are suppliers to the traditional models, and who question or are still determining their new role in the digital equivalent, may use their bargaining power to slow down or dispute the validity or legality of the new model.

QUESTION 1: Ethics in organisation

5.6 Ethics

Ethics can be defined as the code of moral principles that sets standards of good or bad, or right or wrong, in a person's conduct and thereby guides the behaviour of that person or group. These principles guide behaviour and help people make moral choices among alternative courses of action. In practice, ethical behaviour is that which is accepted to be 'good', 'right' and 'proper' as opposed to 'bad', 'wrong' or 'improper' in the context of the governing moral code.

Law, values and ethical behaviour

It makes sense that there should be a legal component to ethical behaviour; that is, you would expect that any legal behaviour should be considered ethical. Furthermore, just because an action is not strictly illegal does not make it ethical. Living up to the 'letter of the law' is not sufficient to guarantee that your actions will or should be considered ethical. Is it truly .ethical, for example, for an employee to take longer than necessary to do a job? to make personal telephone calls on company time? to call in sick to take a day off for leisure? to fail to report rule violations by a co - worker? None of these acts is strictly illegal, but many people would consider any one or all of them to be unethical. Most ethical problems in the workplace arise when people are asked to do, or find themselves about to do, something that violates the dictates of their conscience. For some, if the act is legal they proceed with confidence. For others, the ethical test goes beyond the legality of the act alone. The ethical question extends to personal values – the underlying beliefs and attitudes that help determine individual behaviour. Values vary among people.

Alternative views of ethical behaviour

There are many different interpretations of what constitutes ethical behaviour. The first is the **utilitarian view**. Behaviour that would be considered ethical from this perspective delivers the greatest good to the greatest number of people. Founded in the work of 19th century philosopher John Stuart Mill, this is a results oriented point of view that tries to assess the moral implications of decisions in terms of their consequences. Business decision makers, for example, are inclined to use profits, efficiency and other performance criteria to judge what is best for the most people. A manager may make a utilitarian decision to cut 30 per cent of a factory's workforce in order to keep the factory profitable and save jobs for the remaining 70 per cent.

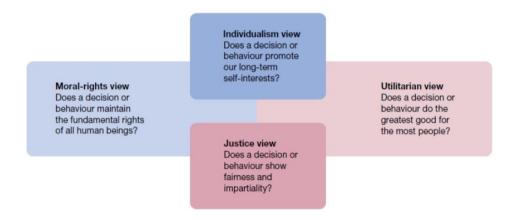


Fig 5.6.1 Four views of ethical behaviour

The **individualism view** of ethical behaviour is based on the belief that our main commitment is to the advancement of long - term self - interests. When people pursue individual self - interests, they supposedly become self - regulating. For example, such things as lying and cheating for short - term gain should not be tolerated. If one person does it, everyone will do it, and no - one's long - term interests will be served. The individualism view is supposed to promote honesty and integrity. But in business practice it may result in a pecuniary ethic, described by one business executive as the tendency to 'push the law to its outer limits' and 'run roughshod over other individuals to achieve one's objectives.

Ethical behaviour under a **moral-rights view** is that which respects and protects the fundamental rights of people. In many organisations today, this concept extends to ensuring that employees are always protected in their rights to privacy, due process, free speech, free consent, health and safety, and freedom of conscience. The issue of human rights, so characteristic of ethical concerns in the international business environment, is central to this perspective.

The United Nations stands by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights passed by the General Assembly in 1948. People are not a cost; they are a resource. Considerations for workers in and out of the workplace are the responsibility of the corporate leader just as much as the profits, survival, and growth of the business or organisation. Finally, the **justice view** of moral behaviour is based on the belief that ethical decisions treat people impartially and fairly according to guiding rules and standards. This approach evaluates the ethical aspects of any decision on the basis of whether it is 'equitable' for everyone affected. One justice issue in organisations is **procedural justice** – the degree to which policies and rules are fairly administered. A second issue is **distributive justice** – the degree to which outcomes are allocated without respect to individual characteristics based on ethnicity, race, gender, age or other criteria. A third issue is **interactional justice** – the degree to which others are treated with dignity and respect.

QUESTION 2: Developing a quality workforce

5.3 Developing a quality workforce

When people join an organisation, they must 'learn the ropes' and become familiar with the way things are done. It is important that newcomers are helped to fit into the work environment in a way that furthers their development and performance potential. **Socialisation** is the process of influencing the expectations, behaviour and attitudes of a new employee in a way considered desirable by the organisation. The intent of socialisation in HRM is to help achieve the best possible fit between the individual, the job and the organisation.

Employee orientation

Socialisation of newcomers begins with **orientation** — a set of activities designed to familiarise new employees with their jobs, co-workers and key aspects of the organisation as a whole. This includes clarifying the mission and culture, explaining operating objectives and job expectations, communicating policies and procedures, and identifying key personnel.

The first six months of employment are often crucial in determining how well someone will perform over the long term. It is a time when the original expectations are tested, and patterns are set for future relationships between an individual and employer. Unfortunately, orientation is sometimes neglected and newcomers are often left to fend for themselves. They may learn job and organisational routines on their own or through casual interactions with co-workers, and they may acquire job attitudes the same way. The result is that otherwise well-intentioned and capable persons may learn inappropriate attitudes and/or behaviours. Good orientation, on the other hand, enhances a person's understanding of the organisation and adds purpose to his or her daily job activities. Increased performance, greater job satisfaction and greater work commitment are the desired results. Orientation is particularly important for employees being sent on international assignments.

Training and development

Training is a set of activities that provide the opportunity to acquire and improve job-related skills. This applies both to the initial training of an employee and to upgrading or improving someone's skills to meet changing job requirements. A major concern of employers is the lack of educational preparation of some workers for jobs, often high technology jobs, in the new workplace. These concerns even extend to the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, as well as to computer skills. Progressive organisations offer extensive training programs to ensure that their workers always have the skills and computer literacy needed to perform well.

On - the - job training

On-the-job training takes place in the work setting while someone is doing a job. A common approach is job rotation that allows people to spend time working in different jobs to expand the range of their job capabilities. Another is **coaching**, in which an experienced person provides performance advice to someone else. One form of coaching is **mentoring**, in which employees

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at the early stages of their careers are formally assigned as protégés of senior people. The mentoring relationship gives them regular access to advice on developing skills and getting a good start in their careers. An informal type of coaching involves **modelling**. This occurs when someone demonstrates through day-to-day personal behaviour what is expected of others. One way to learn managerial skills, for example, is to observe and practise the techniques displayed by good managers. Modelling is a very important influence on behaviour in organisations.

Off - the - job training

Off-the-job training is accomplished outside the work setting. It may be done within the organisation at a separate training room or facility or at an offsite location. Examples of the latter include attendance at special training programs sponsored by universities, trade or professional associations, or consultants. The willingness of organisations to invest in training is a good indicator of their commitment to the people they hire. An important form of off-thejob training involves management development, designed to improve a person's knowledge and skill in the fundamentals of management. For example, beginning managers often benefit from training that emphasises delegating duties; middle managers may benefit from training to better understand multifunctional viewpoints; top managers may benefit from advanced management training to sharpen their decision-making and negotiating skills and to expand their awareness of corporate strategy and direction. Moves to blend different types of training are becoming increasingly popular. Because individuals have different learning styles and approaches, it makes sense to provide employees with a range of training options to meet their needs. E-learning, for instance, uses the internet to encourage less pressured, more reflective, self-paced learning. It can be used to supplement other methods such as outdoor experiences or face-to-face discussions.

Performance management systems

Performance has to be measured. With measurement comes the opportunity not only to document results but also to take steps towards their future improvement. Part of the HRM responsibility is design and implementation of a successful **performance management system**. This is a system that ensures that performance standards and objectives are set, that performance is regularly assessed for accomplishments, and that actions are taken to improve performance potential in the future. Unfortunately, many managers believe that the appraisal is the beginning and end of **performance management**. It is only one aspect of ongoing feedback and development, and a continuous process of setting goals and objectives, watching performance, and then giving and receiving feedback and ongoing coaching. Managers must ensure through performance management that all activities and outputs are aligned with strategic goals — thus ensuring the company can achieve competitive advantage through well-trained and developed people. Performance management provides a direct link between 'employee performance and organizational goals and makes the employee's contribution "explicit".

Purpose of performance appraisal

Usually performance appraisal is a once-a-year contribution to feedback. It does not provide the ongoing coaching that allows for improvement, but instead measures the strengths and weaknesses of the employee. An appraisal is an important part of a performance management, because performance management is much more than performance appraisal. The process of formally assessing someone's work accomplishments and providing feedback is **performance** appraisal. It serves two basic purposes in the maintenance of a quality workforce: evaluation and development. The *evaluation purpose* is intended to let people know where they stand relative to performance objectives and standards. The *development purpose* is intended to assist

in their training and continued personal development. The evaluation purpose of performance appraisal focuses on past performance and measures results against standards. Performance is documented for the record and to establish a basis for allocating rewards. The manager acts in a *judgemental role* in which he or she gives a direct evaluation of another person's accomplishments. The development purpose of performance appraisal, on the other hand, focuses on future performance and the clarification of success standards. It is a way of discovering performance obstacles and identifying training and development opportunities. Here the manager acts in a *counselling role*, focusing on a subordinate's developmental needs. Like employment tests, any performance appraisal method can fulfil these purposes only when the criteria of *reliability* and *validity* are met. To be reliable, the method should consistently yield the same result over time and/or for different raters; to be valid, it should be unbiased and measure only factors directly relevant to job performance. Written documentation of performance appraisals and a record of consistent past actions will be required to back up any contested evaluations.

Performance appraisal methods

Organisations use a variety of performance appraisal methods. One of the simplest is a **graphic** rating scale, such as the example in figure. Such scales offer the appraisers checklists of traits or characteristics thought to be related to high-performance outcomes in a given job. A manager rates the individual on each trait using a numerical score. The main appeal of graphic rating scales is that they are relatively quick and easy to complete. Their reliability and validity are questionable, however, because the categories and scores are subject to varying interpretations.

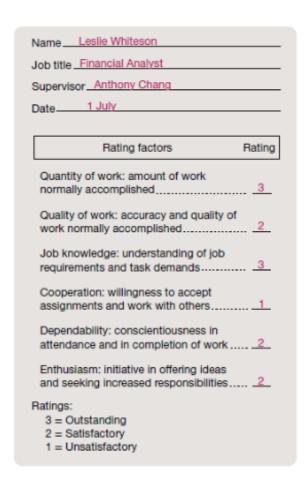


Fig 5.3.2 Sample graphic rating scale for performance appraisal