

MASTERING MANAGEMENT CONTROL SYSTEMS STRATEGIES FOR ORGANIZATIONAL SUCCESS

Dr. Chaya Bagrecha



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CHAPTER 1

COMPONENTS OF MANAGEMENT CONTROL SYSTEMS: A REVIEW STUDY

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ABSTRACT:

Management Control Systems (MCS) are integral to the efficient functioning and strategic alignment of organizations. Comprising various components, MCS encompass the tools, processes, and structures employed by management to ensure that organizational objectives are achieved effectively and efficiently. This abstract provides an in-depth exploration of the components of Management Control Systems, elucidating their significance, functions, and interrelationships within organizational contexts.

The fundamental components of MCS can be categorized into four main elements: Strategic Planning and Goal Setting, Performance Measurement and Evaluation, Feedback and Corrective Action, and Communication and Information Systems. Strategic Planning and Goal Setting is the cornerstone of MCS, establishing the direction and objectives that guide organizational activities. It involves formulating strategies, setting goals, and defining key performance indicators (KPIs) aligned with the organization's mission and vision. Effective strategic planning ensures clarity of purpose and facilitates decision-making processes across all levels of the organization.

KEYWORDS:

Accountability, Alignment, Automation, Balance, Benchmarking, Budgeting.

INTRODUCTION

Any company that uses decentralization must have management control. According to one point of view, management control systems have to match the company's strategy. This suggests that the strategy is created via a methodical, formal process in the first place, and that the strategy then influences how the company's management systems are designed. Another way of looking at it is that strategies are developed via experimentation, which is impacted by the management systems of the company. This perspective holds that the creation of strategies may be impacted by management control systems. Businesses may utilize a formal, logical approach to define the strategy first and then construct management control systems to carry it out when they operate in industrial settings where environmental changes are predicted.

It is challenging for a company to develop management systems to implement the selected strategy after developing the plan in a fast changing environment. It's possible that in these situations, ad hoc procedures and experimentation lead to the development of strategies, which are heavily impacted by the management control systems of the company.

The widely acknowledged fact that over 90% of businesses, including non-organizations, are founded on the implementation of strategies either the strategies never materialize or become distorted, or the implementation proves to be significantly more expensive and time-consuming than expected capsulates the significance of the subject matter. Though they may have noble strategic objectives, they are often not worth the paper they are written on if they do not materialize. On the other hand, firms that do well thrive in execution [1], [2].

Think about the demise of businesses like Tyco, WorldCom, Global Crossing, and Enron. The breakdown in controls was one factor in their collapse. Executives were incentivized to distort financials in order to support the short-term stock price since CEO and senior management remuneration in these organizations was so strongly linked to stock options.

Take into consideration prominent corporations like Worthington Industries, Emerson Electric, Walmart, Cisco Systems, Dell Computer, Analog Devices, and so on. Their long-term success isn't just due to the fact that they have created sound strategies; more significantly, they have created procedures and systems that inspire their staff to carry out those strategies in an efficient manner.

The conventional view of control systems is akin to the autocrat's use of police to subdue a disorderly crowd. However, it is important to acknowledge the clear upward trend in empowerment that has occurred in the twenty-first century. Systems that are perfectly under control that is, unaffected by autocrat or police would demonstrate the stark contrast between the idea of managing individuals and that of systems that are in charge and capable of easily achieving their aims and objectives. They are worthy of imitation [3], [4].

Management Control Systems Definition

An MCS is a collection of interconnected communication structures that makes information processing easier and helps managers continuously achieve an organization's goal by coordinating its many components. An MCS is a logical combination of methods for information gathering and usage in planning and control choices, employee behavior motivation, and performance evaluation. A key component of organizational governance is management control systems (MCS), which are a broad category of procedures, instruments, and frameworks intended to direct organizational actions toward the accomplishment of strategic goals.

In an increasingly competitive world, firms are pursuing sustainability, efficiency, and effectiveness, which has elevated the importance of management control systems. This paper explores the complex nature of management control systems, explaining their definition, parts, uses, and importance in relation to organizational management as a whole [5], [6].

Organizations use established processes, structures, and mechanisms known as management control systems to monitor, assess, and guide the achievement of their objectives. MCS primarily entails the synchronization of tasks, distribution of assets, and assessment of accomplishments to guarantee congruence with strategic goals and intended results. It spans many levels of the organizational structure and includes both official and informal systems. It is essential for promoting accountability, streamlining decision-making processes, and advancing performance improvement programs.

DISCUSSION

Management control systems are made up of a number of interconnected parts that work together to effectively oversee organizational operations. These elements consist of:

Strategic Planning and Goal-Setting

Creating strategic objectives and goals that serve as a framework for organizational operations is the cornerstone of management control systems. Establishing quantifiable goals, establishing objectives, and providing a clear direction all play a part in strategic planning, which directs the distribution of resources and decision-making.

Performance Measurement and Evaluation

The methodical assessment of organizational performance in relation to preset standards and objectives is a fundamental component of MCS. At both the operational and strategic levels, decision-making processes are informed by key performance indicators (KPIs), which are used to evaluate progress and identify areas for improvement [7], [8].

Budgeting and Resource Allocation

A key component of management control systems, budgetary control offers a framework for allocating resources, controlling expenses, and guaranteeing financial discipline within the company. Budgets facilitate resource allocation choices and performance monitoring activities by acting as quantitative statements of organizational objectives and priorities.

Information Systems and Reporting

Information systems are essential to the gathering, processing, and sharing of pertinent data and information inside the company. Effective management reporting procedures facilitate informed decision-making and strategic planning by giving stakeholders precise and timely insights into the performance of the business.

Organizational Structure and Authority Relationships

Within an organization, the way authority relationships and organizational structure are designed affects how information is shared, how decisions are made, and how responsibility is handled. To maintain efficient coordination and management of organizational operations, roles, responsibilities, and reporting lines must be clearly defined.

Behavioral and Cultural Factors

The organization's innate behavioral and cultural characteristics have an impact on management control systems. The adoption and efficacy of MCS are influenced by corporate culture, leadership philosophies, and worker attitudes toward control mechanisms, underscoring the need of coordinating control systems with organizational norms and values.

Management Control System Functions

In order to guarantee responsibility, reduce risks, and improve organizational performance, management control systems fulfill a number of crucial tasks. Among these roles are:

Alignment and Coordination

MCS assures alignment with strategic goals and priorities by assisting in the coordination of various operations and functions within the company. MCS facilitates the smooth integration of activities towards shared objectives by offering a structure for coordination, communication, and planning [9], [10].

Performance Monitoring and Evaluation

Tracking and assessing organizational performance in relation to preset goals and standards is one of the main duties of management control systems. Performance metrics and indicators are used by MCS to provide stakeholders information on areas that need correction, progress that has been made, and departures from the norm. Management control systems provide decision-makers with pertinent information and analysis to bolster their decision-making and strategic planning procedures. Through data synthesis, trend identification, and alternative path evaluation, MCS facilitates well-informed decision-making that is in line with corporate goals.

Allocating and Optimizing Resources

Robust management control systems enable the effective distribution and use of resources, including monetary, human, and technical assets. The use of cost management techniques, performance incentives, and budgetary controls by MCS facilitates resource optimization and value generation in the business.

Risk Management and Compliance

MCS are essential to the identification, evaluation, and reduction of risks associated with organizational operations. Internal controls, compliance frameworks, and risk management procedures are put in place by MCS to protect the goals, sustainability, and reputation of the company from possible risks [11], [12].

Reactions and Education

By offering performance reviews and feedback channels, management control systems help the business develop a culture of ongoing learning and development. Regular review procedures, feedback loops, and lessons learned allow MCS to facilitate long-term organizational development, innovation, and adaptability.

Management Control Systems' Importance

Management control systems are important for more reasons than just monitoring and policing organizational operations. MCS are essential for helping businesses in dynamic business contexts handle complexity, seize opportunities, and maintain a competitive edge. Among the important facets of their importance are:

Alignment Strategically

Management control systems provide coherence and consistency in decision-making processes across the company by ensuring alignment between organizational actions and strategic goals.

Enhancement of Performance

MCS facilitates performance improvement programs that seek to increase productivity, profitability, and operational excellence by tracking performance, detecting inefficiencies, and encouraging responsibility.

Mitigation of Risk

Organizations may protect themselves against possible threats to their goals, financial stability, and reputation by using management control systems to help them recognize, evaluate, and reduce risks.

Assistance with Decision Making

MCS improve the caliber and efficacy of management choices by giving decision-makers pertinent data, analysis, and insights to assist strategic planning and decision-making processes.

Responsibility and Openness

Management control systems encourage responsibility and transparency inside the company by defining clear roles, duties, and performance measures. This builds stakeholder confidence and integrity.

Flexibility and Sturdiness

MCS help businesses respond swiftly to shifting market circumstances, new trends, and disruptive forces in unpredictable and dynamic situations. This promotes resilience and sustainability in the long run.

To sum up, management control systems are a complex framework that includes methods, procedures, and practices that are designed to direct organizational actions toward the achievement of strategic goals. MCS, as defined by their elements, purposes, and importance, are essential to the organization's capacity to coordinate, improve performance, reduce risks, and promote responsibility. Management control systems are anticipated to play a critical role in ensuring the success and sustainability of companies as they continue to change and adapt to changing business contexts.

Goal and Significance

Let's say you are prone to gaining weight. It runs in the family, so if you don't take precautions, you might end up the same as a number of your relatives did. What then do you do? You reduced how much food you ate. It might be beneficial or not.

When you begin exercising, you find to your dismay that you are gaining a significant amount of unnecessary muscle. Perhaps you are not undertaking workouts that are appropriate for your constitution.

The System of Management Control

Subsequently, you modify your workout regimen and discover that it is effective. You begin to lose weight. This is managing your weight. It offers us command over our body's operations. We may not be able to accomplish our goals if this control is not used. Likewise, organizations must have authority over them. A company with insufficient controls is bad for its workers and ultimately detrimental for the company as a whole.

All management and control systems are designed to help organizations easily and economically accomplish their goals and objectives. Any system's ultimate goal should be to be "in control" rather than to control individuals. Additionally, it seeks to support management in directing and coordinating the many components of an organization in order to accomplish its overarching purposes, goals, and objectives. A management control system's objectives are:

1. To make the organization's objectives well understood;
2. To guarantee that supervisors and staff members are aware of the precise steps needed to accomplish company objectives;
3. To disseminate action outcomes within the organization; and
4. to guarantee that managers are able to adapt to environmental changes.

A management control system's components are shown in the figure above, which aims to unify an organization's disparate operations while it works toward achieving its main goal.

In charge

Your automobile accelerates when you press the accelerator. It shifts direction when the steering wheel is rotated. The automobile slows down or stops when the brake pedal is depressed. You can control the car's direction and speed using these gadgets; if any of them are broken, the vehicle won't perform as you'd want. Stated differently, it is uncontrollable. Control

over an organization is also necessary; that is, mechanisms need to be put in place to guarantee that its strategic goals are met. However, managing an organization is much more difficult than managing a vehicle.

Components of Regulatory Systems

There are four basic components to every control system:

1. A sensor, often known as a detector, is a tool used to monitor real activity inside the regulated process.
2. An assessor is a tool that evaluates the importance of what is really occurring by contrasting it with a benchmark or expectation of what ought to occur.
3. An effector is a tool that modifies behavior when the assessor deems it necessary.
4. Devices that transfer data between the assessor and the effector as well as between the detector and the assessor make up a communications network.

This picture lists the four fundamental components of every control system.

Components of the Supervisory Procedure

Three examples of increasing complexity illustrate how these four fundamental parts work: the thermostat, which controls room temperature; the biological mechanism, which controls body temperature; and the driver of a car, who controls direction and speed of the vehicle.

Thermostat

The thermostat's components are as follows: a thermometer that measures the room's current temperature; an assessor that compares the measured temperature to the recommended level of temperature; an effector that turns on an air conditioner or furnace and turns it off when the temperature reaches the recommended level; and a communications network that relays data from the thermometer to the assessor and from the assessor to the heating or cooling element.

Body Heat

The majority of animals have an innate sense of what constitutes a healthy body temperature; for humans, this is 98.6°F. The hypothalamus center in the brain, which compares data from detectors with the 98.6°F standard, the muscles and organs that raise and lower body temperature in response to deviations from the standard, the sensory nerves dispersed throughout the body, and the overall nerve communications system are the components of the control mechanism by which the body attempts to maintain that standard. This biological regulatory mechanism is self-regulating, or homeostatic. When the system is operating correctly, deviations from the norm are automatically corrected without the user having to do anything. With body sensors positioned all throughout the body and the hypothalamus controlling a multitude of muscles and organs, the body temperature regulation system is more intricate than the thermostat. It is also more enigmatic since scientists are aware of the hypothalamus's functions but not its mechanisms. Driver of a vehicle: Let's say you are traveling at the 65 mph permitted speed on a highway.

However, just as controlling body temperature is more difficult than using a thermostat, controlling the temperature in an automobile is also more difficult. This is due to the fact that it is impossible to predict with confidence what the brain will do after it has received and processed data from the detector. For instance, some drivers may ease off the accelerator to keep below the legal limit once they discover that the car's real speed surpasses 65 mph, while

others won't for a variety of reasons. Control in this system is not automated; to estimate the real speed of the car at the conclusion of the procedure, one would need to have some knowledge about the driver's personality and surroundings.

Supervisory

In business and human organization, management is just the process of bringing people together to achieve certain objectives. Planning, organizing, staffing, leading or directing, and regulating an organization or endeavor in order to achieve a goal are all included in management. The use and management of natural resources, financial resources, human resources, and technology resources are all included in resourcing.

The term "management" may also refer to the person or persons who carry out the managerial task. An organization is made up of individuals who collaborate to accomplish certain shared objectives. An organizational chart places managers in a hierarchy, with the chief executive officer at the top and managers of departments, business units, functions, and other subunits listed below him or her. The number of levels in the hierarchy is determined by how complicated the organization is. With the exception of the CEO, all managers oversee the individuals inside their respective units and are overseen by the managers to whom they report. They are thus both superiors and subordinates.

The overarching strategy that will allow the business to achieve its objectives are determined by the CEO or a group of senior management. The different business unit managers develop supplementary plans that will help their particular units achieve these objectives, subject to the CEO's approval. The process by which managers at all levels make sure that the individuals under their supervision carry out their planned plans is known as the management control process.

Comparing Complex Control Systems with More Basic Control Procedures

The standard is not preset, in contrast to body temperature or thermostat systems. Instead, it is the outcome of deliberate preparation. In this process, management makes decisions about what the company ought to be doing. A comparison of actual results with these plans is a component of the control process. Planning is thus a part of an organization's control process. On the other hand, management control combines control with planning. Management control is not automated, much like operating a car. Although there may be mechanical detectors in an organization, managers often use their own eyes, hearing, and other senses to pick up on crucial information. The manager must personally carry out the assessor role, determining whether the difference between actual and standard performance is significant enough to justify action and, if so, what action to take, even though she may have regular methods of comparing certain reports of what is happening with standards of what should be happening.

In contrast to operating a car, which is a single person's responsibility, managerial control necessitates teamwork. Since an organization is made up of many different components, management control must make sure that each component functions as a whole. This need does not apply to the thermostat; it only applies to the numerous organs that regulate body temperature. A lot of management control is self-control; that is, control is maintained by managers who are using their own judgment rather than obeying orders from above, rather than by an external regulating device like the thermostat. The connection between perceiving the need for action and determining the action required to obtain the desired result may not be evident.

Within the domain of corporate governance and performance management, there are two different ways to accomplish goals: management control systems (MCS) and more straightforward control methods. Although they both function to control, direct, and assess organizational operations, their complexity, reach, and efficacy are quite different. This paper investigates the differences between management control systems and more straightforward control procedures, looking at their definitions, traits, uses, and consequences in relation to modern organizational management.

Knowing Management Control Systems

A broad range of procedures, controls, and guidelines are included in management control systems, which are intended to direct organizational actions toward the accomplishment of strategic goals. In order to guarantee alignment with corporate objectives and priorities, MCS primarily entails the coordination of operations, distribution of resources, and assessment of performance. Among the essential features of management control systems are:

Comprehensive Scope

MCS include budgeting, risk management, performance assessment, strategy planning, and resource allocation, among other aspects of organizational operations. They provide a comprehensive method of governance by combining various organizational procedures and activities.

Formalization and Structure

Organizational operations are governed by codified processes, structures, and mechanisms that define management control systems. They include putting rules, procedures, and guidelines in place to direct decision-making and guarantee uniformity and adherence across the company.

Information and Analysis Are Key

MCS mostly relies on data, information, and analysis to guide performance reviews and decision-making procedures. They use metrics, reporting systems, and key performance indicators (KPIs) to track developments, spot patterns, and help with well-informed decision-making.

Adaptability and Flexibility

To account for changing organizational requirements, market conditions, and outside influences, effective management control systems demonstrate adaptability and flexibility. They may change over time to adapt to new opportunities, problems, and strategic goals.

Examining Less Complex Control Mechanisms

Compared to management control systems, simpler control procedures are more direct, narrowly focused mechanisms that are intended to regulate certain areas of organizational activity. More straightforward control procedures provide some benefits in terms of simplicity, efficiency, and ease of implementation, even if they may not have the broad breadth and formalization of MCS. Simpler control procedures have many important features, such as:

Narrow Focus

Less complex control procedures usually concentrate on certain departments or roles within the company, including compliance oversight, inventory control, or quality control. Instead than offering a whole approach to governance, they deal with specific problems or challenges.

Minimal Formalization

Less complex control procedures could need less formalization or documentation than management control systems. They often depend on unofficial protocols, rules, or checklists to control operations and guarantee that certain criteria are followed.

Operational Efficiency

Simplified control procedures are intended to reduce bureaucratic red tape, improve efficiency, and simplify operations. They put simplicity and ease of use first, freeing up companies to concentrate on their main goals and tasks.

Limited Complexity

Compared to complete management control systems, simpler control procedures are less complicated, easier to grasp, and easier to administer due to their inherent simplicity. They work especially well in smaller businesses or certain operational situations when sophistication may not be necessary.

CONCLUSION

The process of measuring and evaluating an organization's performance involves comparing it to pre-established benchmarks and objectives. The creation and use of performance measurements, such as financial ratios, operational benchmarks, and qualitative indicators, are part of this component. Management is able to identify areas for optimization and improvement by using performance assessment to provide insights into the efficacy of plans and activities. In dynamic contexts, companies must preserve their agility and flexibility via the use of feedback and corrective action systems.

The aforementioned components include the gathering, evaluation, and distribution of input from diverse stakeholders, such as staff members, clients, and outside associates. Feedback systems improve organizational responsiveness and resilience by allowing management to quickly detect departures from set objectives and take remedial action. The foundation of MCS is comprised of communication and information systems, which provide coordination and information flow across various functional areas within the business. This component includes the dissemination of organizational policies, performance information, and strategic goals via the use of reporting systems, communication channels, and information technology. Transparency, accountability, and cooperation are fostered by effective communication systems, allowing stakeholders to make knowledgeable choices and contribute to the success of the business.

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CHAPTER 2

CONTRASTING MANAGEMENT CONTROL SYSTEMS AND SIMPLER CONTROL PROCESSES

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ABSTRACT:

Management Control Systems (MCS) and simpler control processes represent two distinct approaches to organizational control, each with unique characteristics, objectives, and implications for organizational performance. This abstract explores the fundamental differences between MCS and simpler control processes, highlighting their respective features, advantages, and limitations. Management Control Systems (MCS) are comprehensive frameworks designed to guide organizational activities, monitor performance, and facilitate strategic decision-making. Comprising various components such as strategic planning, performance measurement, feedback mechanisms, and communication systems, MCS provide a structured approach to aligning organizational objectives with operational activities. By integrating these components, MCS enable management to establish clear goals, monitor progress, and initiate corrective actions as needed. Moreover, MCS promote transparency, accountability, and coordination across different functional areas within the organization, thereby enhancing overall effectiveness and efficiency.

In contrast, simpler control processes refer to more informal, ad-hoc mechanisms employed by organizations to monitor and regulate performance. These processes may include informal feedback loops, direct supervision, and basic performance metrics. While simpler control processes lack the formal structure and sophistication of MCS, they offer flexibility and adaptability in rapidly changing environments.

KEYWORDS:

Compliance, Coordination, Culture, Decision-Making, Empowerment.

INTRODUCTION

Organizational activities are regulated and governed by both basic control procedures and management control systems, but they vary greatly in terms of their efficacy, complexity, and breadth. Several salient contrasts are as follows:

Breadth and Extensive Coverage

Management control systems provide a broad range of organizational tasks and procedures, such as risk management, budgeting, performance evaluation, and strategy planning. Simpler control procedures, on the other hand, usually target more narrowly defined regions or activities [1], [2].

Formalization and Structure

Organizational operations are governed by codified processes, structures, and mechanisms that define management control systems. To assure consistency and compliance, they include establishing standards, norms, and regulations to direct decision-making processes. Conversely, less complex control systems could need less formalization and documentation, depending instead on unofficial protocols or recommendations.

Information and Analysis

To support decision-making procedures and performance reviews, management control systems significantly depend on data, information, and analysis. To track advancement and spot patterns, they make use of measurements, reporting systems, and key performance indicators (KPIs). Less complex data analysis and reporting may be used in simpler control procedures, which concentrate on fundamental performance or compliance metrics [3], [4].

Adaptability and Flexibility

To account for changing organizational requirements, market conditions, and outside influences, effective management control systems demonstrate adaptability and flexibility. They have the capacity to change throughout time in response to new possibilities and difficulties. Since simpler control procedures are sometimes created to handle certain problems or challenges within a narrow scope, they cannot be as flexible.

Uses and Consequences

Organizational size, complexity, industry dynamics, and strategic aims are some of the variables that influence the decision between more complicated control procedures and management control systems. Although management control systems provide a thorough approach to performance management and governance, smaller businesses or certain operational settings may find them to be too difficult or cumbersome. Conversely, less complex control procedures provide a more concentrated and efficient method that may be utilized to handle specific problems or difficulties without requiring a lot of formalization or documentation [5], [6].

Larger businesses functioning in complex and dynamic contexts, where thorough governance and performance management are critical, are well suited for management control systems. They provide an organized framework for risk mitigation, performance monitoring, and activity alignment with strategic goals. Smaller businesses or particular operational settings where flexibility, efficiency, and simplicity are valued above thorough governance may be more suited for simpler control procedures. The decision to use more straightforward control procedures over management control systems may affect the efficacy, efficiency, and flexibility of an organization. Although management control systems provide a strong foundation for performance management and governance, they may come with higher prices, more complexity, and more administrative labor. Less extensive but simpler control procedures provide benefits in terms of simplicity, implementation convenience, and operational effectiveness. Nevertheless, their level of responsibility, rigor, and strategy alignment may not match those of complete management control systems. In conclusion, the comparison between more straightforward control procedures and management control systems demonstrates the range of options accessible to businesses looking to direct, oversee, and assess their operations. Simplified control procedures give a more focused and efficient approach, but management control systems offer a full framework for governance and performance monitoring. A number of variables, such as organizational size, complexity, industry dynamics, and strategic goals, influence which of these techniques is best. In the end, companies have to think carefully about their own requirements and situation to choose the best strategy for reaching their goals.

Systems

A system is a collection of actual or abstract things that interact or rely on one another to create a cohesive whole. An alternative way to define the phrase "integrated whole" is as a system that embodies a set of relationships that are distinct from those between the set's members and

other elements as well as those between a set element and elements outside the relational regime. Systems theory, systems science, and systemic research are areas of scientific inquiry that focus on the general features of systems. They look for notions and principles that are independent of the particular domain, substance, type, or temporal scales of existence as they examine the abstract qualities of matter and structure.

DISCUSSION

A system is a methodical approach to doing a task or series of tasks that is often repetitive. Systems are defined by a roughly synchronized, repeating, and rhythmic set of actions used to achieve a certain goal. Examples of systems include the body temperature regulation mechanisms and the thermostat. Systems for management control are significantly more sophisticated and discriminating. Common traits are shared by the majority of systems. Among these typical traits are the following:

Limitations of Management Control

Strategy formulation and task control are two more systems or activities that involve both planning and control; they are separated from management control. In many ways, management control is a good match between task control and strategy design. Of the three, task control is the most systematic, strategy development is the least systematic, and management control is in the middle. The long term is the emphasis of strategy creation, the near term is the focus of task control, and in between is management control. While task control employs up-to-date, precise data, strategy development makes use of approximate projections of the future, and management control lies in the between. The general relationships between the functions of control and planning [7], [8]. Although the focus differs depending on the kind of activity, planning and control are both necessary for any activity. Planning has a significantly larger role in strategy formulation, control plays a much bigger role in task control, and in management control, planning and control play a about equal role.

Oversight in Management

The method by which managers persuade other employees to carry out the organization's plans is known as management control. A budget need not always be followed strictly, and it need not always be broken. Plans and budgets are predicated on conditions that were thought to exist at the time they were created. The steps included in the plan could no longer be acceptable if these conditions have changed by the time it is put into effect. The management control systems should not prevent a manager from implementing a superior strategy that is more likely to accomplish the organization's objectives than the preconceived plan.

Objective Congruence

Organizational objectives lay forth the plan for how a company plans to fulfill its purpose. For instance, a vehicle company may declare that turning a profit and gaining market share are its goals. It will be able to accomplish that purpose by setting goals such as releasing a new automobile model year and offering consumers the best replacement components available. The term "goal congruence" refers to the alignment between an organization's internal objectives and its external objectives. The goal congruence concept should be taken into consideration throughout the design and operation of the management control system [9], [10].

Implementation Tool for Strategy

Managers may get a business closer to its strategic goals with the use of management control systems. As a result, the main emphasis of management control is on strategy implementation.

In addition to management controls, the organization's structure, human resource management, and unique culture all have a role in how plans are executed. The diagram that follows shows this. Organizational structure: An organizational structure is a notion of subordination that is primarily hierarchical and consists of entities working together to achieve a shared goal.

Structure for Putting Strategies into Practice

Organizational structure makes it possible to explicitly assign accountability for certain tasks and procedures to various entities. These entities are often described as branches, sites, departments, work groups, and single individuals. In an organizational structure, hiring people is often done by timely restricted work contracts, work orders, or timely unlimited employment contracts, or program orders.

It outlines the duties, reporting lines, and positions that influence how decisions are made within an organization. Human resource management is the strategic and logical approach to managing the most valuable assets of an organization, which are the employees who work there and who both individually and collectively contribute to the accomplishment of the company's goals.

Human resource management, said simply, is hiring people, maximizing their potential, using, maintaining, and paying them according to the demands of the position and the business. HRM is the process of choosing, preparing, assessing, promoting, and terminating workers in order to help them acquire the knowledge and abilities needed to carry out organizational strategy [11], [12].

Culture of the Organization

Every company has an unwritten culture that establishes expectations for acceptable and unacceptable conduct from its workers. Most workers have an understanding of the culture of their company within a few months. They are aware of things like appropriate work attire, if regulations are strictly followed, which dubious actions are likely to get them in trouble and which are likely to go unnoticed, the value of honesty and integrity, and other such things. Even while many businesses have subcultures that are centered on work groups and have their own set of rules, they nevertheless have a dominant culture that communicates to all workers the values that the company finds most important. To stay in good standing, members of work groups must embrace the norms that are implicit in the prevailing culture of the company.

Climate inside the Organization

An exceptional workplace is likely to have an organizational environment that is among its most notable and vital features. Although various academics and researchers have varied definitions of organizational climate, it typically relates to how much an organization prioritizes and focuses on:

Organizational performance is significantly predicted by the organizational environment, which is reflected in a range of HR procedures. Positive organizational climates have been linked to a number of organizational performance indicators, including sales, employee retention, productivity, customer happiness, and profitability, according to several studies.

Emphasis on both finances and non-finance

Performance metrics used in management control systems include both financial and nonfinancial. The financial "bottom line" net income, return on equity, etc. is the main emphasis of the financial metrics. However, non-financial goals like as product quality, market share, customer happiness, on-time delivery, and staff morale are shared by all firms.

Assist in the Development of Novel Approaches

Systems for management and control of the environment may also serve as a foundation for new strategy considerations in sectors where environmental changes occur quickly. This feature, known as interactive control, alerts management to both favorable and unfavorable events that point to the need of fresh strategic plans. An essential component of the management control system is interactive controls. This is shown in the figure below:

Planning and Formulation of Strategies

The process by which an organization defines its direction or strategy and decides how to allocate its resources including people and capital to accomplish it is known as strategic planning. Strategic planning is the formal examination of an organization's future direction. A variety of business analysis techniques, such as SWOT and PEST analysis or STEER analysis involving Socio-cultural, Technological, Economic, Ecological, and Regulatory factors and EPISTEL, can be used in this process. This is seen in many businesses as a process for figuring out where the organization is headed in the next year or so—typically three to five years, but some organizations broaden their vision to twenty years. The company must first ascertain precisely where it is, then decide where it wants to go and how it will get there before deciding where it is heading. The final product is known as the "strategic plan." It's also true that strategic planning may be a useful tool for figuring out a company's direction; nevertheless, in order to plan your organizational strategy, strategic planning by itself is unable to predict precisely how the market will change or what problems will emerge in the near future. Thus, an organization's primary approach for surviving the challenging business environment must be strategic innovation and tweaking the "strategic plan."

The process of determining the organization's objectives and the approaches to achieving them is known as strategy formulation. While objectives outline the precise actions to take in order to complete the goals within a certain time period, goals outline the general objectives of a business. Objectives are unchangeable; they remain the same unless they are altered, and that happens seldom. Achieving a significant market share is just as crucial to some firms as achieving a decent return on investment. Nonprofits also aim to provide the greatest number of services in accordance with their financial resources. The organization's objectives are often taken for granted throughout the strategy formation process, while sometimes strategic thinking may concentrate on the goals themselves. Strategies are comprehensive, high-level strategies. They outline the broad course that top management wants the company to take. A car company would make a strategic choice if it decided to create and market an electric vehicle.

Creating strategies is often required in reaction to an opportunity or danger that is seen. Generally speaking, a new CEO views possibilities and dangers differently than his predecessor did. Hence, when a new CEO assumes leadership, tactics are altered. Anywhere in an organization, at any moment, may give birth to strategies to deal with a danger or an opportunity. The R&D team and the employees at head office are not the only sources of new ideas. Anyone may have a brilliant concept, and with careful consideration and analysis, it can serve as the foundation for a brand-new tactic. No one individual or organizational unit should ever be given total authority over the creation of a strategy.

Task Management

The practice of making sure that certain activities are completed successfully and efficiently is known as task control. It is transaction-oriented, meaning that each work must be completed in accordance with the guidelines set out in the management control procedure. Enforcing adherence to these regulations is a common task control role, which sometimes may be

performed without the need for human intervention. Mechanical task control devices include robots, process control computers, and numerically controlled machine tools. They only use people in their function when doing so is more cost-effective or dependable; this is probably only going to happen in situations when the frequency of odd occurrences is so high that it makes no sense to design a computer to deal with them automatically.

An optimum choice or the suitable action to return an out-of-control situation to the intended state is predicated within acceptable bounds in many task control activities, which are scientific in nature. For example, the number and timing of purchase orders are determined by the economic order quantity rules. Many methods in management science and operations research center on task control. Task control information makes up the majority of the data in an organization, including the quantity of goods requested by clients, the weight of materials and component units used in product manufacturing, the number of hours worked by staff members, and the amount of money paid out. Task control systems are used in many of the core functions of a business, such as order entry, scheduling, quality assurance, cash management, and procurement.

The Four Control Paradigmas

The four parts of the conceptual framework the four control paradigms are the foundation upon which the topic of controls is based. Understanding an organization's operating environment and how it affects the control structure of the company is necessary for this. An organization that can know what it wants, know how to get it, and put forth the best effort possible is said to have a control system. The main goal is to effectively adapt to their surroundings, and the key to their success is their capacity to identify for themselves the most effective methods and control tools for completing this job. Therefore, the central authority's ability to effectively implement its commands and the strictness of the lines of command should never be the only factor. Indian IT and pharmaceutical companies have been successful mostly because of their grasp of control systems. However, the US aviation industry's worst downfall may be attributed to its failure to adjust to the rapidly changing needs of its clientele. The typical airline passenger's expectations evolved quickly. They had grown weary of opulent luxury and excellent cuisine. They wanted low prices, a simple online booking procedure, and, of course, timely and dependable service.

The Alternate Framework

The second paradigm shown in the figure is the integration of all organizational operations. Top-level behavior is referred to as corporate governance, senior-level behavior as management controls, supervisory-level behavior as process or operational controls, and task-level behavior as ground level controls. Since every level is reliant on every other level, adequate controls must be in place at every level. As an illustration

The global company "N" in the detergent sector positioned itself as the better product, charging much more for it than its rivals. Its sales team and dealers noticed that this was cutting off a lot of markets. Their board was informed of this. They consequently made the decision to significantly reduce their pricing, which they did by over 50%. In order to meet this need, they had to significantly reduce their expenses, and in order to identify areas where they can save money, they conducted a cost ascertainment exercise.

They discovered, among other things, that the working capital should be reduced in size. They set goals for these cost reductions, and the company kept an eye on the recently recognized standards for cost performance. Therefore, it was necessary to monitor the rates of material consumption, waste, direct labor productivity, and machine productivity both as a whole and

as a function of particular centers of responsibility. They also established a quality control system to preserve the standard, since the newly discovered zeal for cost-cutting threatened to undermine it. All of this was under management supervision. The procedures were simplified. Process control was being used here. Statistical quality control approaches were used to monitor each person's productivity as well as their adherence to quality standards. Task control was this. This made it possible for everyone in the hierarchy, from the top to the lowest, to collaborate harmoniously. Thus, this paradigm has placed emphasis on the integration of systems at the board, senior, operational, and grassroots levels. It deals with devising and putting into place mechanisms for regulating the not-so-sincere individuals as well as synchronizing control systems with self-regulation. It may be approached in two ways: traditionally and modernly.

The Separate and Concurrent Methods

The only thing under consideration is how leaders manage systems and individuals that lack sincerity. On the other hand, a dual emphasis is beginning to take into account the need of promoting and strengthening self-control inside businesses. It does not follow that there is "no control" just because no one is "in control." Actually, control mechanisms are present in any functioning organization. They are dispersed processes, however, and are not centered on a single autocratic decision-maker. If the immune system had to wait before producing antibodies to combat an infection, we can only speculate about the consequences.

CONCLUSION

Organizational governance and performance management depend heavily on both more complex control procedures and management control systems, notwithstanding their distinctions. A systematic framework for coordinating actions with strategic goals, guaranteeing responsibility, and promoting performance improvement is offered by management control systems.

They are especially useful in big, intricate companies with plenty of resources and a variety of activities. Conversely, more simple control procedures provide cost-effectiveness, responsiveness, and agility; hence, they are ideal for smaller businesses and dynamic settings where established structures may not be required or feasible. To sum up, different strategies for controlling and guiding organizational operations are represented by management control systems and more straightforward control procedures. While management control systems provide extensive frameworks for strategy alignment and performance management, more straightforward control procedures prioritize simplicity, flexibility, and adaptability. The decision between these strategies is influenced by a number of variables, such as organizational size, complexity, resource accessibility, and strategic goals. Through a comprehensive comprehension of the attributes, functions, and trade-offs linked with each methodology, entities may proficiently devise and execute control mechanisms that optimally align with their requirements and situations.

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CHAPTER 3

NEW PARADIGM OF DUAL FOCUS IN CONTROL SYSTEMS

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ABSTRACT:

The landscape of organizational control systems has witnessed a transformative shift towards a new paradigm characterized by dual focus. Traditionally, control systems have predominantly emphasized stability, aiming to ensure adherence to established processes and procedures. However, contemporary challenges such as rapid technological advancements, market volatility, and increasing competition necessitate a reevaluation of traditional approaches. The emergence of the dual focus paradigm recognizes the importance of balancing stability with adaptability, enabling organizations to navigate uncertainties while maintaining strategic alignment and operational efficiency. This paper provides an in-depth exploration of the new paradigm of dual focus in control systems, examining its conceptual underpinnings, key components, implications, and practical applications.

The dual focus paradigm represents a departure from the conventional view of control systems as mechanisms solely focused on enforcing compliance and minimizing deviations. Instead, it acknowledges the dynamic nature of contemporary business environments and the need for organizations to embrace change proactively. At its core, the dual focus paradigm emphasizes two complementary objectives: stability and adaptability. While stability ensures consistency, predictability, and control over organizational processes, adaptability fosters agility, innovation, and responsiveness to external disruptions and opportunities.

KEYWORDS:

Flexibility, Governance, Information Technology, Innovation, Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), Leadership.

INTRODUCTION

The revised paradigm is supported by belief systems, which are the generally accepted organizational ethics, and interactive systems of control, which maintain constant, usually informal communication between the grassroots and higher levels of an organization. These systems, according to Harvard's Robert Simons, support the single focus paradigm by monitoring performance against targets and boundary systems of control that punish prohibited behavior. In organizations, both mindsets coexist [1], [2].

The Fourth Framework

Simons assumes in a very heroic way that people desire to participate, accomplish, create, and perform professionally even in the absence of clear external incentives. However, systems designers for controls must ensure that there are no organizational barriers that would lead people to believe otherwise. Without a tyrannical boss to impose orders and compel employees to work for the business, humans are perfectly capable of creating and executing adaptive control mechanisms on their own via mutual consultation. As the 2002 recipient of the Noble Prize in Economics, Vernon Smith refers to it as "the ecological rationality arising from the social mind."

The Four Control Levers

In a firm, there are systems in place to guarantee that four things happen. People who claim that the firm "is on track" repeat it often. How are they aware of that? What systems are in place to help the firm, its employees, and its operations remain on course? A corporation that is expanding quickly in a constantly changing environment concentrates on using the four levers of control as defined by R. Simons of the Harvard Business School as effectively as possible.

The four levers of control are shown in the following graphic, which also provides a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics of controlling strategy: Robert Simons presented the four levers of control framework in his book "Levers of control: How Managers use Innovative Control Systems to Drive Strategic Renewal," which provided managers in major corporations with a framework for handling the conflict between creation and control.

Four control levers

The first of the four control levers is

1. Core values
2. Hazards to Avert
3. Inconsistencies in Strategy
4. Important Performance Elements.

As far as I can tell, we are working with four sets of systems, or the four levers, which combine to keep the company plan on course. I understand some of the terminology, but could you perhaps provide some real-world examples so I can better understand what our company's Four Levels of Control entail?

Interactive Music Industry Systems

The former music corporation HMV was constantly hindered by the contradictory coexistence of stock outs and product obsolescence. The rapid shifts in popular preferences were the main source of the issue. As a result, the company's strategic plans quickly become outdated. Reducing the length of the manufacturing and distribution process was just half of the solution. The main factor was that senior planners had to maintain interactive control over dealers, sales staff, and other forums to ensure that the items were designed correctly from the start. However, astute management would be able to distinguish between the domains and regions where this kind of engagement is crucial and those where merely diagnostic systems should be used. Under such a method, operational levels would immediately modify their tactics. Simons outlines the many effects of this strategy across several sectors. The most innovative of these relate to the surgical instrument and pharmaceutical industries. He cites Johnson and Johnson, the pharmaceutical behemoth, as an example of how they regularly review their operating levels and budgets to stay abreast of market trends and make the necessary strategic adjustments. Comparably, at Xerox, the chief planner, Raghunathan Sachdev, also referred to as Sach, is in regular phone touch with branches throughout the globe, and communication rather than formal reports—is the key to their efficient management. He served as the focal point of the interactive control system, which enhanced the standard diagnostic tools [3], [4].

Keeping the Four Control Levers in Balance

Keeping the four levers of control in balance is necessary for successful plan implementation. The simultaneous balancing of strategy as a plan, pattern, location, and viewpoint is made

possible by this equilibrium. The degree to which a given control lever is used, or the best combination of levers to use, depends heavily on the circumstances and context. For an industry producing standard products, such as military establishment supplies, diagnostic systems would thus be helpful in most cases. However, an interactive system is necessary in the fashion sector. Belief systems may play a crucial role in the advertising, IT, research and development, and entertainment industries. If the danger and expense of going beyond the bounds of appropriate behavior are too great, boundary systems could be crucial. The combination is also influenced by the organization's cultural background and organizational structure. Businesses often need a sensible and economical combination of all the systems [5], [6].

Resolving Conflicts in Control Systems

Up until now, projections about the use of control systems in organizational success have been very optimistic. However, this level of hope is not always warranted by the route to operationalize control systems. There are several conflicts of interest and decisions that must be resolved in order to deploy control systems. Given the difficulties inside today's management control systems, we shall address these issues presently and provide solutions. It really is like walking on a razor's edge, according to the Katho Upanishad, an Indian philosophical text.

There are situations where profit, growth, and controls are in conflict with one another, and it is important to carefully balance all three. This calls for judgment. In the image above, these three are symbolized as a pyramid's three sides. For several businesses, increasing market share and growth represent the pinnacle of their control systems. Prominent advertising and unusually cheap prices—which may even be less than variable costs—can spur growth. All of the organization's reporting systems are set up to track growth and automatically shift toward profitability following sustainability. According to Simons, organizations are about to enter a new phase where controls will take center stage. He answered, "This is backwards. First, organizations need to develop a control infrastructure. Management may exert strong pressure on employees to increase earnings after the infrastructure is in place, since the controls serve as a safety net. When a firm starts turning a profit, it need to encourage employees to expand it. "I find it astounding how many businesses overlook this fundamental step," he said. As an example, Amir Khan Bankruptcy does not always follow creativity and audacity. Amir Khan, a well-known actor in India, used more caution. His business endeavors were well planned, and despite their aspirations for remarkable success and expansion, they were able to retain strong controls even in an unpredictable setting. He was able to combine the team's collective freedom with his own central authority. He therefore serves as an example of how to successfully combine the methods to management of profit and growth, dual focus, and single focus [7], [8].

Acknowledging the Discord

Only by measuring the turbulence inside the company and certain early warning indicators can the balance between profit, growth, and control be achieved. To reestablish the equilibrium, some fine tuning would be necessary. The signals might be either qualitative or quantitative.

Long-Term and Short-Term Conflicts

One common characteristic of contemporary enterprises is the gestation time that elapses between the ideation and complete execution of a product or service. Second, many items have significant rates of obsolescence. Their product life cycles are consequently characterized by strong growth and high early profits from relatively smaller quantities, which are followed by greater volumes with higher overall profits but lower individual profit margins, which are

followed by a period of diminishing profitability. The construct, hold, and harvest stages of the product life cycle are referred to as this cycle. The departments and groups participating in the phases of product design, launch, and manufacturing would also vary in a parallel fashion. Each of these stages of the product life cycle and each of the functional departments would have a separate time horizon and control system. Short-term goal performance assessment techniques are more straightforward and may be heavily influenced by financial outcomes. Financial predictions are also a necessary component of long-term projections; yet, assessing and tracking current performance in light of future advantages is a highly unpredictable and challenging undertaking. Accepting a proxy is required, even if it could only be the second or third best option since it will probably be simpler to manage [9], [10].

DISCUSSION

Young IT experts with a high level of intelligence work at Smart Information Services. They have a plan in place to compensate executives based on the amount of money they bring in for the business. Typically, positions are assigned to executives based on their unique preferences and personalities. Lara was selected to work on projects that required customizing programs to meet the demands of customers. This was a simple and lucrative profession. On the other side, Rohan made the decision to embark on creating autonomous programs for a vast network of financial operations. The final product would need a significant amount of time, since this was a complex and unique project. They need continuous testing and a large number of issues to be fixed. Over the last several years, Lara has received a percentage of the substantial earnings that her initiatives have earned each year. Disappointed, Rohan quit the firm to work for Creative Services Ltd., which was more focused on long-term success. Within a year, he had a fantastic concept that was hard for rivals to copy. For the following 10 years, Creative Services, a software design company, was guaranteed a dominant position and became unbeatable. In the end, Smart lost the race. Creative Services thought that without immediate financial gain, its leaders might find motivation on their own. It's possible that they are born with an innate drive to create and grow. Thus, there's no need to press them. A sensible management control system would acknowledge it and use it to the greater benefit [11], [12].

The Idea of Objective Congruence

Goal congruence is the agreement or consistency of an organization's activities with its objectives. It denotes the management tenet that every subsidiary aim of an organization must align with the primary set of goals in order to be accomplished.

Integrating objectives and efficacy in team development

The degree of goal integration is the extent to which people and groups believe that the achievement of organizational objectives satisfies their own goals. Goal congruence is a concept that may be used when everyone in the company shares the same aims. We can split an organization into two groups management and subordinates to demonstrate this idea. The following diagram shows the objectives of these two groups and how those objectives are met in relation to the organization to which they belong. In this case, the organization's aims and management's goals are not precisely the same, but they are relatively similar. However, the objectives of the organization and the subordinates are almost incompatible.

A compromise arises from the interplay between the objectives of subordinates and management, and actual performance is a blend of the two. This is the approximate moment at which the organization's degree of objective accomplishment may be seen. When organizational objectives are not being met, as this diagram illustrates, the issue may get much

worse. The organization's welfare seems to be mostly disregarded in this case. Managers and employees see a contradiction between their own objectives and those of the company.

As a result, there will likely be little organizational achievement and poor morale and performance. Sometimes the objectives of the organization might be so diametrically opposed that no constructive progress is made. Significant losses or the depletion of assets are often the outcome. Indeed, these same causes account for the daily closure of organizations. An organization's goal is to foster an environment where one of two things may happen. Individuals inside the organization either believe that their aims are the same as the organization's goals or, despite their differences, believe that working toward the organization's goals would directly lead to the achievement of their own goals.

Thus, as the accompanying Diagram shows, organizational performance will increase in proportion to the degree to which individual aims and objectives align with those of the organization. Building loyalty among their followers and among themselves is one way that good leaders close the gap between the goals of the individual and the organization. They do this by acting as a powerful spokesman for subordinates in upper management. These leaders are adept at explaining the objectives of the organization to their followers, and followers have no trouble connecting the achievement of these goals with the fulfillment of their own needs.

The core of the control systems issue is the following three causes of conflict. The problems stem directly from our philosophical view that each individual is entitled to the freedom to live the life they choose. Secondly, trying to control someone else's way of thinking is wrong. The majority of accomplishments result from individuals working together. It is important to respect the objectives and values of many groups of stakeholders within a business. We have to work to locate and operate in places where our aims are congruent. Then, in order to maintain control over the organization, it would function based on the overlapping belief systems of its many parts. Boundary systems may sometimes be necessary to discipline the components. The harmony between the two foci of control and coordination is articulated in this integration of belief systems and boundary systems. Three groups of stakeholders that companies often deal with

Disagreement between Stakeholders

A number of stakeholder groups collaborate with one another to support the organization's success. In contrast to shareholders, stakeholders are often seen as a cohesive group. Stakeholders may really have intense conflicts that rival those of shareholders, if not more. One way to define stakeholders is as those with an interest in the way an organization operates. They will consist of the general public, lenders, suppliers, consumers, workers, managers, and government authorities. However, collaborating also always leads to a collision of perspectives when accepting risks and a conflict of interests between them. All of this will need to be taken into account by control systems. Some have said that the main goal of any control system should be to maximize the wealth of shareholders and that control systems should have a basic philosophy. They further contend that other stakeholders will inevitably gain if the wealth of shareholders is maximized.

An institution that is not a bank

A non-bank financial institution, with a 12% stake in its assets, solicited deposits from individuals by offering substantial interest yields. The fact that the company was making riskier investments was unknown to the depositors. When they learned about it, they convened a conference of the debt trustees, who agreed to accept reduced interest rates in exchange for refraining from taking on hazardous endeavors. This negotiating role will be carried out by

trustees, as established by the Indian Companies Act, 1956. These open and honest working practices are the exception, not the norm. It is also important to remember that the shareholders themselves have a flexible contract with the company, and they are free to sell their shares to third parties at any time in an attempt to leave a company that does not suit their risk-reward profile or that they find objectionable. As a result, in this instance, the shareholders may have made investments in businesses that individually appealed to them. They would have benefited if the enterprise had been profitable; but, if it had suffered losses, the depositors would have borne the loss. Therefore, maintaining a balance between the interests of many stakeholders is a constant process that may and often does lead to conflicts in control systems. Dual foci of controls would provide a whistleblower under these circumstances, one who would reveal the facts and assist in settling the dispute.

Employee Motivation's Complexities

All companies need highly motivated workers in order for them to perform to the best of their abilities and collaborate as a team to meet organizational objectives. Because individuals have distinct personalities and are driven by various things, employee motivation is complicated. In other words, a manager must acknowledge the intricacy of employee motivation if they want to inspire their staff. According to organizational theorists, most workers are primarily motivated by money at work. But after the Hawthorne experiment, it was shown that employee motivation is also influenced by certain group dynamics as well as social and professional aspects. However, each employee's level of the aforementioned criteria differed. That is to say, whereas some people are more driven by money, others are more driven by group dynamics, social pressures, and recognition at work. Additionally, even with the same personnel profile, it varies from one business to the next due to differences in organizational culture, work characteristics, decision-making procedures, and incentive equality.

The conversation above demonstrates the intricacy of employee motivation at work as well as the variables influencing it. In order to successfully inspire workers to accomplish organizational objectives, managers must be conscious that employee motivation theories are only guidelines and must rely on their own knowledge and observations, taking into account the specifics of their organization's internal and external environments. They must also perform in-depth investigation and observation of the idea that workers are driven only by financial gain. This is because of the complexity of the jobs that people do in today's organizations, the dispersion of skills, and the interdependence of the activities. In other words, they might be inspired by the range of jobs they do, the work itself, or the opportunity to participate in decision-making. Additionally, when changes are done in the business, the workers' motivation is impacted by the management's inclination to ignore their concerns.

Every control system has to make assumptions about the motivations of managers. This obviously involves a great deal of subjective assessment. However, managers that operate on the neoclassical economists' premise that every individual is a rational economic maximizer would undoubtedly fall short when it comes to creating control systems. Second, there could be notable cultural distinctions between various ethnic groups and organizations. Last but not least, each organization's past leaves an imprint on its workforce, and what functions well in one may not in another. Economist Vernon Smith believed that if given considerable autonomy, social organizations would develop ecological rationality patterns on their own, which would wisely coexist, support, and enhance economic rationality.

The Pragmati coal mine's administration used a manual coal-cutting and coal-loading method, with workers being paid according to the quantity of full tubs they filled. There was obvious economic logic to this arrangement. The coal miners were used to working in groups in

agricultural areas and were all from the same village. They discovered that dividing up their job into groups—some working on only cutting, some just loading, others pushing tubs, and still others emptying water from the site—would increase total productivity and profitability under the management-introduced approach. A short while later, the management implemented mechanized mining, requiring several workers to operate, maintain, and move the massive machinery. The miners divided their profits among themselves after negotiating performance-related rates as a collective incentive payment. Among Indian mines, Pragmati has one of the highest production levels. As a result, the miners used their ingrained cultural customs to aid themselves and the firm without the management making a conscious or intentional effort to punish them. This is a powerful example of control's dual emphasis.

Politics and Interdepartmental Disagreements in Control Systems

Finally, various companies demand different kinds of knowledge and abilities, and they could need to work in task groups, departments, teams, or segments. Their accomplishments cannot be measured in the same manner. Regionalization of operations is also necessary due to the geographic dispersion of companies. This leads to disputes between various factions unavoidably. In the majority of big businesses, this is a significant control issue that leads to politics around control systems. The fragmentation of activities and skill groups in contemporary complex organizations may, on the other hand, turn one group against another if social groupings may learn to be constructive of one another and imaginatively self-control their actions. Control system designers will need to manage this fact and come up with strategies to deal with it.

One of the first automated mines in India was the Adithya iron ore mine. However, this resulted in a special issue that called for close collaboration between the geologists who allowed the mining patches to be carefully selected to enhance their quality, the mechanical engineers who maintained the machinery, and the mining engineers who carried out the mining. It was tried to use precise measuring methods to show how well each of these groups performed. However, it was thought to be only a portion of the answer.

In addition to using financial incentives, the persistent efforts at persuasion to gain cooperation also made use of appeals to self-worth. Mutual accusations were the sole outcome of the regular cost reports, which identified each department's performance and quantified it with financial figures. At a certain point in time, providing Japan with the highest grade ore became an issue of national pride. Their quest for self-worth motivated them to band together and complete what seemed like an insurmountable undertaking.

Range of Authority

The phrase "Span of Control" has its roots in military organization theory, although it is now more often associated with corporate management, specifically with human resource management. The term "Span of Control" describes how many subordinates a supervisor has. In the previous hierarchical corporate organizations, average spans of 1 to 10 or even fewer were typical. In other words, an average manager oversaw 10 workers. Corporate executives leveled many organizational structures in the 1980s, which brought typical spans closer to 1 to 100. That was mainly made feasible by the development of low-cost information technology. Upper managers discovered they could employ fewer middle managers to perform more work managing more subordinates for less money as information technology advanced and became capable of simplifying many middle manager activities, such as gathering, manipulating, and presenting operational information.

The idea of breadth of control is less important now that self-directed cross-functional teams and other non-hierarchical organizational models are the norm. The notion that a limited span of control gives managers more time to assist and motivate their employees is a drawback of the span of control idea. Any control system would need to be designed to recognize and seize organizational possibilities. Regretfully, managers have so little time and ability that it is almost difficult for them to take advantage of every chance in a professional manner. Robert Simons addresses this conundrum by proposing an all-encompassing theory in which managers are motivated by restricted, as opposed to absolute, rationality. The practical fact that information was too large and complicated to be provided to the operational executive at the touch of a button informed Simon's thoughts. However, they are forced to make judgments based on the little facts at their disposal. As such, their choices are referred to as "bounded rationalities." Since knowledge is never complete, absolute rationality can never be realistically attained. One way to approach this idea is by using the notion of "Return on Management."

CONCLUSION

The idea of ambidexterity, which describes an organization's capacity to simultaneously take use of current capabilities and investigate new ones, is essential to the dual focus paradigm. Exploration and exploitation operations are skillfully balanced by ambidextrous firms, which use their core skills to experiment with new tactics, tools, and business models. This dual purpose is supported by control systems in ambidextrous organizations, which provide mechanisms for stability and adaptation across different organizational functions and levels. The dual focus paradigm comprises crucial elements such as adaptable decision-making processes, real-time feedback mechanisms, dynamic performance assessment systems, and flexible governance structures. Flexible governance frameworks encourage a culture of responsibility, creativity, and continual development by enabling staff members to act independently within predetermined parameters. Systems for measuring dynamic performance provide equal emphasis on long-term strategic goals and short-term operational measures. This allows businesses to assess performance holistically and modify their plans as necessary.

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CHAPTER 4

TRADITIONAL INSTRUMENTS OF CONTROL IN ORGANISATIONS: AUDITING

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ABSTRACT:

Auditing stands as one of the cornerstone traditional instruments of control within organizational governance structures, playing a vital role in ensuring accountability, transparency, and compliance with established standards and regulations. This paper delves into the multifaceted nature of auditing within organizations, examining its historical evolution, key principles, methodologies, and contemporary challenges. Through a comprehensive analysis, this study aims to provide insights into the significance of auditing as a control mechanism and its impact on organizational performance, risk management, and stakeholder trust. Historically, auditing traces its origins to ancient civilizations, where it served primarily as a means of verifying financial transactions and safeguarding assets. Over time, auditing evolved into a systematic process of examining and evaluating organizational records, practices, and procedures to provide assurance on the reliability and integrity of financial reporting. Today, auditing encompasses a broader scope, encompassing not only financial audits but also operational, compliance, and internal control audits, reflecting the growing complexity and diversity of organizational activities.

KEYWORDS:

Performance Evaluation, Planning, Process Improvement, Quality Control, Resource Allocation, Risk Management.

INTRODUCTION

It may be helpful to utilize the traditional business ratios for gauging success, such as return on equity, return on assets, and return on sales. However, none are made expressly to show how well a business executes its plan. A new ratio called return on management measures the value of a company's most valuable resource, the time and effort of its managers. In contrast to other business ratios, ROM is not a precise percentage but rather an approximate approximation. Nevertheless, it is represented, like other commercial ratios, by an equation where a low denominator and a high numerator optimize the output: Managers may compute an approximate measure for this equation with the assistance of organizational characteristics that either increase or work against an organization's productive energy. Professor Robert Simons of the Harvard Business School and PhD candidate Antonio Davila of HBS provide managers with five "acid tests" to gauge their organization's return on investment [1], [2].

Important Controllable Factors

Neo-classical economists have as one of their goals for the various departments, sectors, or regions to function as independent organizations. This perspective holds that market mechanisms evaluated and rewarded each one based on their earnings. This will benefit the corporation as a whole and maybe society as well. The difficulties of fully following this control method has been recognized by economists who are closer to the management sciences or by those who really practice management. Therefore, how do we calculate the earnings associated with the human resources, training, public relations, research and development, and other departments? Typically, these functions need discretionary spending. They are distinct

from the designed cost-governed manufacturing functions. It might be challenging to quantify the results for discretionary purchases. Second, measuring the relationship between inputs and outcomes is similarly challenging. It is possible to depict the idea of loosely-coupled systems and the important control variables to assess the different departments. Research and development: new ideas with the potential to be profitable; how long it takes to turn an idea into a marketable product; and how much an invention costs in relation to appropriate benchmarks. Maintaining and growing positive relationships with vendors, maintaining the manufacturing line full and preventing stock outs, keeping buy costs affordable, and creating backup supply sources that can be called upon when needed. Maintenance Department: Reduce equipment downtime by creating a training program for preventative maintenance. Training Department: Accurately determining the workers' training requirements and creating affordable solutions. Although it is an organic connection, it should function similarly in biological systems as well as big organizations. A system that is loosely linked is comparable to a train with carriages connected by connections that may flex and bend as the train curves. The train as a whole would collapse if it were firmly connected [3], [4].

These organizational control variables for each subunit must unquestionably align with the organization's overarching goal, which is often profit. However, there is no way to quantify performance in this way automatically.

The organization as a whole must be aware of how the success of the subunits will benefit it overall. This is the fundamental idea behind the belief systems that balance the dual attention method.

Important Success Factors

Important control variables are used to assess various organizational divisions. The idea of a critical success variable makes the assumption that every department inside an organization keeps an eye out for anything that might have an impact on its health. Even though the department may not have any influence over these factors, success depends on how these factors are addressed. The primary success variables are influenced by five elements.

Features of the Industry

In the hotel and airline industries, fixed costs are often far higher than variable costs, with occupancy serving as a key success criterion. In the consulting and contracting industries, on the other hand, timely delivery is a crucial success component.

Rivalry tactics

One has two options: either provide a premium product where quality or uniqueness would be the main differentiator, or offer a standard product that offers an acceptable-quality product at a fair price. Michael Porter, a Harvard professor, is credited with this line of reasoning [5], [6].

Environmental factors

These are essential in sectors of the economy that damage the environment by depleting resources that are difficult to replenish or by causing pollution. In a few other industries, such as the chemical, paper, and petroleum refineries, this would be a crucial success factor. Certain sectors prioritize sustainable growth and ethical treatment of the environment. Currently, this is a global movement. Regulators and activist organizations are forcing the liquidation of certain, disrespected sectors. The Mangalore Power Company, a US-based company, had to abruptly shut its doors because demonstrators viciously attacked its staff.

Important Issues

Certain businesses have particular challenges, such as the banking and finance sectors, which have particular difficulties determining the creditworthiness of potential borrowers. The publishing sector, as well as the music, fashion, and film industries, must consider the unstable nature of popular taste.

Functional Problems

Interest rates are a concern for treasurers and financial executives, and production departments need to be aware of quality standards in relation to their output.

Assigning

Giving someone else the power and obligation to do certain tasks is known as delegation. Nonetheless, the person who assigned the task is still accountable for its completion. It transfers decision-making power from one organizational level to another, enabling a subordinate to make choices. Done correctly, delegation is not the same as abdication. Micromanagement is the antithesis of good delegation, in which a manager oversees, directs, and reviews assigned work excessively [7], [8].

Dispersion

The practice of distributing decision-making authority closer to the populace or citizenry is known as decentralization. In domains or fields including engineering, management science, political science, political economy, sociology, and economics, it encompasses the distribution of administration or governance. The distribution of the workforce and population may also be decentralized. Technological, scientific, and legal developments result in highly dispersed human endeavors. The distinction between hierarchies based on the following is a key concept in decentralization: Authority: two parties in an unequal power relationship; and A lateral connection between two players with nearly equal strength is called an interface. A system may depend less on command and force and more on lateral linkages the more decentralized it is. Decentralization is restricted to the study of markets and system interfaces in most fields of engineering and economics. The most advanced versions of this are found in neoclassical political economics and general systems theory.

Decentralization and Delegation

The degree of decentralization and delegation would rely on a variety of intricate factors, such as the transaction costs of information transfer and decision-making delays, the transaction benefits of more efficient resource use in centralization, obstacles to information sharing in decentralization, and so forth. Much is dependent on the attitude, customs, and culture of the workforce.

Systems of Mutual Support in Management and the Contingency Model

The mutual support of several systems, mostly formal and informal ones, culminates in the successful functioning of control systems. They do, however, describe the mutually supporting systems in a fairly discursive manner. The Mackenzie framework of the Seven Ss—strategy, structure, system, style, staffing, skills, and shared values—offers a more direct intellectual basis for the idea. The graphic below illustrates how they are related to one another:

Mackenzie's Seven Ss framework

The seven components listed above make up the organization, which is more than simply the structure. There are two categories for these: Hard and Soft. Green elements are hard; they are

doable and simple to recognize. They are included in organizational structures, corporate plans, organizational strategies, and other documents. Defining the soft aspects is challenging. They are a little ethereal. Planning for or influencing these factors is thus more challenging? All seven of these components must fit for an organization to be considered effective.

Therefore, if one component changes, it will impact every other component. Changes to HR systems, such as internal career planning and management training, for instance, will alter organizational culture, which in turn will affect the organization's structures, procedures, and, ultimately, its distinctive competencies. Any organizational transformation process places greater emphasis on the hard S's and often ignores the soft S's. This is a poor course of action. It is challenging to construct new tactics and structures on top of unsuitable cultures and values. Conflicts over values, styles, and cultures lead to many M&A failures. Therefore, the 7S model is a useful instrument for starting an organizational transformation process. Examining the existing condition of these seven components inside the company and contrasting it with the ideal situation is advised. Next, create, arrange, and carry them out [9], [10].

DISCUSSION

An audit is the review of a company's accounting records. Checking whether the books of accounts accurately and completely represent the transactions they claim to relate to is the goal of auditing. Auditing, then, is the process of examining a company's books of accounts to verify their accuracy and the accuracy of the income statements derived from them. Montgomery defines auditing as "a systematic examination of a business's or other organization's books and records, with the goal of ascertaining or verifying to report upon the facts regarding its financial operations and the result thereof. There are three main areas to consider while discussing the goals of auditing. They are as follows:

1. Principal goals
2. Secondary goals
3. Certain goals.

Verifying the accuracy of the books of accounts is the main goal. This is to see whether they accurately portray the current state of things for the company. As a consequence, the main goals are to ascertain if the financial statements accurately and impartially depict the status of an organization's finances and operational performance.

The secondary goal is to check for account misrepresentation as well as to identify and prevent fraud and mistakes. A specific goal is determined based on the audit's subject matter and character. For instance, the specific goal of a management audit is to identify areas of weakness and enhance the managerial functions' operational efficiency.

Internal Management

Internal control is the term used to describe the full system of checks and balances that the management uses to ensure that all transactions are carried out in an efficient and orderly manner. It is equipped with internal audit, internal check, and other control mechanisms. The management is reassured by the internal control system that the data it gets is correct and dependable. Additionally, it guarantees that management rules are appropriately implemented and that assets are safe. The system of internal control not only assures management of the accuracy of financial information, but it also helps independent auditors choose when, how, and how much to audit.

Internal Control Definition

Internal control is "the plan of organization and all the coordinate methods and measures adopted within a business to safeguard its assets, check the accuracy and reliability of its accounting data, promote operational efficiency, and encourage adherence to prescribed managerial policies," according to the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants. An internal control system covers more ground than only those that are directly related to the finance and accounting departments' operations. "Internal Control means not only internal check or internal audit, but the whole system of control, financial and otherwise, established by the management in order to carry out the business of the company in an orderly manner, safeguard its assets, and secure as far as possible accuracy and reliability of its records," states The Institute of Chartered Accountants of England and Wales. It is evident from the two definitions given above that internal control is a general phrase with a broad scope of application. It consists of many techniques and policies used by management to guarantee the efficient and profitable operation of the company. It supports management in carrying out a number of tasks. Internal control helps the external audit by providing reassurance to the auditors that the data they receive is correct and trustworthy [11], [12].

Internal Audit and Internal Control Different

The following is a list of the distinctions between internal audit and internal control:

1. An internal examination. It is an evaluation activity that is performed by specifically appointed staff members within an organization to evaluate the records and operations in order to support management.
2. Control inside. Internal control refers to the entire system of financial and nonfinancial controls put in place by management to ensure that a business is run in an orderly manner, protects its assets, and upholds the accuracy and dependability of its operations and records. This includes internal audits and checks. It is evident from this that internal control is all-inclusive and comprises internal auditing and checking as well.

Internal Control Types

According to the definition provided by The American Institute of Certified Public Accountants, internal control encompasses both accounting and administrative controls in addition to the organization's accounting operations. Accounting controls include those that pertain to the accounting system, such as ensuring that transactions follow established protocols and protecting system assets.

Essentials of Effective Internal Control

1. For an accounting system to function, it must be correctly built. Accounting and financial processes need to be kept separate. It is essential that distinct individuals be assigned the duty of managing currency and documenting its movements.
2. It is crucial to have an organization structure that is well-designed. In order to eliminate any possibility of misunderstanding or uncertainty, responsibility for the completion of the task must be expressed explicitly. One person shouldn't have too much faith in herself. The majority of scams are carried out by "trusted" authorities or workers.
3. The rigid guiding concept should be the rotation principle when it comes to moving an employee from one position to another. This is seen as a crucial tenet of good organization and serves as an efficient deterrent to cooperation.

4. It is possible to automate tasks wherever feasible. It is time to add mechanical equipment like cash registers, time clocks with recording capabilities, calculators, etc.
5. The job should be organized such that a different, independent employee may quickly review the work completed by one person. Such ongoing oversight promotes moral control and ensures that mistakes and frauds are caught in the act.
6. Each employee's job should be documented in writing, and it should be clearly stated when it is transferred between hands.
7. When it comes to handling money, placing orders, receiving and distributing items, and other related matters, precise guidelines should be established and adhered to in practice. Written instructions in the form of accounting manuals are required.
8. Workers must be on bond to safeguard the company and discourage tempting employees from committing fraud.
9. The presence of a proficient internal auditing team is a crucial component of a successful internal control system, even if it cannot replace protective financial internal control.

The Auditor and Internal Control

Prior to beginning the audit, the auditor needs to examine the internal control system for the following reasons:

1. To assess any potential systemic vulnerabilities.
2. To take into account the likelihood of performing test checks when conducting the audit.
3. Determine the precise amount of work that has to be done in order for the auditor to provide his opinion on the provided set of accounts based on the first two factors.

To determine whether or not what was written on paper also exists in reality, the system's performance should be evaluated in real-world settings. The benefits of having an appropriate and efficient internal control system are as follows:

- a. Shortens the time needed to complete the audit.
- b. Lowers the expense of carrying out audits
- c. Provides the auditor with reassurance about the accuracy of the financial data.

In order to examine the internal control system, information on every facet of the firm may be gathered orally or via the use of a questionnaire. The specifics of internal control as it is implemented should be included in a written statement that the auditor requests. A strong internal control reduces an auditor's workload considerably, but it does not lessen his obligation. The auditor's reliance on the system will vary depending on the specifics of each case, and the effectiveness of the audit will be determined by the auditor's competence, tact, experience, and—above all—their ability to make sound judgment calls.

Methods for Assessing Internal Control Systems

Internal controls may be evaluated using four different methods. These are the following: Oral approach. We have an oral conversation to pinpoint our advantages and disadvantages. Memorandum methodology. During the conversations that regulate the examination of internal controls, complete notes are taken. We analyze our shortcomings and provide recommendations for improvement via a letter to management.

Questionnaire for internal control. Every aspect of business is covered by a query on an ICQ. There are close-ended questions in the questionnaire. A flow chart is a visual depiction of an operational system. It is the different procedures, controls, and actions that are represented graphically in a system. A flow chart offers a clear, succinct, and all-encompassing picture of what goes on within the company. It provides information on the kind of papers or information that are raised, how they are handled, how money and things are circulated, and what steps are performed. Every company activity's flow chart is examined, and internal controls are assessed.

Both external and internal auditing

Staff members designated for this task conduct an ongoing assessment of a company concern's operations as part of an internal audit. It functions separately from the organization's internal check system. Internal auditing is an independent appraisal activity within an organization for the review of operations as a service to management," according to the American Institute of Internal Auditors. It is a management control that works by assessing how well other controls are working.

Internal Audit's Purview

The scope of internal audit is described by the Institute of Internal Auditors, USA, as follows: "It entails examination and evaluation of the organization's internal control system's sufficiency and effectiveness as well as the quality of performance in carrying out assigned responsibilities."

Internal Audit's Significance

Internal auditors often assess their operations by concentrating on the following areas:

1. Information integrity and dependability.
2. Adherence to laws, rules, plans, programs, and procedures.
3. Protection of resources.
4. Resource use that is economical and effective.
5. The accomplishment of set goals and objectives for programs or operations.

From the above, it is clear that the idea of internal audit encompasses not only the customary duties of an organization but also new and contemporary domains like evaluating the economical and effective use of resources and monitoring organizational performance.

Various Audit Types

Within a company, auditing is a multifaceted, intricate process that serves a number of functions. Therefore, we may divide audits into three main types according to the purpose and conditions.

1. Classification based on Organizational structure is the first on the list.
2. Categorization according to the duration and extent of the audit process.
3. Categorization according to the particular goal of the audit.

CONCLUSION

The fundamental tenets of auditing include due care, professionalism, independence, impartiality, and integrity. It is required of auditors to be neutral and abstain from conflicts of

interest in order to ensure that their evaluations are free from prejudice or improper influence. In addition, auditors must follow ethical and professional norms while working with thoroughness and professional skepticism. These guiding concepts improve the validity of audit findings and recommendations by providing the framework for building credibility and confidence in the auditing process. Depending on the audit's goals and nature, several methodologies are used. In order to determine whether financial statements, accounting records, and internal controls comply with statutory requirements and accounting standards, financial audits usually include these examinations. Operational audits are centered on assessing the economy, efficacy, and efficiency of organizational operations in order to identify areas in need of improvement and financial savings. Compliance audits verify that legal and regulatory requirements are fulfilled by evaluating compliance with laws, rules, and corporate policies.

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CHAPTER 5

TYPES OF AUDITS BASED ON ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

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ABSTRACT:

Auditing, as a fundamental element of organizational governance, is adapted and structured according to the unique characteristics and complexities of different organizational structures. This paper provides a comprehensive examination of the various types of audits based on organizational structure, encompassing hierarchical, matrix, network, and hybrid structures. Through an in-depth analysis, this study aims to elucidate the distinctive features, challenges, and implications of each type of audit, shedding light on their role in enhancing transparency, accountability, and performance within organizations. Hierarchical organizations, characterized by a clear chain of command and authority, typically employ traditional audit approaches focused on vertical accountability and control. Financial audits are prevalent in hierarchical structures, aiming to ensure compliance with accounting standards, regulatory requirements, and internal controls. These audits scrutinize financial statements, accounting records, and transactional data to provide assurance on the accuracy, reliability, and integrity of financial reporting. Internal audits complement financial audits by evaluating the effectiveness of internal controls, risk management processes, and governance mechanisms.

KEYWORDS:

Strategic Alignment, Sustainability, Transparency, Accountability, Audit.

INTRODUCTION

In this case, the organization type determines the categorization. In other words, an organization may be privately or publicly held, it can take the shape of a corporation or a cooperative. This organization's character also affects the need and requirements for audits.

Mandatory Examination

All organizations that are created, registered, and subject to statutes are required to conduct this audit. An experienced external auditor does it. According to legislation, it is required for the following organizations: Companies Act of 1956-incorporated joint stock companies: Due to the separation of ownership and control in this joint stock company, the law mandates that an external auditor verify the firm's records and examine its business operations. Because of this, the financial data is trustworthy, attracting investors to these kinds of businesses. Under the Cooperatives Societies Act, cooperative societies that are registered are: The Cooperative Societies Act of 1912 governs the registration of these societies. Although all members contribute funds, only a small number of elected members oversee the society's operations. This means that an outside, competent auditor must audit the society's financial statements. The audit is carried out by this auditor, who also provides the report for review and reference to the registrar and the relevant members [1], [2].

1. Banking Companies that are subject to the 1949 Banking Companies Act.
2. Insurance companies subject to the 1938 Insurance Act.
3. Under the numerous Religious and other Endowment Acts, public and charitable trusts are registered.
4. Local Authorities and government projects created by certain laws.

Process of Management Auditing

The actions involved in conducting a management audit are as follows:

Initial survey: Determining the firm's aims and objectives is the first step in the management audit process. The policies, strategies, and processes that the management follows must be examined by the auditor. Additionally, he will assess how well the internal control system is working. He has to be informed about the organization's performance criteria and real performance level. **Data Collection:** An organized questionnaire will assist the auditor in gathering the information needed to carry out the audit. **Investigation of papers:** The auditor thoroughly investigates pertinent documents and establishes the veracity of the information's source. When necessary, he confirms the information's original source to elucidate the facts [3], [4].

Observation of the work environment: In addition to gathering data via questionnaires, the auditor also gathers data by seeing the workplace in person. This allows him to see issues that may not be evident in the records. **Internal Auditor's Report:** The internal auditor report serves as the foundation for the management auditor's work. Since the management auditor may more readily identify the issue areas where no action was taken by the management thanks to this report. This also makes it possible for management auditors to identify internal control system weaknesses that management was previously unaware of. **Physical inspection:** A management auditor verifies certain physical tasks completed inside the company to identify any inadequacies and then recommends corrective measures to increase those inefficient areas.

Transaction tracking: To assess the effectiveness of a process from beginning to finish, a management auditor will randomly choose a portion of the organization's transactions. **Employee inquiries:** To get a true picture of the issue, the Management Auditor personally speaks with the workers in question who are engaged in the activity being examined. **Ideas for raising performance levels:** Having completed this thorough examination and verification, the management auditor may now provide solutions and recommendations for resolving the issues. Employee and system productivity inside the company will both increase as a result of this.

A marketing audit's features are as follows:

- a. It is thorough; b. it is executed methodically.
 - c. It is completed by an independent expert
 - d. Periodically, a marketing audit is conducted.
1. One of the six main parts of a marketing audit is the marketing environment audit.
 2. An examination of marketing strategy.
 3. Audit of marketing organizations.
 4. Audit of marketing systems.
 5. Audit of Marketing Productivity.
 6. Audit of Marketing Function.
 7. Environmental Audit

This audit aims to highlight how the enterprise's operations affect the economy. That is, both negative and positive impacts, the organization's operation on the economy will be examined, and the results will be presented in a report. It was first used in the United States in 1970 to

determine if a business was abiding by the nation's environmental laws and regulations. "Environmental auditing is the systematic examination of the interactions between any business operation and its surroundings," according to the Confederation of British Industry. This covers all emissions into the air, land, and water as well as any regulatory restrictions, the impact on the neighborhood's ecology, landscape, and community, and how the general public views the local business that operates there [5], [6].

Social Audit

Social audits are conducted to evaluate the organization's orientation toward society. The degree to which the well-being and values of society are valued. It is an effort to ascertain the concern's social performance. A social audit's ability to succeed depends on the stakeholders' engagement. Through social bookkeeping, questionnaires, and case studies, data is gathered for social audits. The data is continually gathered and processed throughout the year, with a social audit report document serving as the end product. The organization's responsibility to its stakeholders is made clear by this report. It functions as a management tool as well as a marketing, advocacy, and promotion tool.

Human Resources Audit

An HR audit examines the policies, methods, guidelines, and regulations that control how a business manages its human resources.

DISCUSSION

While conducting audits for a company, an auditor may take on several positions within the organization. In a strict sense, auditing business matters other than the corporation is optional rather than required. Therefore, in the event of a corporation, the requirements of the Companies Act of 1956 govern the appointment of the auditor. In accordance with the statute's objectives, the auditor performs the following roles:

1. **Agent of the Members:** The primary responsibility of the auditor, who is chosen by the shareholders, in a corporation is to protect their interests. The auditor conducts the audits and provides the shareholders with the audit reports. Thus, there is a relationship of agent-principal between the shareholders and the auditor.
2. **Officer of the company:** With the exception of a few situations outlined in the Companies Act of 1956, an auditor is often not regarded as a regular employee of the business.
3. **An auditor is not a consultant;** rather, their role is to verify that the company's books of accounts are accurate and that they provide a genuine and impartial picture of the company's financial situation. As a result, he is unable to counsel the company's directors or its shareholders. He doesn't care about the company's policies [7], [8].
4. **An auditor just verifies the completeness and accuracy of the books of accounts and provides a report;** they are neither guarantors nor insurers. He makes no guarantees about the accuracy of the company's records. He only attests to the firm's genuine financial status on behalf of the shareholders.
5. **Auditor does not critically analyze management decisions or policies:** The auditor does not conduct a critical examination of management decisions or policies. Instead, all he does is verify the books that are kept.

6. The Auditor functions as a Watch Dog rather than a Blood Hound; he just conducts checks and does so without raising red flags. He's not an investigator. He keeps an eye out for fraud identification and prevention.

7. An auditor is not a detective: If an auditor is not able to identify deceptively designed and executed scams, he cannot be held accountable. Because he depends on the integrity of the company's staff, who have a strong sense of trust and faith in the business.

Process of Management Control

The control process involves checking to see whether everything is carried out in accordance with the set principles, instructions, and accepted plans. Its primary goal is to identify flaws and errors and provide solutions to prevent them from happening again. As a result, the control mechanism compares the real to the predicted and finds any differences. The goal of the management control process is to reveal that everything is happening as planned, therefore it forces occurrences to align with the plan. Since control seeks to identify any departure from the plan in order to implement corrective action, it may be said to be forward-looking [9], [10].

Characteristics of the Control Procedure

1. A Management Function: Managers carry out this oversight to ensure that everything is proceeding according to plan.
2. Dynamic Process: The control process is necessary to ensure that there are no deviations from plans once they are put into action.
3. Continuous Process: This is an ongoing activity. Management makes sure its performance is on track by regularly reviewing its activities. This lessens the likelihood of resource waste.
4. Control is futuristic and forward-thinking. It is focused on the future. Which is related to the past or what has already occurred is beyond one's control. It monitors the performance that is being carried out or will be carried out shortly.
5. Planning and control are strongly related: it is true that "There can be planning without controlling, but controlling cannot exist without planning." This is the case because deviations, if any, from the plan or budget may be determined by comparing actual performance to it.

Process Steps for Management Control

The following fundamental stages are part of the management control process. Initially, the manager sets performance criteria that may be used as a benchmark to assess and contrast the real with the standards. Finding deviations is the ultimate goal of comparison. Then, remedial measures are intended to address mistakes and prevent them from happening again.

Set Standards: Standards serve as the benchmarks by which actuals may be checked. The anticipated results are the standards. So that employees know exactly what is expected of them in terms of performance, the stated criteria should be clear and easy to understand. The criteria that are established have to be exact, reachable, accurate, adaptable, and reasonable [11], [12].

Measuring Actual Performance

At this point, the performance is actually assessed and contrasted with the predetermined benchmarks. If the criteria are established in numerical terms, the measurement procedure is straightforward. Setting quantifiable standards isn't always feasible, therefore managers sometimes define standards in terms of qualitative criteria.

Comparison of Actual with Standard

In this stage, the standards and actual performance are contrasted. This is considered to be the core of the control mechanism. This phase is important since it reveals whether or not the performance is proceeding according to the plan. When a production department supervisor, for instance, compares the actual output with the planned output, that supervisor is said to be carrying out the control process for his department.

Taking Corrective Actions

If a deviation is found, the last stage in the control process is to take corrective action. Deviation is defined as the difference between the true and the standard. If the deviation is determined to be negligible, it may not be necessary to make an urgent correction—rather, its recurrence can be monitored. However, if the deviation is substantial and dangerous, management has to act right once to address it and provide recommendations for preventing future occurrences.

Follow-up

It is the management's duty to verify that all of the recommended actions are appropriately carried out and adhered to. In many organizations, the management's inability to monitor the follow-up steps has rendered the control process ineffective.

Control of the Budget and Analysis of Variance

A budget is a thorough operational plan for a certain future time frame. It is an estimate that has been created ahead of time for the applicable timeframe. Since it contains the whole schedule of the company's operations for the time period covered, it serves as a business barometer. The meaning of control is "some sort of systematic effort to compare current performance to a predetermined plan or objective, presumably in order to take any remedial action required." The management control process consists of two distinct but closely related activities. According to Gordon and Shilling Law, a budget is "a predetermined detailed plan of action developed and distributed as a guide to current operations and as a partial basis for the subsequent evaluation of performance." Specifically, organizing and managing. Making decisions on what has to be done and how to achieve it is called planning. Control is making sure that the intended outcomes are realized. Since a budget is just a plan of action, financial control is a crucial management control strategy. The concepts, procedures, and practices of accomplishing certain goals via budgets and budget reports are referred to as budgetary control. It is a method of accounting and management control in which all activities are anticipated and, to the greatest extent feasible, planned ahead of time, and the actual and anticipated outcomes are compared. One of the most important management tools for minimizing expenses and increasing revenues is budgetary control. It might be seen as one of the best illustrations of managerial reason. To achieve balance between goals and means, output and effort, it is a helpful management tool to compare present performance with pre-planned performance. It uses the media to rectify the departure from the intended course of observation, study planning, control, and decision making, which aids in the orderly execution of subsequent tasks. It reduces unnecessary expenditure and reveals operational inefficiencies as well as structural weaknesses in the business. Controlling the budget entails the following:

1. Budgetary establishment
2. Constantly comparing the budget to the reality to ensure that the planned goals are met.
3. Budget revisions in light of evolving situations.

Controlling the Budget: Administration

The Budgetary Control System procedure in a big company may be arranged along these lines:

Determination of Objectives

Since a budget is a strategy for achieving goals, it is best if those goals are well defined. To ensure that everyone who has to work together to make the plan a success understands it, the goals and the boundaries of the areas of control should be spelled out in detail. Budget center establishment: A budget center is an organization inside an enterprise that is defined for the purpose of budgetary management. Every center has a budget, thus it is important to choose the budget center carefully. Once again, a budget center may be made up of many cost centers that correspond to various machine groups. The introduction of sufficient accounting records and their codification allows the budget department to create estimations since the accounts department provides the data that it needs. Budget preparation and organization chart creation: An organization chart is a map that shows the roles and duties of every management member and guarantees that everyone is aware of their place within the group and their relationships with other members. It should be backed up with formal guidelines pertaining to the staff members' roles. The size and type of the business determine the organization chart.

Creation of a Budget Committee: In small businesses, the budget is prepared by the cost accountant; but, in major undertakings, a budget committee is designated specifically for this function. The chief executive officer, managing director, budget officer, director, controller, and heads of the major divisions make up the budget committee. Cost accountant serves as the group secretary and chief executive as chairman. The budget is created by department managers and submitted to this committee. The committee creates a master budget, organizes all the budgets, and makes any required revisions. Budget Preparation Manual: This is a Schedule, Rule Book, or Document that outlines the duties of those who prepare the forms and documents on a regular basis that are needed for budgetary management. The budget program, as well as the general and specialized responsibilities of the budget committee, departmental managers, and executives, are outlined in this document. Activity level: Since the activity level is the foundation of the budget, it is important to have a normal level of activity. Achieving a certain level of activity requires effective labor within the constraints of the situation. Choosing the Budget Period: The budget period is the time frame that a budget covers. The duration of the budget period often varies depending on the kind of plan, company conditions, control aspect, production schedule, and timing of funding availability. The majority of industrial companies set their budgets for a year. The monthly budgets are obtained by dividing the yearly totals by 12 for control reasons. Finding the Principal Budget Factor: In business, the budget should be developed around the principal budget elements. Every organization has unique critical components that set a ceiling on activity levels. It is important to accurately diagnose and identify these critical elements. Sales are often the most important component in the majority of businesses. The accuracy of the sales forecast is critical to the budgetary control's performance. The majority of the budget will be impacted if the sales turn out to be inaccurate. In a same vein, other important variables can include labor, materials, money, space, equipment, management, etc. Budget Cost Allowance: This is the amount of money that a budget center is anticipated to spend in a certain amount of time based on the degree of activity that the center has reached.

Execution of the Budget and Documentation of Real Performance: A copy of the master budget corresponding to each department's area of responsibility is sent to the relevant heads for implementation. Analysis and Reporting of Budget Variances: A variance is the difference, expressed in monetary terms, between any anticipated outcome and the actual one. The difference between an actual and a planned amount is known as a budget variance. There are often many reasons for the total difference between an actual cost and a projected cost. Variation analysis is the process of determining each factor's contribution to the total variation.

Components of an Effective System of Budgetary Control

The following crucial components are necessary for an organization's budgeting process to be successful:

Establishing goals is essential to any planning process since a plan is only a tool, not a goal within itself. The goals represent the conclusion. Knowledge of Cost Behavior: It is crucial to comprehend the firm's cost structure, and the Cost-Volume-Profit Analysis is a helpful tool for budgeting as it facilitates a knowledge of cost behavior. Precise Prediction of Business Operations: Prediction is a necessary step in the budgetary process. Not only is it the place to start, but it is also essential to creating a precise budget. It is possible to forecast both internal and external actions of a business. For business enterprises to effectively estimate the external elements, they need experienced market researchers. Organizing Business Activities: Since every budget has some effects on the others, budgeting unifies all of the separate budgets into a single, integrated plan. Budgets for buying, manufacturing, sales, and people must all be coordinated. Budgets are helpful in bringing about the required modifications in organizational operations as well as in expressing financial objectives and goals.

Education: All management levels need to be made aware of the benefits of budgeting as well as their respective roles in planning and controlling through budgets. This calls for ongoing instruction in budgetary techniques. Budget Communication: The distribution of individual budgets to the various organizational units is a necessary component of a successful comprehensive budgeting program. A budget cannot be usefully prepared unless its intended recipients are informed.

Cooperation and acceptance: In order for budgeting to be successful, the individuals who will be carrying them out must also accept the budget. The entire organization should actively participate in budgeting. Reasonable Flexibility: There ought to be some reasonable flexibility in the budgeting program. It's also important to keep in mind that excessive rigidity and flexibility are both undesirable. Because an excessive amount of flexibility will make cost control weaker and the budget unworkable. In a similar vein, excessive rigidity that forbids acceptable deviations will lead to issues and limitations with budget execution. Sufficient Systems Support: This will primarily come from Accounting, where it is necessary to make sure that the procedures and records are adequate for the work at hand. Therefore, the budget and accounting system ought to be connected so that similar definitions and other details apply to shared components. Establishing a Framework for Evaluation: Budgeting offers a way to assess how well various departments are performing. When created correctly, a budget will include expectations and organizational goals from the outset and can be utilized as a useful tool for evaluation later on.

Adjustable Budget

A flexible budget is one that is dynamic and made to adjust based on the amount of activity. It is also known as a sliding scale budget or a variable budget. A flexible budget is one that is created to provide the planned costs for any activity level.

CONCLUSION

Matrix organizations, on the other hand, have overlapping lines of authority and responsibility, which makes audits necessary because of the inherent ambiguity and complexity of these arrangements. With an emphasis on horizontal responsibility, matrix audits evaluate cooperation, coordination, and communication across functional and project-based teams. In matrix companies, operational audits are essential because they look at the effectiveness,

efficiency, and alignment of various processes and activities. Through the identification of bottlenecks, redundancies, and conflicts within matrix architectures, these audits help firms improve performance and simplify processes. Network companies need audits that take into account the decentralized and linked structure of their operations because of their fluid borders and dynamic interactions. Network audits place a strong emphasis on fostering relationships of trust and cooperation across all parties involved, including suppliers, clients, and strategic partners. Network organizations conduct compliance audits to verify alignment with common goals and interests by concentrating on service-level agreements, contracts, and performance indicators. Additionally, network audits evaluate the dependability and resilience of inter-organizational networks, spotting dependencies and weaknesses that might compromise the stability and continuity of the organization.

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CHAPTER 6

EXPLORING THE RESPONSIBILITY ACCOUNTING: A REVIEW STUDY

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ABSTRACT:

Responsibility accounting serves as a fundamental management tool for decentralizing decision-making and fostering accountability within organizations. This paper offers a comprehensive examination of responsibility accounting, encompassing its key principles, applications, benefits, and challenges. Through an in-depth analysis, this study aims to elucidate the theoretical foundations of responsibility accounting, its practical implementation across different organizational contexts, and its implications for organizational performance and managerial control. At its core, responsibility accounting is based on the principle of assigning specific responsibilities to individual managers or organizational units and holding them accountable for the outcomes within their sphere of influence. The responsibility accounting framework typically includes the establishment of responsibility centers, such as cost centers, profit centers, investment centers, and revenue centers, each tasked with achieving specific objectives aligned with organizational goals. This hierarchical structure allows for the delegation of decision-making authority and the allocation of resources based on performance expectations and accountability measures. One of the key principles of responsibility accounting is the concept of controllability, which distinguishes between controllable and uncontrollable costs and revenues within a responsibility center. Controllable costs and revenues are those that can be influenced or managed by the manager or unit responsible for the center, while uncontrollable costs and revenues are beyond their direct control.

KEYWORDS:

Balanced Scorecard, Benchmarking, Budgeting, Capital Allocation, Continuous Improvement, and Control Environment.

INTRODUCTION

Generally, the budgets from the prior year are used as a foundation for creating a functional budget. This is the case because the budget for the current year is built using data from prior years that have been adjusted for the effects of inflation and for anticipated increases or decreases in the company's level of activity. Due to the fact that this approach carries over the inefficiencies from the prior year into the current one, a new method known as Zero Base Budgeting was developed in order to simplify the distribution of money and manage expenses. A "zero-base" budget is what's meant to be the beginning point. A budget does not have a set basis.

The USA is where ZBB first appeared. A new budget is created with the needs and the situation in mind. ZBB's core idea is "Starting from Scratch," which means that each action taken by an organization must be evaluated and justified, taking into account all available options, in order to produce the desired outcomes [1], [2].

Master Spending Plan

The master budget is the firm's summary budget that includes all of the functional budgets. The sales revenue is the first item on the master budget, which is then followed by the cost of sales,

operating income, non-operating expenses, and other income to reach profit before tax and interest. Finally, net profit is reached after deducting income tax and financial charges. The income statement format is used to prepare the master budget. The Budget Committee's approval is necessary for the master budget to be implemented.

Budgeting for Performance

Budgeting is a method that describes how management operates and finances the company for a certain amount of time in monetary terms. It's a useful method that outlines performance evaluation and subsequent actions. Performance budgeting seeks to assess an organization's performance while keeping in mind its overall goal and particular objectives.

Its primary emphasis is on each employee's role in achieving organizational goals generally and short-term business goals specifically. It serves as a control tool for upper management and gives each staff clear guidance.

"The process of Analyzing, identifying, simplifying and crystallizing specific performance objectives of a job to be achieved over a period in the frame work of organizational objectives, the purpose and the objective of the job" is how the National Institute of Bank Management defines performance budgeting.

The method's distinct focus on the organization's business goals is what makes it unique. In order for an organization to be responsive, adaptable, and free from rigidities that might impede its progress, performance budgeting places a strong focus on achieving certain objectives and, over time, strives for continual growth [3], [4].

The creation of a performance report is a component of performance budgeting. These reports highlight any discrepancies by comparing the budget and actual data. The accounting system's data is used to create these reports.

The task of creating performance budgets is assigned to the leader of each department. He intends to use the master budget copy for this purpose.

The department heads will get the periodic reports, and they will compile an overview of all the budgets and present it to the budget committee. This report's objective is to rapidly notify the responsible party of any differences between budgeted and actual activity so that necessary corrective action may be taken.

Variance Analysis

Analysis of Variance

Any control process' primary goal is to pinpoint the differences between real performance and the predefined standard. If any discrepancy is found between the actual and the standard, it is necessary to analyze the variance in order to determine its source and recommend appropriate corrective action.

Therefore, variance analysis is the technique of studying variation by breaking up the overall variance into smaller identities to make it easier to identify who is responsible for the variance.

A variance is seen favorable if it deviates from expectations; conversely, an unfavorable variance occurs when expectations are exceeded. For instance, there is an unfavorable variance if the real cost is higher than the standard, and vice versa.

Price variances and volume variances are two types of variances. Variance analysis is the duty that is assigned to various management staff members. If a specific person is found to be

accountable for a variation throughout the analysis process, such variance is referred to as controlled variance. However, in some instances, the variation may have arisen from circumstances beyond of an individual's control, in which case it is referred to as uncontrolled variance.

To reduce the likelihood of variation, management has to exercise caution in the following areas:

1. Establish a trustworthy Standard.
2. Make provisions for unforeseen costs.
3. Take a look at how the market is changing.
4. Make provisions for potential material, machine, labor, and other loss.
5. Examine modifications to managerial policies.

The rapid and timely implementation of remedial measures by management is crucial for the effective execution of variance analysis. A report of analysis that includes comments on overall performance in general and specific explanations for the variation in question must be sent to the management in order to accomplish this.

Control of Marketing and Distribution

Being a crucial functional area of management, marketing needs a control system to monitor the marketing process and guarantee that the organization's marketing strategies are implemented effectively.

The method by which management gathers data on the marketing effectiveness of the company is known as marketing control. Control over the effective distribution of marketing resources is one of two main types of control.

The second is a comparison between the actual and projected performances. In the first of the two formats, marketers may assess prospective marketing expenditures by comparing them to historical data. In the second instance, management is reminded of the corrective measures that must be implemented in response to performance disparities [5], [6].

Strategic Command

Here, the goal is to determine if the marketing activities' defined plan is correctly carried out, followed, and outcomes meet expectations. Therefore, it is expected of a responsible businessman to perform the marketing audit on a regular basis in order to make an ongoing, thorough, and methodical assessment of the organization's marketing operations, with a focus on internal marketing activities that analyze the business concerns and marketing environment. Consequently, strategic control aids businesses in understanding how their marketing environment is changing, preventing product failure, and realizing the full market potential of their offering.

Control of Annual Plan

The plan serves as a benchmark by which the actual performance of the company can be evaluated to determine any deviations. Sales volume, profit margin, and market share are the quantitative metrics used to assess a company's marketing effectiveness. Therefore, a corporation may monitor plan performance using the following techniques.

1. Analysis of Sales
2. Analysis of market share
3. The ratio of marketing costs to sales
4. Examining finances
5. Market-driven analysis of painful cards

Control of Effectiveness and Efficiency

This control system makes an attempt to verify that resources, such as sales force advertising, are spent effectively. On the other hand, the effectiveness control assesses the ability of the strategic elements to achieve the goals. The company may assess the efficacy of the product, channel members, and distribution channel to see whether or not the market potential is being tapped.

Control of Profitability

This portion of marketing control's primary goal is to identify the business division that is profitable for the company and the one that is losing money. The unit under examination is referred to as the segment in this context. This unit might be a product line, territory, or consumer segment; Channel Organization This analysis assists the company in allocating funds based on market potential and profitability. Therefore, strategic control, profitability control, efficiency and effectiveness control, and strategic control are the four main components of an efficient marketing control system.

The degree to which a business demonstrates the five main characteristics of a marketing orientation Customer Philosophy, Integrated Marketing organization, Adequate Marketing Information, Strategic Orientation, and Operational efficiency is a good indicator of how successful its marketing [7], [8].

Control of Distribution

The primary goal of creating anything is to ensure that it reaches the final consumer on schedule; the manufacturer achieves this goal by implementing an effective distribution system. A wise manufacturer chooses a cost-efficient distribution route.

A distribution system typically includes the following tasks: material handling, inventory management, warehousing, packaging, and transportation. The goal of distribution control is to keep these operations as inexpensive as possible.

The budget for distribution expenditures must be prepared by the manager overseeing distribution operations. Therefore, the historical cost information on distribution charges has to be given to him. This will assist him in projecting the cost of distribution charges in the future. The cost structure of the distribution system may be expressed as an equation, as shown below.

D is equal to $T + FW + VW + S$.

Where D is the total cost of distribution.

T is the total cost of transportation. FW stands for Fixed Ware Housing.

Variable warehousing cost, or VW S is the cost of missed sales as a result of an average delivery delay. The effective channel of distribution is determined by calculating the profit contribution

of each channel of distribution. To guarantee the greatest outcomes from the efforts made for both marketing and distribution management, the efficacy of cost control techniques must be continuously assessed [9], [10].

DISCUSSION

A strong control system must be established by every business in order to accomplish the aim. The control system should be designed with accountability for all activities in mind. This means that all divisional or activity managers will be given the authority based on their position within the organizational structure and will be held accountable for their actions. This accountability generates spontaneous responsibility to all individuals inside the business by measuring the management's performance of each operation.

Accountability Means

In the context of a role or employment position, accountability refers to the acceptance and assumption of responsibility for decisions, actions, and policies as well as their administration, governance, and implementation. It also includes the duty to report, explain, and take responsibility for any consequences that may arise.

Product pricing versus responsibility

The total of direct labor, direct materials, and manufacturing overhead is the product cost. Accountability only refers to expenses that the departments or divisions directly incur and bear responsibility for. Both have a role in the product's cost; accountability assigns each division responsibility for the costs incurred by that division. When determining accountability, the product cost is split up into several pieces according to the division's responsibilities.

The idea behind responsibility accounting

Also known as activity accounting or profitability accounting, responsibility accounting is the gathering, analyzing, and reporting of financial data regarding numerous decision centers within a company. It links expenses, income, or profits to the specific managers who have the primary responsibility for deciding upon and implementing the relevant expenditures, revenues, or profits. Accounting for responsibility is suitable in situations where senior management has assigned decision-making power. Responsibility accounting is based on the notion that a manager's effectiveness should be assessed based on how effectively they handle the things that are within their purview [11], [12].

Accountability-Related Factors for Management Control

1. Organizing

The organization's complete set of operations has to be thoughtfully organized around accountability. The individual responsible for each task must be consulted in order for the planning to be successful.

2. Establishing guidelines

The management must establish budgets, estimate actuals, and determine standards in order to carry out the plan. The goals ought to be very specific, practical, and easy to understand.

3. The distribution of resources

Following the establishment of standards, management must assign resources to carry out the action plan and provide the staff with the required guidance to carry it out. Staff members must get training whenever it is necessary for their job.

4. Assessment of Performance

Every responsibility center's actual performance has to be assessed, compared to standards, and any deviations found. Those that exhibit favorable variation in their performance should be given positive incentive.

5. Examine the differences

When there are any unfavorable aberrations, remedial action need to be done. Ensuring that every team member succeeds is the responsibility of a leader, and success is characterized as achieving the organization's primary goals. Creating an accountability-based culture that prioritizes outcomes over activities is one of the finest strategies I've seen for assisting people in winning. The following seven-step methodology may be used to any business to increase responsibility and generate exceptional results: Steps to Increase responsibility in any business.

Effective communication is a control system instrument that produces outcomes. Inquiring about the state of work and outlining the purpose—that is, the how and why—of the team's endeavors is required of the team leader. To finish the assignment, the team leader also has to be aware of the requirements. This method eliminates justifications, minimizes redundancy, and fosters strong interpersonal bonds. It's also a fantastic approach to foster creativity and decision-making in future leaders by giving them more responsibilities. The team leader is training people to embrace responsibility by keeping them accountable. The greatest approach to increase outcomes and foster trust is via dedication.

Centers of responsibility

Structure of Management Control

To oversee the whole organization, which is led by a manager directly accountable for its performance, the organizations are divided or decentralized into several sections. We refer to these sections or components as responsibility centers.

Divisional Performance and Accountability

This strategy makes it possible to delegate accountability to the segment managers who have the most control over the important components that need to be controlled. These components consist of return on investment for an investment center, revenue for a revenue center, expenses for a cost center, and a profit center's measure of profitability.

Cost Centers

Only the costs incurred by the unit or divisions are within the purview of the cost or expenditure center. The division manager oversees the complete cost-control procedure in their own units. Cost estimate, performance assessment, and actual vs budgeted comparison are all part of the process. Therefore, it is the management of a cost center's responsibility to control costs and to take action against unmanageable costs.

The Benefits of Accountability

A standard accounting management system, responsibility accounting offers many benefits to a business. Unless an organization is unmanageable in some other manner, it offers a method of management. By delegating tasks to lower level managers, it helps to fix divisional duties

and frees up upper level managers to work on other projects like long-term planning and policy creation. It also offers a means of inspiring subordinate supervisors and employees. Measures that highlight individual performance tend to inspire managers and employees in individualistic systems. The management sometimes uses it as a tool for cost control and reduction initiatives. Techniques for conventional costing and budgeting are used.

Reactions to Responsibility Accounting Criticisms

In order to govern the whole organization, a corporation is divided into several sections or portions via the use of responsibility accounting. However, the issue of non-cooperation among the many organizational divisions is brought about by this separation. The senior management may encounter challenges in organizing the group's operations. Furthermore, neglecting interdependencies hinders collaboration and increases the need for safeguards like extra capacity, personnel, supervisors, and inventories. When new resources are inactive for an extended period of time, they lose their usefulness and the management's overall efficacy becomes useless. Because of this, detractors of conventional accounting control methods support system-wide management to do away with the necessity for excess and buffers.

Costing by Activity

Activity-Oriented

The process of identifying organizational activities and allocating indirect resources to each one in order to complete the production of products and services is known as costing. It connects indirect costs to the causes of their occurrence. The amount of production determines how indirect expenses are distributed in a conventional costing approach. With time, technological advancements have made it necessary to modify cost structure methods in order to allocate overhead according to cost drivers.

Action The term "method of measuring the cost and performance of activities and cost objects" refers to based costing. Costs activities according to how they utilize resources, and costs cost objects according to how they use activities. ABC acknowledges that activities and cost drivers are causally related.

Indirect expenses and their causes include, for instance:

1. The amount of machine hours may be the cause of maintenance expenditures, which are indirect costs.
2. The cost of handling raw materials is an additional indirect expense that might be influenced by the volume of orders received.
3. The cost of inspections is determined by the quantity, duration, or production runs of inspections.

In general, the amount of output or activity may be the cost driver for short-term indirect variable costs; but, the volume of output or activity cannot be the cost driver for long-term indirect variable costs. The task at hand is product delivery. The expenses associated with this operation include gasoline, insurance, vehicle depreciation, and the salary of the truck drivers. The number of deliveries made annually affects the amounts of resources that will be used in this activity. Therefore, the quantity of delivery may be the cost driver. The delivery activity cost pool is intended to be distributed across the cost objects via a cost driver. The activity driver calculates the percentage of the activity that the cost object uses. For instance: Whereas product B is provided once every week, product A is delivered once every month. Since Products A and B need varying quantities of deliveries, the delivery activity cost should be

allocated to each product according to the quantity of deliveries that each requires. The cost drivers may be divided into two groups, such as structural and execution. There are two types of cost drivers: structural ones that stem from the business's strategic decisions about its underlying economic structure, like scale and scope of operations, product complexity, technology use, etc., and execution ones that come from how the business's operations are carried out, like capacity utilization, plant layout, workforce involvement, etc.

For the various cost pool streams to use activity-based costing, cost drivers must be established. The purpose of its development is to provide more precise methods for allocating indirect and support resource costs to various activities, corporate processes, goods, services, and clients. ABC systems acknowledge that a broad range of organizational resources are needed to offer a wide range of support activities that make it possible to create a variety of goods and services for a diverse range of clients. The objective of ABC is to quantify and then determine the cost of all resources used for tasks related to the creation and provision of goods and services to consumers.

Activity Based Costing's foundation is

1. Determine the actions necessary to generate the product or service's cost.
2. Assign resources to every task.
3. Determine the factors that affect each activity's costs and calculate their totals.
4. Calculate the cost for each cost driver.
5. Establish how much work is necessary for each product and service.
6. Establish the true cost of a particular item or service.

The following diagram allows us to compare the conventional and ABC systems:-

There are two ways that resources are applied to goods in traditional cost models. We refer to such as direct and indirect expenses. Indirect expenses, such as those associated with sales, marketing, and administration, are not included in the price of the product; on the other hand, direct costs are those that are directly related to the product, such as material and direct labor costs. The manner that materials and direct labor are allocated to produced goods is unaffected by activity-based costing. Activity based costing's main goal is to separate indirect activities into meaningful pools so that they may be more accurately allocated to processes and more closely represent real costing practices. The system has to understand that various amounts of resources are used for each action by different processes or products. All expenses are incurred by means of resources, including labor, materials, equipment, and services. Activities that have no intrinsic costs use resources.

The quantity of resources used by an activity per unit is represented by its related cost. Then, resources and actions are applied to cost objects, or the reasons why the activity is carried out and the resource is used.

Units are used to quantify resources and activities, indicating how much of each is used or how much work is needed to meet a given unit of demand. Resources may be used up by other resources, by activities, or by expensive things. One may carry out an action in response to a cost item or in support of another activity. A process, product, intermediate cost object, or end user cost object may all be considered cost objects. For instance, the Human Resources Department may incur costs for employing staff members when they use labor, supplies, utilities, space, phones, and other resources for advertising, calling, interviewing, and

orientation. Other departments could utilize that expense item as a resource to get workers for their own departments. In the process' operational flow, a network of resources, tasks, and cost objects must be created. Every activity and resource has a unit of measurement that transforms it to a unit of demand rate. Prior to creating a cost model, we must first comprehend the business process that has to be recognized. In order to determine the process, the cost model is crucial and has to be practical and efficient. To calculate the cost of the specified procedure, the expenses are appended.

CONCLUSION

Responsibility accounting helps managers concentrate on areas where they can have the most influence on results and performance by concentrating on controllable issues. Applications for responsibility accounting may be found in the finance, operations, marketing, and human resources departments of many businesses. Accounting for responsibility helps managers monitor financial performance and spend resources wisely by making budgeting, variance analysis, and performance appraisal easier. Responsibility accounting aids in cost control, quality assurance, and process optimization efforts in operations by pointing out inefficiencies and streamlining workflows. In marketing, responsibility accounting helps direct resource allocation and investment choices by evaluating the success of marketing campaigns, sales initiatives, and client acquisition plans. In the field of human resources, responsibility accounting helps to assess worker performance, provide incentives for output, and match personal aspirations with company goals in order to promote an environment of accountability and high performance. Responsibility accounting has many advantages, such as better decision-making, more accountability, and better alignment of business goals with individual performance. Accountability accounting fosters flexibility, creativity, and responsiveness in businesses by assigning managers specific results and decentralizing decision-making authority.

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CHAPTER 7

A COMPREHENSIVE ANALYSIS OF TRANSFER PRICING

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ABSTRACT:

Transfer pricing, the setting of prices for goods, services, or intellectual property transferred between related entities within multinational corporations, is a complex and highly scrutinized aspect of global business operations. This paper provides a comprehensive analysis of transfer pricing, encompassing its conceptual underpinnings, practical applications, regulatory frameworks, and implications for multinational corporations and tax authorities. Through an in-depth exploration, this study aims to elucidate the key concepts, challenges, and controversies surrounding transfer pricing, shedding light on its significance in international taxation, corporate governance, and financial management. At its core, transfer pricing aims to determine the fair value of intercompany transactions to ensure that profits are allocated appropriately among related entities, reflecting the economic substance of the transactions. The arm's length principle serves as the cornerstone of transfer pricing, requiring that prices charged between related parties be consistent with those that would be negotiated between independent parties under similar circumstances. This principle seeks to prevent tax evasion, profit shifting, and manipulation of transfer prices for tax avoidance purposes.

KEYWORDS:

Financial Control, Forecasting, Information Systems, Innovation, Internal Audit, Internal Controls.

INTRODUCTION

Typically, businesses have a number of departments or divisions with profit and investment centers, and products are moved across divisions. The cost of the items may be added to the profit during the transfer. Transfer pricing is the term used to describe the price of items that are transferred inside a corporation [1], [2].

Definition of Transfer Pricing

In a decentralized company, the transfer price is the hypothetical value at which products and services are moved between divisions. The selling division supplies the purchasing division with commodities and services, and these are the intermediary items for which prices are established. Before being sold as finished items to the outside world, the goods that are received by the purchasing division may undergo further processing. We might inquire as to why the company experiences these sorts of transfers. This occurs as a result of one division's completed items being used as another division's raw material. Consider the textile industry, which goes through a number of steps to produce a finished product that is consumed by the end user. Spinning, doubling, dyeing, weaving, printing, clothing design, and printing are the processes. Each division's final output serves as the subsequent division's input. Consequently, each division's output has to be moved to another. Since each division is responsible for areas like profit and investment, a notional profit may be added to the cost price at the time of transfer in order to track accounting and performance. The selling division receives money for the interdepartmental transfers, while the purchasing section incurs costs. Because of this, the idea of transfer pricing is a strategic decision-making tool. Both the transferor and transferee divisions' profitability are impacted by the transfer price applied to commodities moved. One

division's gain becomes the other division's expense. To make a bigger profit, the selling division can, however, charge more for the transferred commodities. It has an impact on the purchasing division as their larger profit margin raises the cost of input. However, this has little impact on the organization's total profitability [3], [4].

The Transfer Price Goals

An effective transfer pricing scheme should achieve the following goals:

Divisional Self-Governance

A good transfer pricing system acts as a motivating factor and facilitates effective communication for division managers who want to demonstrate their divisions' effectiveness via their responsibility centers. This may occur when a division manager takes steps to increase his division's reported profit, which in turn increases the company's overall profit.

The performance is measured using the Divisional Performance Appraisal Profit as the benchmark. Measuring divisional performance is made easier using transfer pricing.

Congruence of Goals

The objective of the division manager and the organization's overarching aim must be favorably aligned. The division managers' choices to boost their own profit should not have an impact on the earnings of the other divisions. The division managers must find the transfer pricing system motivating, but it must also refrain from going to the point where it jeopardizes the organization's overall objectives.

Organizational Framework

Different approaches may be used to arrive at transfer pricing; the appropriate approach is used in the appropriate circumstances, but no one approach is perfect for every circumstance. Organizational situations vary from company to company and are primarily influenced by industry, degree of centralization, organizational structure, and culture [5], [6].

Variable Cost

This idea refers to the extra expenditures that are incurred up to the point of transfer, or the costs that are directly related to the products and services' creation and transfer. The division's output, wages, and raw materials are the direct costs. The amount of production determines these costs. When there is surplus capacity in the providing division, this strategy is highly helpful overall because it directs the buying division to take appropriate action.

Average Price

Overhead, labor, and material costs are all billed at set rates. The costs of commodities are unaffected by changes in the cost components under this strategy. Since the buying division is aware of the transfer price beforehand, it may make plans to demonstrate successful performance in their evaluation.

The fixed costs are absorbed on the allotted or preset fixed cost in this method. It is a limitation of this method, but when the real fixed costs are absorbed at a lower rate in their regulating system, the actual efficiency would not be taken into account. This might make the division less effective in controlling costs. For this reason, some businesses only include variable expenses in their predicted prices or standard operating procedures, while real fixed costs are deducted on a monthly basis revenue-based approach that consists of:

Cost-plus-markup arrangements

This approach adds a certain proportion of profit to the cost of sales, which is calculated normally in the cost concept. The profit margin is calculated as a percentage of Businesses that use the cost-plus pricing model adopt the stance that all goods and services must make a profit at every step of the corporate system. Many exporters use cost plus pricing with success, despite the possibility that the price they set will have little to do with supply or demand in foreign markets.

Transfer price determined by the market

The price necessary to be competitive in the market is the basis for determining a market-based transfer price. This strategy has the benefit of allowing for unrestricted optimum decision-making since items are moved across divisions based on open market pricing. The divisions may get the status of sovereignty, which makes it easier to maximize revenue for the corporation as a whole as well as for each division [7], [8].

Negotiated cost

The price that is mutually agreed upon for the transfer of products or services between the purchasing and selling divisions is known as the "negotiated price." The buying division has the option to engage with external suppliers and seek outside bids, but it is not required to accept the contract. Under the following conditions, the agreed price is appropriate: The parties involved must exchange market intelligence. It is essential that the upper management fully supports and participates in this. There need to be an outside market. Both divisions should be free to purchase and sell outside.

The data about the market has to be accessible. One of the disadvantages of the negotiated price approach is that it requires more time and effort to transfer the items due to the negotiating procedure.

It gives rise to the issue of discord between the divides. The managers' ability to negotiate determines the outcome. Conflict between the divisions may cause the collaboration to break down. Top management undermining divisions has an impact on the decentralization concept.

Two-Rate Approach

The issues with the split of marginal cost between purchasing and selling are resolved by the dual pricing method. In other words, the purchasing division is debited with marginal cost and the selling division is credited with a price based on the overall cost + markup. The Transfer Price Adjustment Account receives the difference if there is one between the two prices as a result of this. To reflect the true profit for the company as a whole, this account is updated with the earnings of two divisions [9], [10].

Cons of using the Dual Rate method:

When transferring many types of commodities or services to distinct divisions, this approach is not appropriate. The Transfer Price Adjustment Account maintenance requirement at the head office has an impact on the decentralization concept. Because the purchasing and selling divisions don't keep an eye on their success, they are unable to get large incentives. When the external market is not doing well, the selling division is urged to sell more units internally; conversely, the purchasing division may choose to make internal purchases rather than haggling for better pricing with external suppliers.

Volume-Cost-Profit Analysis

Predicting the impact of changes in costs and sales volume on profit is a key component of CVP analysis, which examines the relationship between total expenses, total revenues, and total profits and sales volume. Another name for it is "breakeven analysis."

One crucial profit planning technique is CVP analysis. It offers information on the following topics: volume of sales or production at the break-even point; cost behavior in proportion to volume; calculated profit based on anticipated sales, Estimated production or sales to reach the desired profit, Profits' sensitivity at different production levels, Hence, the CVP analysis may be characterized as a management instrument that illustrates the connection between the several components of profit planning, namely, volume, price, and cost. The following decision-making processes in the Management Control System are handled by the Finance Manager using this technique:-

The fundamentals of CVP analysis

The following presumptions form the basis of CVP analysis:- Period costs, often referred to as fixed expenses, are the same regardless of activity level and are limited by available resources. When increasing the capacity, the fixed cost might change. However, in the case of variable costs, which vary according to output volume, the total costs may increase if one additional unit of the product is produced and sold due to the variable cost of sales and manufacturing for that unit. Similar to this, for every unit decrease in activity level, the overall expenditures may decrease by the variable cost per unit. The extra income from sales less its variable expenses, or the contribution per unit, is the additional profit made by producing and selling one more unit. Total profits, which are determined by subtracting all extra variable expenses from total income, may rise as activity volume rises. This is the extra contribution that comes from higher sales and production. The entire revenue less the total variable cost of products sold less the period's fixed expenses equals the overall profit for that period [11], [12].

Export-related choices

A product's export order price is often less than its local price, which is acceptable in order to compete in the worldwide market. On occasion, this price could be much less than the product's overall cost. The management must choose whether to accept the order in this instance. This decision-making process makes use of CVP analysis. Nonetheless, the contribution margin and the export order price are contrasted. When the export order price per unit exceeds the variable cost and may provide the minimal contribution margin, the management has the option to accept. Important factor choices: A company that produces a variety of goods may have issues with shortages in its labor and equipment hours, raw material shortages, production/sales constraints, and other production-related issues. The manager is responsible for determining each product's production level and for combining these productions to maximize profit. The production level needed to maximize profit is determined by the contribution of each important element.

DISCUSSION

Controlling human behavior has a significant impact on it. Positive impact is what counts with a "good" control system, although sometimes a "very good" control system deviates from the norm. Control systems need to ensure that the measures used to accomplish personal performance objectives are congruent with the accomplishment of corporate objectives. The organization's vision and purpose are the top management's main priorities. However, each employee will need to focus on their own personal development and may not be as devoted to

the company as they formerly were. Therefore, the primary aim of any management control system is to maximize the alignment between the corporate goal and the individual goal.

But regrettably, it is a difficult effort to do so in the current flawed commercial environment. In the formal control system, we enforce regulations to prevent deviance from the performance march forward. One way to think about rules is as formal instructions. It is a crucial piece of machinery for managing the system. For instance, we set a minimal waste and maximum wage regulation in the work shop to prevent the wasting of raw materials; any departure would result in a pay reduction. Alternatively, we establish a regulation requiring the Board of Directors' approval for each purchase that exceeds 10 lakh rupees in order to manage cash flow.

Things that Affect How People Act

Human behavior in businesses is influenced by both formal and informal systems. This in turn has an impact on how well individual and organizational goals are aligned. Organizational strategies must take into account informal processes such as ethics, management styles, organizational culture, and climate, even if the company is structured according to formal procedures.

Outside variables

Norms of appropriate behavior that are part of the society the organization belongs to are examples of external forces. These standards comprise a set of beliefs that are collectively known as work ethics and show up in an employee's devotion to the company. These might differ from place to place and country to country. It relies on a variety of factors, including the educational system, societal norms, individual backgrounds, and parenting styles.

Culture

The culture of the company is the most significant internal component. Behavior, norms, values, and beliefs all have a significant impact on an individual's behavior. A company's culture often endures for a very long time unaltered. After years of usage, certain behaviors develop into habitual habits.

Style of Management

The behavior inside a control system is also greatly influenced by the management style. Typically, subordinates give their superiors what they get, and the subordinates in turn give their subordinates and so on.

Unofficial Association

When practicality is considered, one may easily see the significance of an informal structure. In actuality, you can be speaking with and reporting informally to several departments inside a company, even if the chart specifies who you should report to and who you should contact with. When a control system is accommodating enough to accommodate this unofficial organization and gives it room, it operates well.

Understanding and Interaction

The staff members who are actual performers in the field should be aware of what is expected of them as they work toward goal congruence. There are often many intricate and broad communication channels, which might result in misconceptions and misinterpretations. Furthermore, there's a chance that the messages you get contradict one another. Therefore, information control should be handled by a control system with enough weight given to it.

Motivation Motivation is a key factor in determining how someone behaves, particularly when it comes to how well they do at work. There are three main parts to motivation. The first is direction, which describes what a person decides to do when faced with many options for what to do. The second is intensity, which describes how strongly each person reacts after making this decision. Lastly, persistence describes a person's behavior's durability, or the length of time they will put forth effort. Additionally, the graphic below helps to clarify the performance factors. Job performance may be seen as the result of combining the three functions of willingness to perform, opportunity to perform, and ability to perform, as shown in the figure. These originate within and are often prompted by outside factors.

A person's ability to perform is determined by how well they understand what has to be done and how to achieve it. Performance opportunity is often seen as a crucial component. Failure in this situation might stem from a variety of factors, including incapacity and an inability to recognize or make the best choices. The degree to which a person both wants and is prepared to put out effort to achieve work performances is referred to as their willingness to perform. To put it another way, motivation is what matters most. If desire or willingness are lacking, no amount of ability or opportunity will produce great performance.

The incentive that managers provide may have an impact on workers' performance. Performance levels undoubtedly increase when managers step in and assist in fostering an environment that promotes, supports, and maintains progress. Managers must take into account the requirements, skills, and personal objectives of their staff while also taking into account individual preferences.

Theory of Agency

The use of contracts and incentives as motivational strategies to attain goal congruence is examined by agency theory. When one party assigns another party to do a task and gives the agent decision-making power in the process, an agency relationship is established. A company's shareholders are its primary, and its top manager—let's say the CEO—is its agent. The CEO is the principal and the unit managers are the agents at the other level. The difficulty is in inspiring the agents to perform as productively as they would if they were the owners. The idea behind agency theory is that agents and principals have different goals or preferences. According to the principle, everyone acts in their own best interests. It is expected that agents be satisfied not just with their monetary pay but also with the benefits of working for an agency, such free time, a nice workspace, access to clubs, etc. Conversely, principals are only focused on the investment returns in terms of money. The agents' and principals' preferred levels of risk also vary. The principals lower their risk by investing in a variety of businesses while the agents' wealth is dependent on the success of the firm.

Mechanisms of Control

The agency theory proposes two control mechanisms: incentive contracts and monitoring.

Observing

The principal has the ability to create control systems that track the behavior of the agent. Financial reports and performance reviews, for instance, are examples of monitoring tools. The goal of agency theory is to clarify why various agency interactions need varying degrees of observation. When it comes to control devices, incentive contracting becomes more alluring when the job is neither well defined nor readily observed. Incentives and monitoring are not mutually incompatible options. The CEO typically has an incentive contract and financial statements that serve as a monitoring tool in most businesses.

Contracting with incentives

By creating suitable incentive contracts, a principle might try to restrict diverging desires. An agent is more motivated to raise the performance metric if their compensation is more reliant on it. As a result, the employee's interest should be furthered by the principle when defining the performance metric. The capacity to achieve this is known as goal congruence. A contract is seen to be goal congruent when it encourages the agent to behave in the best interests of the principal.

Mood

Everyone has a different attitude. The working environment has a big impact on how people behave and think. The morale of managers is a major source of worry for them all. While morale is often seen as an individual phenomena, it is typically thought of as a communal one. It might be defined as the employee's attitude toward his job, which is often tied to his personality. From the perspective of the individual employee, Guion defines morale as the extent to which each person's requirements are met and the extent to which each person wants to be content with his or her overall work environment. In contrast, other scholars believe that social or group factors have an impact on morale. Instead than focusing on attitudes toward individual ideals, they emphasize social reactivity and collective values. They give greater weight to sentiments of group cohesion, interest in and affiliation with the group's objective, and optimism in the success of the whole than they do to working circumstances. According to Mc Farland, morale is defined as:

In essence, morale is a collective phenomena. This concept pertains to the overall positive or negative attitudes that employees have toward all facets of their work, including their jobs, the company they work for, their tasks, the working environment, their coworkers, their superiors, and so forth.

Control and morale

It is believed that a boost in morale is crucial to increased production. According to the same theory, control is influenced by morale as well. Any company that has rules and regulations in place expects them to be obeyed, even in the absence of oversight. Any manager may ultimately see that exercising self-discipline is more crucial than using other forms of control, such as monitoring, penalties, salary reductions, demotions, etc. If employees decide to collectively vote to leave the control system or form a union, it will provide a greater challenge to upper management than any financial issue. Employee morale determines the collective mental health of the workforce at their workplaces, which in turn determines productivity.

Confidence breeds self-control

Optimism is infectious. The rationale is that via a variety of communication methods, individuals may learn from one another. Therefore, one of the key elements of the management process is the development of positive attitudes with morale-building goals in order to execute an efficient management control system. Furthermore, as a manager's attitudes are often reflected in those of individuals around him in the business, the key to controlling attitudes is for the superior to take control of his own attitudes. Since his morale has a significant impact on his subordinates, the first line supervisor is a crucial component of team morale. Morale and control are linked. On the one hand, a high morale level enhances organizational self-discipline, which facilitates the efficient use of management control systems. Conversely, a well-functioning control system, such as one that manages tardiness and absenteeism, will boost morale. It is an ongoing process, and a broken connection might cause major issues for the

system. Through the following graphic, it is described. Even if the effectiveness of the control system is emphasized, the system's design should take human relations into account to ensure employee acceptance. When each person is given the respect and consideration they deserve, trust will grow, boosting morale and ultimately producing effective control.

CONCLUSION

Transfer pricing strategies include a number of techniques for figuring out the arm's length price, such as the profit split method (PSM), cost-plus method (CPM), comparable unregulated price (CUP), and resale price method (RPM). These techniques include applying profit margins based on functional analysis, cost structures, and economic aspects, or assessing analogous transactions between independent parties. However, owing to variations in business features, market circumstances, and transactional details, choosing the best transfer pricing approach may be difficult. Managing transfer pricing across their worldwide operations presents a number of difficulties and complications for multinational organizations. Coordinating transfer pricing policies and procedures across countries, adhering to changing legal mandates and reporting standards, and lowering the possibility of tax audits, disputes, and fines are some of these problems. Furthermore, a number of business processes of multinational firms, such as supply chain management, financial reporting, and strategic decision-making, may be impacted by transfer pricing. Different nations have different regulatory frameworks controlling transfer pricing because of variations in tax legislation, accounting standards, and regulatory enforcement methods. Transfer Pricing recommendations for Multinational Enterprises and Tax Administrations is a set of rules and recommendations for transfer pricing provided by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). By encouraging uniformity, openness, and justice in transfer pricing procedures, these principles hope to facilitate collaboration and information sharing between tax agencies around the globe.

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CHAPTER 8

RESISTANCE TO THE PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

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ABSTRACT:

Participative management, hailed for its potential to foster employee engagement, creativity, and organizational effectiveness, often encounters resistance within organizational settings. This paper delves into the multifaceted nature of resistance to participative management processes, offering a comprehensive analysis of its underlying dynamics, contributing factors, and strategies for mitigation. Through an in-depth exploration, this study aims to shed light on the complexities of resistance to participative management and its implications for organizational performance, employee morale, and change management efforts. Participative management, also known as employee involvement or shared decision-making, refers to a management approach that encourages employees to actively contribute to organizational decision-making processes, problem-solving, and goal setting. By involving employees in decision-making, participative management aims to harness their insights, expertise, and commitment, leading to improved performance, job satisfaction, and organizational outcomes. However, despite its potential benefits, participative management initiatives often face resistance from employees, managers, and organizational leaders.

KEYWORDS:

Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), Leadership, Management by objectives (MBO), Performance Evaluation, Planning, Process Improvement.

INTRODUCTION

Employees that use participatory management are given power, accountability, and responsibility for their job. The approach gives workers easy-to-use tools to boost productivity and have a positive financial effect. The procedure establishes a channel for better communication across all departments inside the company and offers a space for employees to voice their requirements. The fact that the suggestions made by the public are really taken into consideration and executed sets this work apart. It is possible to argue that the "self-control" mechanism which is much more potent than any other control mechanism is indirectly induced by participatory management. Individuals who resolve their own problems get empowerment in the process. Managers and staff members are trained to rethink their work environment to make it more autonomous and participatory. This does not imply that management is eliminated. Individuals are not expected to do tasks that they are incapable of performing. Training could be necessary to enhance skill sets. This is not at all like laissez-faire management. When a piece of work is reviewed, managers and staff members inquire as to what duties and responsibilities should be assigned within its parameters in order to meet organizational and personal objectives [1], [2].

The objective is to provide those who are really doing the task as much accountability, responsibility, and appropriate authority as possible. The standards for exceptional performance are addressed via participatory management. These standards have been investigated, put to the test in real-world situations, and shown to be valid in several professional contexts. An employee base that is dedicated to achieving favorable outcomes for the company, including more output and better quality, is produced via participative

management. Individuals are driven, interested, and eager to put in extra effort to do well at work. In situations when an organization has a distinct and compelling goal and vision, participatory management functions best. Workers may then match the organization's goal and vision with their own. Clear objectives and no staff takeover are hallmarks of participative management. Although a hierarchy still exists, it is not a strong one that gives orders to workers. A non-dominant hierarchy consists of as many levels as are required to carry out the organization's tasks. Individuals control themselves as much as they can and have distinct jobs and duties. After outlining the plan and anticipated outcomes, management gives workers the freedom to figure out how to meet these objectives. Front-line staff continue to concentrate on their main responsibilities while upper management determines strategy. The distinction is in how the company uses and leverages the standards for exceptional performance. The standards for exceptional performance are behavior motivators, the things that make individuals get up in the morning and look forward to going to work. Pay is seen as more satisfying when everything else is equal [3], [4].

An organization's performance will significantly increase when the standards for exceptional performance are applied. Thousands of organizations worldwide have repeatedly shown this to be the case. Most firms' management is always trying to encourage employees to contribute more to the organization's improvement. Because bureaucratic systems are still in place in their companies, people encounter a brick wall. Even after several efforts at improvement, this still happens. People are not benefiting from management's failure to encourage teamwork, communication, and knowledge sharing. Why contribute and provide suggestions for improvements if they are ignored and not acknowledged? Individuals will always act in their own best interests. People will not believe management's communication if the organization's declared culture is one thing and management's real behavior is another. People can adapt to any culture and are very resourceful. People in this kind of workplace will go to whatever lengths to achieve the bare minimum of expectations, regardless of management's attempts to enforce outcomes. Seldom will they produce superb stuff. Most individuals want to produce outstanding job, but they are not rewarded for it in the work structures they are in. You won't provide your team members crucial information while you're in a competitive situation at work, trying to impress your boss in order to receive a raise or promotion. You are not compensated or rewarded for doing this, thus it is not in your best interest to do so. Thus, changes must be made to the way that labor is organized, compensated for, and evaluated. People benefit from sharing their expertise when their team succeeds, which is a result of participatory management. The group performs well because the standards for exceptional work are being met and upper management recognizes the value of each employee's contribution to the company. They want to recognize that they already pay for their personnel as a resource via the quick and affordable participatory design workshop, organizations may enhance performance via participatory management. It makes it very evident that the work's design philosophy is a participatory approach with specific objectives and easy-to-use instruments for work process improvement. It may be used to work process optimization alone or to enhance the organization's organizational structure. This will vary based on what the organization requires. The evaluation part of the session starts with the first briefing. The bureaucratic design concepts and their inverse link to the standards for exceptional performance are briefly presented in Briefing [5], [6].

Participants complete the skills assessment grid and the requirements for exceptional achievement. Briefing two, which introduces the participatory design approach and explains how it utilizes the criteria for higher performance, kicks off the design process. It explains why using these techniques improves organizational performance. Groups map out their existing workflow and identify opportunities for improvement. The management provides them with

well-defined parameters to operate inside. They then engage with management to determine what can be changed in the work process and develop changes for the areas that are lacking. The group is also capable of addressing the problem of structure if that is what management requests. The workshop achieves great outcomes even in the absence of discussing organizational structure.

DISCUSSION

Resistance to the process is to be expected whenever there is change. Even if a change is for the better, a lot of people dislike it. People do not like to be without authority or control. Individuals encounter difficulties because of their fear of the unknown. According to Wilfred Bion's research on group dynamics, most bureaucratic organizations frequently exhibit reliance or what he refers to as fight-or-flight behaviors. The majority of companies still have some bureaucracy. Individuals will either flee or fight, and these actions may be rather subtly done. It's important to find out what the individual acting out believes they stand to lose if a fresh project gains traction. Assuring the individual or group that the change is in the organization's best interests is a useful strategy for handling this kind of problem. We know from our facilitation expertise that there will be both material and immaterial gains for all parties involved. A senior manager who wants to see a successful implementation of Participative Management will be alert to any actions taken by people who pose a danger to the effort. Pairing is another behavior to watch out for. Individuals who feel threatened may want to form a partnership with another person or with someone they believe has authority, with the intention of impeding the new participatory activity [7], [8].

Acquiring Curves

A graphical depiction of the "average" pace of learning for a task or tool is called a learning curve. It may briefly convey the challenge of learning anything new and, to some degree, the amount of knowledge that remains after first comfort. The word, which was first used in educational and behavioral psychology, has evolved over time to take on a wider meaning. As a result, phrases like "experience curve," "improvement curve," "progress curve," and "efficiency curve" are often used. Most things grow quicker with repetition. We have all seen this and may even intuitively know it, so this is not shocking. The interesting thing is that the tasks are very typical in terms of both pace and form of development. With more practice, the trend is one of quick development followed by ever-smaller advances. It is often said that practice follows the power law of learning. When the behavior seems to have reached a plateau, there is a temporary reduction in performance variance. The learning curve affects both daily learning and learning in the classroom. It implies that although practice always makes perfect, the most striking First things get improved. Another consequence is that everyone may perform at similar levels if they train enough. When enough identical or different tasks are aggregated to the level of a subject's techniques, the learning curve becomes apparent. This idea may be used in the design phase of the control system in this situation.

Accounting for Human Resources

Human resource accounting is a relatively new idea. Human resources accounting refers to the process of recording the financial worth of the human asset in the company's balance sheet, operating on the premise that an organization's people resources are just as valuable as its material assets. To put it mildly, a balance sheet that conceals the present worth of the company's human resources does not accurately represent the company's financial situation. This is so because a company's profitability, both now and in the future, are contingent upon the caliber of its human capital. Human resource accounting is "the process of identifying and measuring data about human resources and communicating this information to interested

parties," according to the American Accounting Association's Committee on Human Resource Accounting. Therefore, HRA encompasses not only the evaluation of all expenditures and investments related to hiring, assigning, training, and developing staff members, but also the assessment of the financial worth of the human capital inside an organization. Flamholtz has also provided a definition of HRA that is comparable. "The measurement and reporting of the cost and value of people in organizational resources" is how they describe HRA [9], [10].

Assessments in Accounting for Human Resources

The following techniques are often used to determine a concern's human resource value:

Valuation at cost: In this approach, an organization's personnel are assessed based on the expenses invested in their recruitment and training. It should be mentioned that this expense is accounted for as a revenue expenditure in the profit and loss statement under the standard accounting method. However, this expense is capitalized and shown as an asset on the balance sheet in human resources accounting.

Economic Cost of Valuation: In the first approach, the human resource is included in the balance sheet at its historical cost, which is insufficient if the balance sheet is to act as an organization's health chart. All assets must be shown on the balance sheet at their economic value in order to serve this goal. This represents the capitalized value of each asset's anticipated future benefits. It is possible to determine each employee's current capitalized worth in an organization by projecting his or her remaining future profits from work. The value of the human resources assets on the balance sheet is then determined by adding together all of these current discounted values. However, how the capitalized value of future costs might constitute an asset is questioned. The sum to be paid for the use of the asset should not be capitalized; rather, the value of the anticipated benefit should.

Replacement Cost Valuation: Workers may also be valued by the price required to fully replace them, or what is known as their replacement cost. It should be highlighted that changing the current staff while maintaining the same organization is never conceivable.

Control of knowledge management

Through the continuous conversion of business data into information useful for making decisions, the Knowledge Management Control System is an organizational strategy for closing knowledge gaps across organizational disciplines. The Knowledge Management Control System gives the appropriate individuals within the company the ability to make choices based on established hierarchies of power. This guarantees data openness and makes important information instantly accessible. Executives who are able to understand the "big picture" and make informed judgments are better able to blame industrial catastrophes and business failures that destroy balance sheets, individual bonuses, and investor confidence. With the help of the Knowledge Management Control System, executives may oversee any company from the top down, at a distance, and with the support of organizational structures that promote corporate growth. Organizations have a significant competitive advantage over rivals thanks to the creation of knowledge management control systems. Any organization may perform better by using excellent risk management techniques by transitioning from the industrial to the electronic eras of management practices [11], [12].

Model of the Knowledge Management Control System

To guarantee the sustainability of preset meanings, planned actions, and pre-specified consequences, a control mechanism over the Knowledge Management model is essential. Business branches located in different places—often different nations or continents—are connected to a central hub known as the knowledge management control center in this "full picture" Knowledge Management Control System Model. All data related to routine tasks as well as additional planning and execution tasks are sent to the hub via a variety of electronic

sources. All of these will be gathered by the acquisition center and processed by the control center. The information is connected, and the decision-making authority may get the "full picture" anytime needed.

Since knowledge workers are mostly self-managed problem solvers, management's nature and extent have evolved. All members of the organization participate in management, as opposed to a small number of them holding the majority of the decision-making power. With the use of the Knowledge Management System, the majority of workers plan, organize, lead, and manage themselves as they resolve issues at their workplace. Let's look at an example.

Zen Agro is a multinational corporation that operates farms in almost every hot and humid country on Earth, mostly producing agricultural goods. They provide a broad range of goods, from oil seeds to decorative flowers. There is a vast amount of operational expertise and information in their numerous stations. The Knowledge Management Control System's "whole picture" concept aids in the collection and acquisition of data at their central office in South Africa. Upon receipt, the data are unrelated to one another. It's intriguing, nevertheless, to see how knowledge management has assisted them in solving two issues.

Ohio Blass is Zen Agro's farm manager in Thailand. The application of a pesticide to suppress a certain insect on the farm exacerbated and intensified the development of a weed, and the control center was informed of this. After six months, Thomson, the research manager at the Tanzanian farm station, needed some background information to choose the right fertilizer to speed up the development of a grass type that he would be feeding the cows in their dairy.

He was thrilled to see the details Ohio Bass had supplied and chose that chemical since the weed he had described belonged to the same family as the grass Thomson requires. Subsequently, Thomson saw a surge in his output, and based on the data he sent to the control center, Ohio Bass began selling the abundantly growing weed on his farm as cow fodder. Thus, it is clear that the Knowledge Management Control System facilitates decision-making by dispersing knowledge to the appropriate locations.

Controllable knowledge

Minimizing criticism and challenging the status quo leads to consistency, which is necessary to maintain homogeneity of processing the same information in the same way to assure the same consequences. But this might have a negative effect by stifling originality and creativity. The attention, motivation, and commitment of knowledge workers may mitigate or even interfere in the effect of organizational control, even in the face of strict compliance expectations. Since control is often predicated on rules, it is challenging to maintain in a society where challenging presumptions is frequently necessary for competitive survival. The organization's ability to survive in a setting marked by abrupt and drastic change would depend on its ability to continuously evaluate the presumptions that underpin its business logic and make sure that its definition of business performance outcomes is in line with shifting consumer preferences, market dynamics, rival offerings, business models, and industry structures.

Organizational controls often aim to ensure adherence to specified standards and best practices in order to accomplish predefined objectives. By requiring task description, measurement, and control, these control systems often guarantee continuity, but they also have the potential to stifle initiative and originality. Enforcing such regulations, with its major focus on error avoidance, specifies "what cannot be done" and perpetuates a process of single-loop learning, making it fundamentally a negative activity. Therefore, impermanency of current conformation, ambiguity, inconsistency, and different views must be taken into account while designing new control system designs. It is possible to argue that management is gradually

moving from conventional external control methods to a "self-control" system. The "command and control" approach has shown itself incapable of obtaining effective performance from workers. In knowledge management, self-regulated, motivated performance and decision-making are becoming more important.

Solutions for Knowledge Management

Knowledge management solutions depend more on corporate culture and human behavior than on technology and computer systems. The quantity of tools and techniques designed to assist knowledge management has expanded along with its growing popularity. The primary obstacle that company houses encounter is determining which tolls or procedures are appropriate and effective for them.

Control systems for Next-Generation Knowledge Management

Future knowledge management control will focus on strengthening knowledge employees' dedication to the company's mission. Such a commitment would enable real-time strategy in accordance with the organizational gasman and its real-time execution on the front lines, while defining long-term goals and objectives becomes more challenging. Compliance will become less effective as a managerial tool of control as managers removed from the front lines would have less knowledge about the changing dynamics for effective decision making. Instead, knowledge workers would need to assume autonomous roles of self-leadership and self-regulation because they would be best positioned to sense the dynamic changes in their immediate business environment.

In order to seize ever-smaller windows of opportunity, managers would need to help knowledge workers gain the confidence to act on insufficient information, believe in their own judgment, and take decisive action. Employee control in the modern company environment will eventually come from inside.

Controlling Management in Relation to Risk Management

Today's managers and workers take risks by making decisions in a variety of scenarios. We consider a range of criteria while making choices in both our personal and professional lives. Risk management in business is more than simply a fad. It is dynamic and fueled by both public demands and challenges with government. There is no need for risk management to be difficult. Early on, it may be adjusted to fit the organization's requirements, and as the process develops, it can be changed to your comfort and satisfaction level. Risk management is a methodical and proactive process. This indicates that in order to adequately safeguard the business and reduce unfavorable outcomes, high risk exposure locations must be recognized, managed, and restricted to an appropriate degree of exposure. Historically, risk professionals have concentrated primarily on risk management strategies and significant risk factors including weather, illness, and natural disasters. Human resource disasters like an employee's chronic disease, an unintentional death, or the effects of interpersonal relationships on businesses and families have received little consideration in risk management. However, the majority of production, budgetary, and marketing choices are influenced by human resources.

The Interface between Risk Management and Human Resource Management

Human resources are ubiquitous in the industry, much like risk. When corporate decision-making is linked with human resource management, the results are optimal. This results in the realization that human factor or impact exists in such manufacturing, financial, and marketing decisions. People choose which decision should be made, how it should be carried out, and how it should be followed up on and monitored. People become frustrated and needless risk is

introduced into the firm when management team and staff concerns are kept apart from production, finance, and marketing management. The process of human resource management may be divided by the following discrete activities: performance evaluation, remuneration, hiring, orientation, training, interviewing, job analysis, and punishment.

Activities related to human resources have four significant effects on risk management. First and foremost, these actions are required to maintain human resources in alignment with the risk management strategies that the management team has chosen. Individuals make choices on risk management. Effective risk management requires the appropriate people in the proper positions, as well as training, incentives, and rewards.

Second, disasters involving human resources, such as long-term sickness, unintentional death, and interpersonal connections, may put businesses at risk. Risk professionals must make thoughtful and suitable risk management choices in order to prevent risk. Human resource disasters should be anticipated via risk management. Contingency planning for human resources must be integrated internally into risk management. Third, no management group remains intact forever. All organizations will ultimately change management or close their doors. One major source of risk is management succession. The effectiveness of management succession and, therefore, risk management is strongly impacted by factors pertaining to human resources as well as legal and financial issues.

Fourth, risk management and the assessment of human resource performance need to go hand in hand. Strategies for risk management are implemented by individuals. Failures in human resources may undermine even the most well-thought-out risk management plans.

Effective risk management requires managers to have clear job descriptions that outline their responsibilities, to delegate authority and power to manage risks in accordance with established protocols, and to take accountability for risk management at the action level.

Managers' Function in Risk Management

A manager has to possess certain abilities in order to integrate risk management with human resource management effectively. The most crucial ones are assessment, motivation, training, leadership, and communication.

Direction and command

Leadership is a duty that falls on every HR manager. A group of individuals cannot even approach their objective in the absence of strong leadership. A certain amount of leadership can be replaced by organizing, staffing, managing, and planning.

The demand for leadership is lessened when people are given more power and responsibility and have access to alternative instruments for empowerment. Additionally beneficial are motivation, trust, and meticulous policy and process creation. Nonetheless, there has to be leadership.

Interaction

Effective risk management and human resource management need strong communication skills. Clear communication, active listening, and the application of feedback are particularly crucial in human resource management. Communication is needed for a variety of purposes, including interpersonal relationships, recruiting process interviews, establishing rapport with management and staff, orientation and training, performance reviews, handling conflict, and punishment.

Instruction

People learn better when they are trained. Teaching abilities, knowledge of adult learning preferences, practices, communication, a methodical approach, and an assessment of the program's efficacy are all necessary for successful training.

Inspiration

Employee motivation presents issues for all managers. Motivating employees advances both the organization's objectives and their own professional aspirations. The managers utilize a mix of fair compensation, recognizing and meeting workers' requirements, enabling them to do their duties with the least amount of irritation, and treating people fairly. In general, it lowers risk while enhancing the organization's efficacy.

Conflict

There is always conflict among the management team, the workers, and the employees and the management team. Instead of trying to avoid conflict, managers need to learn how to resolve it. The management team may resolve the issue with the use of conflict management solutions, which provide constructive approaches. The ability to implement a plan effectively is crucial for both risk management and human resource management.

Assessment

The majority of workers are eager to get information on their performance, or assessment. It may be quite difficult for many supervisors to honestly and helpfully communicate performance evaluations. Incompetent supervisors use unclear communication, exaggerated appraisals, and procrastination as a coping mechanism for their frustrations. To ensure that evaluations are enjoyable for all parties, supervisors and staff members must get evaluation training. Risk and people are inextricably linked. If managers want to fully grasp their sources of risk and their options for addressing hazards, they need to pay close attention to human resources.

CONCLUSION

There are several ways that resistance to participatory management might appear, including as skepticism, indifference, antagonism, and passive-aggressive conduct. Because of their mistrust of leadership, their fear of change, their perception of challenges to their position or autonomy, or their doubts about the efficacy of participatory decision-making, employees may oppose participative management procedures. Because they are skeptical of the value of employee feedback, fear they will lose control, or because they are challenged in their authority, managers and leaders may be resistant to participatory management. In addition to their ability to impede candid communication and cooperation and reinforce hierarchical power dynamics, organizational culture, structure, and communication patterns may also be factors in resistance. Opposition to participatory management procedures may be caused by a number of things, such as human differences, communication styles, corporate cultures, and leadership styles.

By preserving established power structures and preventing employee empowerment, organizational cultures that place a high value on hierarchy, command-and-control leadership, and top-down decision-making may encourage opposition to participatory management. Likewise, dictatorial or authoritarian leadership philosophies may stifle employee creativity and engagement, which can backfire on attempts at participatory management. Communication techniques are also very important in determining how people feel about participatory

management. Employee desire to engage in decision-making processes may be weakened by mistrust and skepticism fostered by inadequate communication channels, a lack of openness, and inadequate feedback systems.

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CHAPTER 9

KEY VARIABLES RELATED TO INTERNAL BUSINESS PROCESSES

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ABSTRACT:

Internal business processes serve as the backbone of organizational operations, encompassing a wide range of activities aimed at delivering value to customers, optimizing resource utilization, and achieving strategic objectives. This paper provides a comprehensive examination of the key variables related to internal business processes, including their conceptual foundations, measurement methodologies, and implications for organizational performance and competitiveness. Through an in-depth analysis, this study aims to elucidate the multifaceted nature of internal business processes, their interdependencies, and the factors influencing their effectiveness and efficiency. At the heart of internal business processes lie several key variables that impact their design, execution, and outcomes. These variables encompass various dimensions, including process efficiency, quality, flexibility, innovation, and alignment with organizational goals. Process efficiency refers to the ability of internal business processes to minimize waste, reduce cycle times, and optimize resource utilization, resulting in cost savings and improved productivity. Quality is essential for ensuring that internal business processes consistently meet or exceed customer expectations, leading to enhanced customer satisfaction and loyalty.

KEYWORDS:

Quality Control, Reporting, Resource Allocation, Risk Management, Structured Management, Systems Thinking.

INTRODUCTION

A company's management control process is impacted by many different things. Strategy and the control system are often related because. Generally speaking, distinct organizations function in various strategic situations. For their implementation to be successful, various strategies need diverse work priorities, critical success elements, abilities, viewpoints, and behaviors. Measurement tools known as control systems have an impact on the behavior of the subjects whose actions are being monitored. Therefore, whether the behavior that the system induces is compatible with the strategy should be a constant consideration in the design of control systems [1], [2].

Function of Organizational Structure

Organizational strategies are influenced by an organization's size and structure, while control systems are influenced by the strategies. When a company operates as a single industry, strategy and control system development fall within the purview of the senior management, who are often managers. The company usually modifies its approach as it expands into a varied business. The industry's financial side will now be the primary focus of senior management, who will assign the development side to managers at a lower level. As a result, the business unit-related elements dilute and disperse the control systems. Fundamentally, the environment, the unit's location, technical considerations, etc., have an impact on the control system. The corporate staff of a conglomerate is often less than that of a single industry company of the same size, and the managers at the corporate level are less engaged in the operations of the business units [3], [4].

Oversight in Management

Without a consistent management control system, no company, no matter how well-aligned its structure is to the selected strategy, can execute its plan successfully. Organizational structure establishes the powers and duties of various managers as well as the reporting lines between them, but it cannot operate well without a well-designed control system. The top-level managers' degree of expertise and knowledge will not be enough to handle the many duties as the organization structure becomes larger and more complex. High-level executives at widely diverse companies can't expect to have complete control over the many divisions based just on a close understanding of their operations, and performance reviews are often conducted outside from the company.

Methodical organizing

Conglomerates often use vertical strategic planning systems because of the low degree of interdependencies. In these systems, business units create strategic plans, which senior management then reviews and approves. Strategic planning systems for connected diversified and single industry businesses tend to be both vertical and horizontal due to the high degree of interdependencies. There are many ways in which the horizontal dimension might be included into the process of strategic planning. Initially, the task of creating a group strategy plan that specifically finds synergies between the company's various business divisions may fall to a group executive. The strategic plans of distinct business units may exhibit interdependence. This occurs when the general manager of one business unit determines the primary connections with other business units and the means by which those connections will be leveraged. Third, collaborative plans for interconnected business units may be required by the corporate office. Lastly, managers of related business units might get copies of each business unit's strategic plan for assessment and criticism. One linked diversified company, NEC Corporation, for instance, implemented two planning systems: a corporate business plan system and a standard business unit planning system. Important initiatives that crossed across business divisions were produced as strategic plans in the Corporate Business Plan system. It helped managers of interrelated business units come to a consensus on a strategy plan for taking advantage of these connections. Fundamentally, the system necessitated a unique strategy for significant horizontal problems [5], [6].

Setting a budget

Within a single industry company, corporate and business unit managers often have more regular interaction with the chief executive officer, who may be quite familiar with the firm's activities. It is possible for top executives of companies in a single sector to exert influence over their subordinates' activities using informal and personally-oriented means, such regular in-person meetings. If this is the case, there is less of a need to depend on the budgeting system as a control mechanism.

Transfer Pricing

Within conglomerates and associated diversified enterprises, transfers of commodities and services across business divisions occur more often. Arms-length market prices and flexible sourcing are the standard transfer pricing practices in a conglomerate. Synergies, however, could be crucial in a single sector or a connected, diverse company.

Bonus Pay

The following are some ways that incentive pay policies tend to vary among company strategies: Large companies often employ formulas since senior managers are typically not up

to date on the goings-on in a wide range of different industries. Incentives are paid out as bonuses based on real economic value added, which exceeds the planned EVA. Managers in a single industry, on the other hand, base their pay calculations on subjective criteria. The business unit managers' incentive bonuses in diverse companies are based on the performance of their individual units rather than the company as a whole. The unit managers will feel more empowered and like part owners as a result of this [7], [8].

An edge over competitors

A business unit has the option of competing as a low-cost participant or as one that stands out from the competition. The following three factors make a business unit's environment more unpredictable when distinctiveness is chosen over low-cost approaches. Product innovation is more important for business units that want to stand out. This is in part because a low-cost business unit, with its major concentration on cutting costs, usually chooses to maintain its product offerings over time, while a differentiation business unit concentrates largely on uniqueness and exclusivity, which demand higher product innovation. Since the business unit is placing more of a focus on new product initiatives, it is often more vulnerable to uncertainty since it is placing its money on untested items. Narrow product lines are used by smaller businesses to reduce the expense of carrying inventory. Conversely, differentiated business units often provide a wider range of items in order to establish distinctiveness. Wide range of products leads to increased environmental complexity and unpredictability. Smaller businesses are successful because they may charge less for their goods.

Systems of Performance Measurement

Putting strategy into practice is the aim of the performance assessment system. Senior management chooses metrics that best reflect the business's strategy while putting up such systems. These metrics may be seen as crucial success elements for the company's present and future; if they improve, the strategy has been put into practice. The validity of the approach determines its success. All a performance assessment system is is a means to increase the probability that the organization will carry out its plan effectively. The framework for creating a performance measuring system is provided below. Structure for Creating a Performance Assessment System Source: Craig Schnier made the suggestion for this chart. A performance measuring system combines financial and non-financial indicators, result and driver measures, internal and external measures, and other strategic metrics in an effort to meet the demands of the organization's many stakeholders [9], [10].

Measures of Outcome and Driver

The outcome of a strategy is shown by outcome measurement. These metrics are usually referred to as "lagging indicators" as they inform management of events. Driver measures, on the other hand, are "leading indicators" that show how important regions are doing in terms of carrying out a plan. One kind of driver is cycle time. Driver-in measures may be employed at a lower level and show little changes that will eventually effect the outcome, while outcome measures simply show the end result. Driver measurements influence organizational behavior by drawing management attention to critical facets of the company. Focusing on cycle time enables management to monitor the degree to which a business unit's aim of improving time-to-market is being met, which in turn motivates staff to enhance this specific metric. Driver measures and outcome are closely related. There's a good likelihood the strategy has to be adjusted if the driver measurements show the plan is being executed well but the result measures show there is an issue.

DISCUSSION

Businesses have created very complex systems to gauge their financial success. Regrettably, as several American businesses found out, non-financial factors like quality and customer happiness drove changes in 1980s sectors, which ultimately affected the financial success of the organization.

Many firms have acknowledged the value of non-financial indicators, but have not included them in their executive-level performance appraisals because senior management is not as skilled in using them and because non-financial measurements are often far less complex than financial ones.

Measures both Internal and External

Businesses need to find a balance between metrics that are used to gauge external factors—like customer satisfaction and metrics that are used to gauge internal factors—like production yields. Too frequently, businesses overlook external outcomes entirely or compromise internal growth in favor of external results because they erroneously think that strong internal controls would suffice.

Measures Inspire Change

The capacity of the performance measurement system to monitor drivers and consequences in a manner that compels the organization to act in line with its plans is its most crucial feature. Goal congruence is achieved by the organization via the connection of higher-level goals that are observable and impactful at various organizational levels with lower-level objectives that are strategic and financial in nature. All staff members will be able to comprehend how their activities affect the company's strategy thanks to these measures [11], [12].

Important Success Elements

Reservations: One component of sales volume is a critical variable in the majority of business units. Sales orders booked would be the best option since unforeseen changes to this variable might have long-term effects on the whole company. This is a stronger indication than sales revenue alone since bookings come in before sales income.

A decline in this indicator suggests that changes to marketing efforts would be necessary in an effort to raise output or sales, or both, in order to alter operating levels. The following essential elements of internal business processes are:

Utilization of capacity: Rates of capacity utilization are particularly crucial for firms with large fixed expenditures. Comparably, a measure of fixed-resource utilization in a professional company is the portion of all available professional hours that are billed to customers or sold-time. Call/Request Tracking, Call/Request Closure, and Call/Request Registration are all included in a hotel.

Non-Profit Establishments

As per legal definition, a non-profit organization is one that is prohibited from allocating resources or earnings to its officials, directors, or members for their own gain. Of course, the organization has the right to pay its workers—including officials and members—for the products and services they provide. This simply forbids the sharing of earnings; it does not authorize an organization to make a profit. A non-profit organization must, on average, turn a little profit in order to pay for operating capital and potential "rainy days." Numerous such organizations are not subject to property taxes, income taxes, or certain forms of sales taxes.

There are both profit- and non-profit-oriented organizations in many industrial groupings. There are for-profit and non-profit educational institutions, hospitals, schools, and religious organizations.

Lack of a profit measure

Making a healthy profit is the primary objective of every firm, and net income tracks progress in this direction. Non-profit organizations do not use this kind of performance indicator. Many of them have several objectives, and it is unusual that the success of an organization in achieving its objectives can be gauged by numbers. The most significant management control issue in this organization is the lack of a quantitative, comprehensive performance metric. Similar to a corporation, the income statement is the most helpful financial statement of a non-profit organization. A non-profit organization's net income ought to be somewhat over zero on average. A high net income indicates that the organization is not meeting the demands of the resource providers for the services it offers. Bankruptcy will result from net losses. Therefore, the company has to make more money than it spends in order to exist.

Contributed Funds

The equity on the balance sheet is one of the main distinctions between businesses and non-profit organizations. Contributed capital is given to non-profit organizations in the form of plant and endowment. Plant include gifts of real estate, furnishings, and equipment, as well as financial gifts used to purchase these assets. Gifts designated as endowments are made with the intention of the givers that the primary sum stay the same forever. There are two sets of financial statements for these organizations. A balance sheet, a statement of cash flows, and an operational statement are part of the set that pertains to operating operations. The second set includes a balance sheet that shows contributed capital assets together with the associated liabilities and equity, as well as inflows and outflows of contributed capital over the course of a period. Gains on the endowment portfolio and capital contributions received throughout the time are considered inflows of contributions. Write-offs of equipment, losses on the endowment portfolio, and endowment income represented as operational revenue are examples of outflows.

Fund Management

"Fund accounting" is the name of the accounting system used by many non-profit organizations. Multiple monies are held in distinct accounts, each of which balances on its own. The majority of organizations have an operational fund, often known as a general fund, which roughly matches the aforementioned set of operating accounts. Two funds—a plant fund and an endowment fund—are used to track the previously stated donated capital assets and stocks. Certain additional cash designated for particular uses. Others are helpful in terms of internal control. The general fund is the main focus for management control reasons.

Authority

Boards of trustees oversee non-profit organizations. Typically, trustees get no compensation, and a large number lack experience in managing businesses. As a result, they often have less authority than a company corporation's directors. Moreover, the board has less ability to recognize issues that are real or just beginning since it is harder to gauge success in a non-profit organization than in a commercial one. A non-profit organization needs a strong governing board more than a company does since the board's watchfulness may be the only thing that can identify when the non-profit is having problems. A decline in earnings instantly indicates this threat in a profit-driven organization.

Systems of Management Control

Product costing

A lot of nonprofit organizations don't pay enough attention to their pricing strategies. It is preferable to charge services their full cost. The whole of the direct, indirect, and a modest amount set aside for raising the organization's equity constitutes a "full-cost" price. Services that have a direct bearing on the goals of the organization are covered by this concept. Peripheral activity pricing need to be determined by the market. Therefore, a non-profit hospital should charge market rates for its gift shop items yet bill at full cost for its medical services. Setting rates before services are rendered helps to maintain management control.

Budget preparation and strategic planning

In non-profit organizations, strategic planning is an increasingly significant and time-consuming process as they choose the most effective way to distribute their limited resources among valuable initiatives. Decisions on programs become more subjective when there is no profit metric.

The non-profit sectors are aware of their estimated revenue levels prior to the start of the fiscal year. Throughout the year, they are unable to increase income by stepping up their marketing initiatives. In order for the organization to at least break even at the projected level of income, they budget costs. They mandate that administrators of responsibility centers keep expenditure within the bounds of the allocated funds. As a result, the budget serves as the primary management control instrument for financial operations.

Function and Assessment

It is impossible to determine the ideal running expenses for non-profit organizations. As a result, managers of responsibility centers often spend the whole budget, even if it exceeds what is required. On the other hand, they avoid investing in things that will pay off well just because they were left out of the budget.

Legal Context

The following are some significant facets of India's legal system: The Income Tax Act permits income to be withheld from gifts made to non-profit organizations, unless the payments are made for religious purposes. The Foreign Contribution Regulation Act places limitations on foreign contributions.

The Charities Act and the Society's Registration Act provide its governance framework. They cover things like boards of directors, management committees, trustees, and so on. However, governing laws only address the dos and don'ts. Laws cannot be passed to enact the proactive features.

Challenges with Management Control in Non-Profit and Service Organizations

Compared to industrial companies, the majority of service, government, and nonprofit organizations have greater trouble putting management control systems into place. Why? The primary issue is that it is harder to quantify the outputs of nonprofits and services than it is to measure manufactured goods like computers or automobiles. Because of this, it could be more difficult to determine, for example, whether the service is of the highest caliber until much later in the delivery process. Proper training and employee motivation to achieve goal congruence and effort, followed by consistent monitoring of objectives set in accordance with critical processes and success factors, are the keys to successful management control in any

organization. However, in service-oriented organizations, these keys are even more crucial. For instance, MBNA America, a significant bank credit card issuer, names client retention as the main element contributing to its success. MBNA provides thorough training to its customer service agents.

Every day, it tracks performance against 14 goals that are aligned with customer retention, reports findings, and awards each employee in accordance with those objectives. Among the precautions include returning calls on the second ring, operating the computer continuously, and handling credit-line requests in less than an hour. Meeting such goals has resulted in incentives for employees reaching as high as 0% of their yearly wages. Government and nonprofit organizations also have challenges in formulating and carrying out a goal that is comparable to the financial "bottom line," which is often used as a potent motivator in the commercial sector. In addition, a lot of individuals look for jobs in non-profit organizations for reasons other than financial compensation. For instance, Peace Corps volunteers earn relatively little money but feel tremendous fulfillment from making a positive impact in developing nations. For this reason, financial incentives tend to be less successful in non-profit organizations.

CONCLUSION

In order for internal corporate operations to adjust to changing consumer preferences, market circumstances, and competitive dynamics, flexibility is essential. Creative internal business processes encourage experimentation, adaptability, and ongoing development, which in turn promotes an innovative culture inside firms. The accomplishment of targeted results and long-term success are supported when internal business processes are tightly linked with strategic objectives, which is ensured by alignment with organizational goals. Performance evaluation, opportunity identification, and organizational transformation are all dependent on the measurement and assessment of critical internal business process factors. Measurement and analysis of internal business processes are done using a variety of techniques and technologies, including process mapping, performance measurements, benchmarking, and process reengineering. In order to identify any bottlenecks, redundancies, and inefficiencies within internal business processes, process mapping entails recording and visualizing the flow of activities, inputs, and outputs. Performance metrics assist firms in tracking and assessing the efficacy and efficiency of internal business processes. Examples of these metrics include process cycle time, balanced scorecards, and key performance indicators (KPIs). In order to find areas for innovation and development, benchmarking entails evaluating internal company operations to industry standards or best practices. Redesigning internal business processes is known as process reengineering, and it aims to significantly increase productivity, quality, and efficiency.

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CHAPTER 10

AN ANALYSIS OF GOVERNMENT AND COOPERATIVE BUSINESS

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ABSTRACT:

Government and cooperative businesses represent two distinct yet complementary forces in the economic landscape, each playing a critical role in fostering sustainable development, social welfare, and economic empowerment. This paper provides a comprehensive examination of the relationship between government and cooperative businesses, exploring their shared objectives, collaborative models, and implications for inclusive growth and community resilience. Through an in-depth analysis, this study aims to elucidate the dynamics of government-cooperative partnerships, their potential benefits, challenges, and best practices for maximizing their impact on local economies and societies. Cooperative businesses, rooted in principles of democratic ownership, participation, and solidarity, serve as engines of economic empowerment, particularly for marginalized communities and underserved regions. Governed by member-owners who collectively own and control the business, cooperatives operate across various sectors, including agriculture, finance, housing, healthcare, and consumer goods. Cooperative enterprises contribute to local economies by generating employment, fostering entrepreneurship, and retaining wealth within communities.

KEYWORDS:

Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP), Financial Reporting, Internal Audit, Internal Controls, Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), Lean Management.

INTRODUCTION

Contrary to common belief, the state and cooperatives control a significant amount of market-based transactions, which we may refer to as business, regardless of whether we are in a welfare, socialism, or capitalist economic system. As a result, many company managers are employed by cooperatives and government-run businesses. It is crucial to comprehend this portion as a result. The more explicit version of dual focus control systems is also known as a cooperative [1], [2].

Business and Government

Numerous researchers have extensively examined the logic and effects of legal frameworks on industry and government. These are dispersed in several forms: the Food Corporation of India was founded by a separate law, the railroads are a government agency, and power boards were formed by a parliamentary act. The majority of enterprises are registered under the Company's Act, but Mother Dairy was established under the Society Registration Act. The idea of holding corporations acting as an umbrella for many businesses may also be used in some of the work done under the Indian Company Act. This is the status of the enormous steel company SAIL and the enormous coal company coal India, which were modeled after Italian public sector companies by Mohan Kumaramangalam, the Indian government's then-minister of steel and mines. Under the company's statute, public sector organizations would operate on an even playing field with the same structures of control as the private sector. As the top civil servant in the Indian government, S.S. Khera was a famous member of the Indian Civil Service and held the post of cabinet secretary. This very simplistic method is ineffective for comprehending business and government. It would reveal that although these legal frameworks are essentially

meaningless, they may have an impact on operations in little ways. The vague responsibility of ministers in the government to the people, their constituencies, and hangers-on, as well as managers' reliance on ministerial favors and fines, are the main causes of the overriding styles. It is very difficult for legal frameworks to alter significantly and irreversibly. In sparring bouts, they may be used as instruments for advocacy, manipulation, and, at most, taking down the opposition [3], [4].

Procedure for Establishing Government Business Strategy and Goals

The Soviet Union's formality in its analytical framework, emphasis on internal controls, and link to the economics of the classical approach may have been a major influence on business government; however, unlike the procedural approach, its justification is hazy and not really focused on profitability. It does not develop internally via adaptation to local circumstances, as in the case of the evolutionary or systemic approaches.

The Beginnings of Opportunistic Conduct in Government Operations

Because responsibility is vague, opportunistic behavior is more common in industry and government. Let's look at a typical illustration. HUDCO is a well-known example. It covered the astronomically high cost of a minister's and his cook's phone calls. The public was incensed. A more recent instance included a minister who seemed to be passing the cost of his stay at an opulent Goan hotel on to a public project supervised by him. After a public uproar, the minister eventually paid from his own account, which is fortunate. These are only a few of the more insignificant incidents that might be seen while considering the government organization's overall business performance. However, they could be a sign of a more serious illness and significant control system malfunctions. To address the most pressing problems, we shall search for the best strategic answer. However, more openness may allow for a more direct control over irritants, something that private sector operators do not need [5], [6].

Keeping an eye on and managing performance

Profit tracking is the most straightforward method of managing and overseeing public sector performance. However, this renders all long-term goals absurd. "Having a well formulated system of social profits based on shadow crises may therefore save the purpose of giving management a clear perception of interest of the respective public enterprise," said Nobel laureate and well-known economist Amartya Sen. Even while it could have some distant utility in assessment and decision making, this rather idealistic image of a control system utilizing measurements with hypothetical changes for social reason might be very complex, prone to major biases, and completely worthless for concurrent controls. It seems sense that the control systems that essentially developed throughout the globe were so dissimilar.

The Public Sector's History of International Control Systems

A sampling of control systems from fifty different nations shows that, in general, they are moving in the direction of performance contracting. The idea behind performance contracting is that a state-owned firm (SOE) contracts with the government to accomplish certain goals, and in exchange, the SOE receives autonomy and emergency assistance from the government. Another clause in the contract can be a profit-sharing clause. The internal control systems also mirror the monitoring's emphasis on the contractual parameters. The concept of performance contracting originated in France and is now used in several nations, including China, Korea, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Morocco, Australia, New Zealand, Columbia, and India. Its remarkable application to socialized medicine is a topic of political discussion in Europe and Great Britain [7], [8].

DISCUSSION

The dominance of socialized medicine in the former creates a significant divergence between the United States and Great Britain and Europe. In these nations, access to healthcare is seen as a basic right. But market systems coexist with it. They still rely on market system concepts to guarantee both operational and allocative efficiency. Aneurin Bevan, the fiery Welsh Labor fanatic, ignited Britain's National Health Scheme with his fire idealism. Initially based on the Soviet Union's health system, it underwent several modifications throughout its development. Its model quickly extended across Europe, leaving its mark on the systems that are in place in Germany, Finland, France, Italy, and the Netherlands. Its control mechanism combines many aspects of the Whitting categorization. Trusts are used to disperse medical facilities around the nation. These trusts are independent, and they get funding from the central tax pool according to a formula that takes into account the population they serve and the morbidity record that already exists. They are required to perform to a set of standards on a set of criteria in exchange for the money and autonomy they get. Usually, they will have to work within certain parameters, such as the waiting period for surgeries and the mortality rate from serious illnesses like cancer and heart issues. However, the trust is allowed to use services from a market to help them meet these requirements.

Every trust is free to create a unique plan for meeting its responsibilities. Every one of them may have a system in place for doing environmental surveys and creating business strategies. Has this produced the best possible outcome? There are two possible answers.

1. Even with the cheap prices, they are still outside the reach of practical taxation restrictions.
2. Productivity is well managed, and the variables influencing it as well as the modifications needed to prescribe reasonable standards have changed. However, there are a number of documented instances when an overly strict adherence to performance metrics leads to mean-scoring manipulation at the expense of final results. Patients were not removed from the ambulance in order to postpone registering at the waiting line, in an effort to demonstrate shorter wait times at the dispensaries.
3. Certain fields, including dental care, have unusually long wait times.
4. Surgery and medicine seldom see significant innovation from the system.
5. The physicians are very kind toward their patients, despite the cadres' tense competition brought on by bureaucratic evaluation systems, which struggle mightily to identify genuine merit, which is often more evident in fully market-driven systems. Manipulation of the kind mentioned in the second paragraph is the outcome of this competition. In summary, socialized medicine's control mechanisms are, in many ways, much superior to the US market-driven capitalism systems, but they also have serious flaws that will need time to fix [9], [10].

India's MOU System: A Triumphant Tale

The memorandum of agreement that has been in place in India for the last ten years is the pinnacle of the performance contract system. The highest authority in the government was consulted throughout the evolution of the MOU to ensure that the goal, which some were afraid would become too soft due to the removal of the profit condition, did not occur. Exhibit 1 below shows an example of a typical MOU with Maruti Udyog and compares it with the real. As can be seen, the net resulting source of 1.52 would place Maruti Udyog in the "excellent" to "very good" range.

Using the same reasoning, some organizations with losses might nevertheless get an exceptional rating based on these standards. Is this dishonesty? "No" is the response. Public sector organizations have been able to continuously outperform the weighted indexes because to this strategy. Incidentally, earnings have increased as well. There is no doubt that autonomy has increased and accountability's haziness has significantly decreased. Would this put an end to the little instances of opportunism? Transparency is the way to get rid of them.

Differentiating between MOUs and Balanced Score Cards

The MOU and balanced score cards have a lot of similarities. However, there are three key variations:

1. While an MOU finally aligns everything to the social aim, of which profit is merely one, even if it is not the most essential criteria, a BSC ultimately aligns all measurements to long-term profitability.
2. While BSC places a lot of emphasis on procedures, an MOU places more emphasis on results.
3. An internal participatory debate results in a BSC, whereas an external determination determines an MOU.

Hansmann's Theory of the Justification for Cooperatives

Cooperatives are types of organizations in which the producers of goods and services that are sold to the organization from outside sources, as well as its customers and employees who generate those same goods and services internally, hold the strategic and managerial controls instead of shareholders or the government. The dual emphasis of control is optimized in these organizations. Numerous organizations are categorized under the cooperative model. There may be two possible explanations for the preference:

1. It would be beneficial for a given stakeholder to devote more of their time and attention to making decisions inside the organization, both operational and allocative, in cases when they have fewer options to deal with outside the organization and want to ensure its smooth running.
2. Whereas the cost of the transaction would go down if the buyer and seller had more trusting relationships. They may jointly make decisions without the shareholders, who are the money suppliers, getting in the way [11], [12].

Business and Non-Business Cooperatives

In India, cooperatives are not only in the business world. Cooperatives that construct homes are often exempt from the need to engage in constant production, purchasing, and selling. As a result, their control mechanisms are more like those of nonprofit organizations.

Cooperatives are regulated by the government

Individual effort may not always be provided since the marginal costs spent by the members to successfully govern cooperative organizations may be very much larger than marginal rewards. The state may see this as what economists refer to as the tragedy of the commons, or the problem of the commons, where free riders would damage common property in the absence of regulators. On behalf of all the members, the government may volunteer to manage this shared property from the outside. Thus the idea goes. However, this kind of governance by persons with no direct interest aside from what may be gained by opportunistic behavior makes cooperatives unviable as organizations.

Control System Contours in Indian Business Cooperatives

In cooperatives and other village-level organizations, control systems are characterized as comprehensive strategic governance that revolves on belief systems in leadership and operational choices and ongoing user consultation. Economic theorists of cooperation are concerned about this combination because it makes it possible to minimize the marginal transaction costs of participation.

Therefore, choices about the product mix in Amul Milk Cooperative may be made strategically at the top, while decisions about the distribution of cow feed, milk routes, milk collecting stations, and bonuses may be made collaboratively. Participatory scheduling might be used in sugar cooperatives to determine when to cut cane. They also point out that, in contrast to public declarations and a large body of western academic research, caste had no impact on Indian village-level organizations' control mechanisms once democratic principles were established.

Types of Projects

A project is a collection of actions meant to achieve a specific goal that is significant enough to be of interest to management. Construction projects, manufacturing a sizable unique product, reorganizing a plant, creating and promoting a new product, consulting assignments, audits, acquisitions and divestitures, litigation, financial restructuring, R&D work, creating and implementing information systems, and so forth are examples of projects. A project starts as soon as management gives the go-ahead for the work to be done and approves the total amount of resources to be used.

It ends when the goal has been reached or is canceled. Building construction is a project, and regular building maintenance is a continuous activity. A project's completion might result in its continuation, as in the case of a development project that is successful. At its most extreme, a project can need one or a few people to labor on monotonous chores for many days or weeks. A yearly financial audit carried out by a public accounting company, for instance. On the other hand, a project can need thousands of workers over a number of years to complete work that has never been done before. Take the mission to put men on the moon, for instance.

Distinguishing between project management and continuous operations

The next section discusses the features of projects that distinguish management control of projects from management control of continuing operations. While continuous operations include various goals, such as planning marketing campaigns, buying equipment, and training new hires, projects have only one goal. While operational success should be evaluated in terms of all outcomes attained by the management, project performance may be assessed in terms of the intended final product.

Structure of Organization

An active operational organization is layered with the project organization. Its management control system is placed on top of that organization's management control system. These issues are not present in a functioning company.

Concentrate on the undertaking

Project control is the process of keeping an eye on a project that aims to create a quality product at the lowest possible cost in a certain amount of time. In contrast, control in continuing organizations concentrates on all of the items that are worked on throughout a certain time period, like a month.

Trade-offs Are Necessary

Trade-offs between scope, scheduling, and cost are common in projects. Reducing the project's scope may save money, while paying overtime can expedite completion of the work. While continuing organizations sometimes face similar trade-offs, they are not characteristic of their daily operations.

Less Trustworthy Standards

When it comes to projects, performance criteria are less trustworthy than for continuous companies. There is just one use for project design. On the other hand, engineering studies of the ideal time and cost or historical experience may be used to build standards for repeating project tasks.

Regular Modifications to Plans

Project plans are usually subject to frequent and significant modifications. Plans for a building project could alter as a result of unforeseen environmental changes.

Distinct rhythm

Most projects begin modestly, intensify to a peak, then slow down as completion approaches and just cleaning has to be done. Activities that are ongoing often function at one level of activity for a while before shifting to a different level.

Increased Effect of Environment

Generally speaking, projects are more impacted by the outside world than are industrial operations. Even for a straightforward job like constructing a home, circumstances under the earth's surface may provide unforeseen challenges if the endeavor entails excavation.

Environment of Project Control

An organization that is transitory is a project organization. A team is put together to carry out the project, and once it is over, the team is dissolved. Team members might be recruited for this reason, be employed by the sponsoring company, or have contracts with other organizations for part or all of their work.

Organizations in Matrix

The project manager of the functional department to which they are permanently assigned is one of the project team members' two superiors if they work for the sponsoring company. We refer to this kind of setup as matrix organization. Craftspeople from other functional areas at the shipyard are brought in to work on the project as required, such as electricians and pipe fitters, while a ship is being overhauled. Their primary allegiance, nevertheless, is to their department that functions. Compared to the manager of a manufacturing department, whose staff members have complete devotion to that department, the project manager has less control over people.

Contractual Connections

The sponsoring organization, which has its own control duties, creates an extra layer of project control if the project is carried out by an outside contractor. It's possible that the contractor will bring their own control system to the project, and it could need to be modified in order to provide the sponsor the information that it requires. The way a contract is written affects managerial control significantly. There are two main categories of contracts:

Contracts with Fixed Prices

In this case, the contractor commits to finishing the designated task at a set cost and by a stated date. If the task is not finished according to the standards or if the deadline is missed, there are often fines. A change order is issued if the sponsor wishes to alter the project's scope. Each modification order's scope, timing, and financial consequences must be agreed upon by the parties. The sponsor is responsible for covering any additional expenses incurred as a result of the modification orders. For instance, there can be about twelve modification orders required during the building of a typical home. The ultimate cost of the job is really not set in stone if the modification orders total thousands.

Fixed-price contracts make sense when there are few unknowns and the project's scope can be precisely defined in advance. Should the contractor sign a contract that lacks sufficient provisions for modifications brought about by scope changes or unavoidable uncertainties, he would likely oppose requests from the sponsor to make changes that he deems beneficial, and he could even decide not to finish the project.

Cost-sharing Agreements

In this case, the sponsor consents to cover both a profit and fair expenses. Under such a contract, the sponsor has a significant amount of responsibility for cost control; as a result, a management control system and related control staff are required. When it is impossible to accurately anticipate the project's scope, timeline, or cost in advance, a cost-reimbursement contract is the best option.

The profit component, or fee, in this contract should typically be a set sum of money. If it's expressed as a % of expenses, the contractor will be incentivized to raise the costs in order to boost his profit.

Changes

There are several variants between these two categories of contracts. Under an incentive contract, the contractor is paid for finishing the project earlier or for using less money when completion dates, cost objectives, or both, are specified in advance. This kind of agreement is suitable when reasonably accurate completion and cost estimations are available. Various contract types could be used to various project tasks. For instance, due to the high level of uncertainty, direct expenses may be paid under a cost-reimbursement contract, while the contractor's overhead might be paid under a fixed-price contract, either as a monthly amount or as a sum for the whole project. The contract may be for a set price per unit applied to the actual number of units delivered if unit costs can be reliably approximated but the amount of work is unpredictable. For instance, payment for catering services is often expressed as a fixed sum for each meal that is provided.

Data Organization

Task Packages

Information in a project control system is organized according to project components. A work package is the smallest component, and the work breakdown structure is the method used to combine these work packages. A work package is a quantifiable chunk of work, often lasting about a month or two. It should have a clear, distinct milestone—a point of completion—to make things easier to understand. A single manager should be in charge of each work package. In order to compare schedule and cost data with comparable work packages, all work packages in the project that are similar should be defined in the same manner.

Accounts for Indirect Costs

In addition to work packages pertaining to the actual project work, cost accounts are created for support and administrative tasks. There is no set output for these activities, in contrast to work packages. Typically, their projected expenses are expressed in terms of time units, such as months. Additionally, the approval authorities and their particular signing powers, the regulations for charging expenses to projects, and the chart of accounts are defined beforehand. The project has to be altered if it turns out that the accounting system or the task breakdown structure are not helpful. Recasting a lot of information—both that which has previously been gathered and that which outlines future plans—may be necessary for this.

Project Control Process Steps

Project Organizing

The project planning team begins the planning phase of the project by using the preliminary estimations that served as the foundation for the decision. It transforms these approximations into comprehensive product requirements, intricate timetables, and an expense budget. It also creates an organization chart, an underlying task control system, and a management control system.

A planning plan consists of a description of each planning job, who is in charge of it, when it has to be finished, and how the tasks relate to one another. Within the larger project, the planning process is a subproject in and of itself. Additionally, a management system is in place to guarantee that the planning tasks are completed correctly.

Character of the Project Schedule

Three interrelated components make up the final plan: scope, scheduling, and cost.

The scope section lists each work package's parameters along with the name of the individual or organizational unit in charge. The work package completion time estimates and their interrelationships that is, which work package has to be finished before another can be started—are listed in the schedule section. A network is the collection of these connections.

The project budget, sometimes referred to as the control budget, includes cost information. Financial expenses are only associated with the total of many work packages, unless those work packages are very substantial. Resources, such as person-days or cubic yards of concrete, are specified as non-monetary quantities to be utilized for certain task packages. CPM means for management control is:

First, activities in the critical route need more attention throughout the control process, whereas slack activities require less focus. Secondly, during the planning phase, consideration should be given to potential ways to shorten the time needed for critical path tasks. If such opportunities arise, the total project time required may be shortened. Third, it could be preferable to shorten essential path durations by raising expenses, such as working extra, but spending more money to shorten slack activities shouldn't be done.

PERT

PERT is a technique for analyzing the tasks required to finish a project, particularly the amount of time required to do each work and determining the least amount of time required to finish the project as a whole. PERT was mainly created to make large-scale, complicated project planning and scheduling easier. It managed to include uncertainty by enabling project scheduling even in the absence of accurate knowledge about the nature and lengths of each

activity. It is more of an event-oriented strategy than a start-and-finish-oriented one, and it is more often used to projects when time is more important than money. It is used in very large-scale, one-time, intricate, non-routine R&D and infrastructure projects.

CONCLUSION

The government, on the other hand, is essential in fostering an atmosphere that allows cooperative enterprises to prosper by providing legal protections, funding, and technical help. To encourage cooperative entrepreneurship, governments might set up cooperative development organizations, finance cooperative businesses, and grant tax breaks or other financial aid. In addition, government policies and initiatives may help cooperative businesses expand their capacity, get access to markets, and obtain financing, all of which will contribute to their long-term viability. Cooperation, cooperation, and common goals define the connection between the government and cooperative enterprises. Governments endeavor to bolster the growth of cooperative firms by means of financial mechanisms, regulatory interventions, and capacity-building programs, acknowledging the economic and social advantages associated with them. In turn, cooperative enterprises use government assistance to gain access to resources, knowledge, and networks, which improves their capacity to successfully serve their members and communities. Governments and cooperative firms may work together on a variety of projects, such as collaborative development projects, public-private partnerships, and co-governance agreements. Governmental organizations and cooperative businesses work together in public-private partnerships to solve certain social and economic issues including job creation, rural development, and affordable housing.

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CHAPTER 11

FUTURE OF MANAGEMENT CONTROL SYSTEMS: A REVIEW STUDY

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ABSTRACT:

Management control systems (MCS) play a pivotal role in organizational governance, facilitating the coordination, monitoring, and evaluation of activities to achieve strategic objectives. As organizations navigate an increasingly complex and dynamic business environment, the future of MCS is shaped by emerging trends, technological advancements, and evolving management practices. This paper provides a comprehensive analysis of the future of management control systems, exploring key trends, challenges, and strategic implications for organizations seeking to enhance performance, agility, and resilience. Through an in-depth examination, this study aims to illuminate the evolving landscape of MCS and provide insights into strategies for future-proofing organizational control mechanisms. The future of management control systems is influenced by several prominent trends that are reshaping the business landscape. These trends include digitalization and data analytics, decentralization and empowerment, sustainability and corporate social responsibility (CSR), and agility and adaptability. Digitalization and data analytics enable organizations to collect, analyze, and leverage vast amounts of data to inform decision-making, optimize performance, and enhance transparency. Decentralization and empowerment empower employees at all levels to contribute to decision-making processes, fostering innovation, engagement, and ownership. Sustainability and CSR are becoming increasingly important considerations for organizations, requiring robust management control systems to monitor and manage environmental, social, and governance (ESG) risks and opportunities. Agility and adaptability are essential for organizations to thrive in a rapidly changing business environment, necessitating flexible and responsive management control systems that can anticipate and respond to disruptions and uncertainties.

KEYWORDS:

Process Management, Project Management, Quality Assurance, Six Sigma, Strategic Planning, Supply Chain Management.

INTRODUCTION

The quality audit has to happen while the task is being completed. Defective work on individual work packages may go undetected if it is delayed; they are covered up by later work. In some projects, the cost audit is carried out concurrently with the work in progress; in other projects, the cost audit is not carried out until the project is over. Auditing while the task is being done is often preferred since it may reveal any problems that can be fixed before they become problematic. Project auditors should not, however, monopolize the time of individuals who are in charge of carrying out the task. Operational auditing is the new role that internal auditors have taken on in recent years. They scrutinize expenses spent and draw attention to management activities they deem inadequate. Operational auditing has several uses when done correctly. But, there is a significant risk that the auditors, who are not managers after all, may question the choices managers made at the time of decision-making based on their understanding of all relevant facts [1], [2].

Project Assessment

An assessment of performance in carrying out the project and an assessment of the outcomes obtained from the project are the two distinct components of project evaluation. While the latter may not be possible for many years after the project is finished, the former is carried out soon after it is finished.

Assessment of performance

There are two components to the performance assessment of project execution: the project management component and the project management process component. The former's goal is to support project management choices, such as those pertaining to compensation, advancement, constructive criticism, or reallocation. The latter seeks to identify more effective methods for carrying out future tasks. These assessments are often made informally. If the project was significant and the outcomes were inadequate, it might be beneficial to do a formal assessment. Furthermore, a rigorous assessment of a very successful project might provide methods for enhancing performance in subsequent initiatives [3], [4].

Overspending on costs

A cost overrun occurs when actual expenses surpass projected costs. This suggests to some that the real expenses were too high. However, it's also conceivable to conclude that the expenses were not as high as anticipated. Should the increased expenses be attributed to modifications in the project's scope or uncontrollable causes, the rationale would be an underestimation of expenses rather than exorbitant real costs. The need of examining both the budget and actual expenses makes it more difficult to understand the reports.

The tendency is to depend on knowledge that was unavailable at the time when evaluating how successfully the project's work was handled in the past. Usually, understanding allows one to identify situations when the "correct" choice was not taken. It may be possible to identify certain favorable indicators of bad management. One evident example is the project manager's personal usage of finances or other assets. Significant modifications to the specifications or cost overruns should have been approved, and the cash flows should have been reevaluated to see whether the project's return on investment was still acceptable.

Another kind of bad management is when a manager does not enforce strict controls, which allows others to steal. This is more difficult to evaluate since strict controls may slow the project's development. Another, though not as strong, indicator of bad management is evidence that the manager values timely delivery of a high-quality product above cost control. The process assessment might show that the reviews carried out throughout the project were insufficient or that prompt action was not done in response to the reviews. For instance, the review can suggest that the project ought to have been redirected or perhaps abandoned at that point in order to make use of the knowledge that was available, but this wasn't done. Rules or processes may also change as a result of the examination. It can reveal some regulations that made the project less effective to manage. On the other hand, it can reveal insufficient controls. Project staff should be asked for proposals for process improvement as part of the assessment [5], [6].

Assessment of the outcomes

A project cannot be considered successful until enough time has passed to allow for the evaluation of its true costs and benefits. It could take years to complete this. Such an assessment could not be beneficial unless the effect can be quantified precisely. To give extreme examples, the benefits of installing a labor-saving machine will not be apparent if the associated costs are

buried in a range of product costs and cannot be directly linked to the new machine. Conversely, the benefits of introducing a new product line can typically be measured because the revenues and expenses associated with that line will be known. Furthermore, unless a decision can be made based on this analysis, there is no use in trying to assess a project. The inability to articulate the intended advantages in terms of objective, quantifiable outcomes and the lack of quantifiability of the actual benefits impede the assessment of many initiatives. In certain situations, it is not possible to do a quantitative benefit/cost analysis; instead, one must rely on the opinions of experienced individuals on the project's successes. Many research and development projects carried out by staff units, most projects performed by governments and non-profit organizations, and projects whose goal is to enhance safety or eradicate environmental flaws all fall under this category. Selection criteria for those who will be assessed

1. The project must be significant enough to justify the significant time and energy investment required for a thorough review.
2. Usually, the outcomes have to be measurable. To be more precise, the project's real profit should be quantifiable if its goal was to generate a certain amount of extra profit.
3. The impact of unforeseen factors need to be understood, at the very least roughly, and they shouldn't outweigh adjustments to the presumptions upon which the project was accepted. An assessment won't provide much useful information if the launch of a new product was met with dismal outcomes since the product's market vanished.
4. There should be a strong likelihood that the evaluation's findings will result in action. Specifically, the study might result in improved methods for suggesting and selecting future initiatives.

DISCUSSION

Managers need to develop and improve their management control tools as their firms grow and their surroundings change. Many firms today may find that the management control procedures that were fairly good ten or twenty years ago are no longer sufficient. Organizations often need to adapt their aims or critical success elements in response to changing external conditions. Diverse objectives give rise to distinct activities, associated benchmarks, and performance assessment standards. It goes without saying that in order for the business to manage its resources effectively and efficiently, the management control system must also change. The following are some management control tenets that are timeless or that may direct system redesign to accommodate evolving management requirements [7], [8].

1. It is a constant expectation that people would be drawn toward their own self-interest. Some people may surprise you with their altruism, but management control systems need to be built to capitalize on more commonplace human tendencies. Recognize that various cultures may have different perspectives on self-interest.
2. Create incentives in such a way that people who look out for themselves also help the organization accomplish its goals. Many incentives are acceptable if there are many goals, as is often the case. Never undervalue the complexity of striking a balance between these incentives—experimenting may be required to accomplish a number of goals.
3. Analyze actual performance in relation to anticipated or planned performance, adjusted, if feasible, to reflect actual production realized. The majority of objectives and activities, both financial and non-financial, may be addressed by the flexible budgeting idea.

4. You should value non-financial performance equally with financial performance. While ignoring non-financial performance, the management may be able to provide strong financial success in the near term, but this is unlikely to happen over the long term.
5. A wide range of performance indicators covering the company's whole value chain. This guarantees that all operations essential to the business's long-term performance are included into the management control framework.
6. Evaluate the effectiveness of the management control system on a regular basis. Are objectives being met? Does achieving an action's success imply that objectives are also being met? Do people possess, comprehend, and use the management control information efficiently?
7. Take note of the global competition's management control triumphs. Cultural variations notwithstanding, human behavior is very similar. One may see effective implementations of new technologies and management controls in other people's work [9], [10].

Organizational governance is anchored by management control systems (MCS), which guarantee alignment with strategic goals, optimize performance, and streamline decision-making procedures.

The field of management control systems is about to undergo a dramatic transition as we go into a future marked by quickening technical development, changing organizational forms, and altering market conditions. This paper explores how management control systems will develop in the future, looking at new possibilities, problems, and trends.

Technological Progress and Digital Transformation:

Every aspect of organizational operations has been impacted by the digital revolution, which has had a significant effect on management control systems. Traditional methods of managing control are being completely transformed by developments in automation, machine learning, artificial intelligence, and data analytics.

Future enterprises will be able to foresee market trends, allocate resources more efficiently, and make decisions with more agility because to intelligent MCS that uses real-time data processing and predictive analytics. Integration with cutting-edge technology, like as blockchain, offers improved accountability, security, and transparency, changing how businesses keep an eye on and manage their operations.

Transition to Adaptive and Agile Management

The company environment is changing at an unstoppable rate, which makes the transition to flexible and adaptable management control systems necessary. More adaptable frameworks that can take into account changing organizational dynamics and market situations are replacing traditional, inflexible control systems. Agile MCS places a strong emphasis on decentralized decision-making, cross-functional cooperation, and quick feedback loops to help businesses take advantage of new possibilities and react quickly to disturbances. The company as a whole must adopt a new culture that values experimentation, learning, and constant improvement in order to evolve toward agility.

Including Sustainability Measures

It is becoming more and more necessary to include sustainability indicators into management control systems in an era marked by increased social and environmental responsibility. Organizations are being examined more and more for their ethical behavior, social effect, and environmental impact. Sustainability KPIs will be included into future management control

systems, allowing businesses to efficiently track and manage their environmental, social, and governance (ESG) performance. MCS will be essential in advancing sustainability programs and guaranteeing responsibility across the value chain, from measuring carbon emissions to providing transparency in the supplier chain [11], [12].

Acceptance of Decision Making Driven by Data:

In today's corporate environment, data has become a strategic asset, and management control systems are at the forefront of maximizing its potential. The decision-making processes of the future MCS will be mostly data-driven, using sophisticated analytics to extract meaningful insights from massive amounts of both organized and unstructured data. Managers will be better able to make choices, reduce risks, and take advantage of opportunities if they have access to predictive modeling, scenario analysis, and prescriptive analytics. To protect against possible dangers and compliance difficulties, this data-driven strategy does, however, need strong data governance structures to guarantee data quality, integrity, and privacy.

Performance measurement's evolution

A more holistic and balanced strategy is replacing the conventional focus on financial measures as the main indicator of an organization's success. Subsequent management control systems will include a broad range of performance metrics, including operational, financial, customer, and personnel indications.

Organizations may assess performance holistically and promote long-term value creation by using key performance indicators (KPIs) that are in line with strategic goals. Additionally, the move to outcome-based performance evaluation promotes a culture of empowerment and responsibility by coordinating corporate and individual objectives toward achievement.

The development of management control systems is not without difficulties, notwithstanding the bright future. In an environment that is becoming more and more digitalized, organizations need to manage concerns about data security, privacy, and compliance. Traditional firms have difficulties in implementing new technology and agile techniques due to their complexity. Furthermore, finding the ideal balance between autonomy and control is still a challenge that has to be carefully considered in light of leadership dynamics and organizational culture. In summary, technological innovation, agility, sustainability, and data-driven decision-making will define the future of management control systems. Organizations must use MCS to drive performance, ensure accountability, and create resilience as they negotiate the complexity of a quickly changing business environment. Adapting to changing market conditions and using state-of-the-art technology will enable businesses to prosper and keep a competitive advantage in the ever-changing business environment of the future.

Authority over Service Companies

We spoke about production and operations management control in the last unit of the prior block. We will talk about management control of service activities in this unit. In several nations, the services industry now contributes more to GDP than both the industrial and agricultural sectors combined. As the economy grows, services will become more and more important, which means that service companies must be properly managed and controlled. We will begin by outlining the features of services. After that, we'll talk about general methods for controlling services. We will also talk about how service companies are classified. Lastly, we will talk about how various service organization types are controlled.

Features of Services

A service is "any activity or benefit that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything," according to Kotler and Bloom's definition from 1984. Its manufacture could or might not be connected to a tangible product.

Managers often have a tendency to use methods and strategies designed primarily for physical things to tackle service marketing difficulties, which contributes to the low quality of service levels seen in many service businesses. It occurs as a result of a lack of knowledge about the characteristics of services. Our capacity to handle services from an economic and marketing standpoint increases along with our understanding of their features. Services are special and different from tangible goods because of a variety of distinguishing features. Certain characteristics set manufacturing firms apart from service organizations, including

Indefinability

Services, as contrast to things, cannot be quantified, measured, or felt. It is challenging to describe to a consumer a particular aspect of the service that will be provided. Given the intangible nature of services, clients' opinions of them might change at any given moment. The same service will be experienced differently by each consumer. Because of this element of intangibility, service businesses have significant challenges when assessing the quality of their offerings.

Variability

Services are heterogeneous when they are rated differently by various individuals. Given that a thing is physical and has distinct qualities attached to it, evaluating its quality is straightforward. However, there are other aspects of services, and various individuals may rank these aspects differently. It is impossible to guarantee that every consumer will always get or perceive the same degree of quality since the services offered entail human interactions. Three domains are impacted by heterogeneity: productivity, service quality, and service encounter. All of these effects of service heterogeneity must be considered by management control of service organizations.

Un-breakability

The source from which a service originates cannot be isolated from the processes of production and consumption, regardless of whether the service is provided by a human or a machine. Services are often sold, produced, and then consumed; in other words, the consumer is involved in the production process. Because of this, inseparability is a crucial component of services and affects how well they are delivered. In order to generate the intended result, communication between the producer and the client is necessary throughout the service's creation.

Perishability

It is not possible to store services. As soon as they are formed, they are eaten. This explains how services have the perishability feature. Because services are ephemeral, it is critical for enterprises to continuously monitor the demand for any given service. In order to maintain a balance between peak and lean times, service companies must concentrate on balancing demand and service output. Example Individuals Drive Success RISE with SAP Motivates and Enables Staff. Any activity or benefit that one party can provide to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything" is the definition of service. RISE with SAP was a cutting-edge strategy that SAP used to assist customers in turning a whole corporation into an intelligent business. SAP Professionals have access to training materials,

have made connections with other learning forums, learn about new training systems, and receive regular updates under this scheme through SAP Learning Hub Licenses, while end users have learned about software usage and quickly received answers to their questions with content like tutorials, guided demonstrations, demo videos, and user manuals.

For instance, the NBA and Pfeiffer are two international businesses that have benefited from RISE with SAP. The project participants were trained by SAP professionals over an extended period of time, which went beyond the technical deployment of SAP S/4HANA and the cloud migration of the SAP Platform. An additional benefit was that the staff members of the customer had direct exposure to the most recent SAP developments and were able to hone their skills on training platforms that expedited the transfer of information.

Generally Used Methods for Service Control

In many ways, industrial companies and service organizations are not the same. The planning and control procedures used in manufacturing organizations and service organizations vary greatly as a result of these distinctions. Some general management and control strategies are used by service companies.

Management of Capacity

Managing customer service supply and demand is the focus of capacity management. It is a crucial component of managing service companies since it aids in maintaining the standard of care provided to clients, addressing the degree of demand ambiguity, and adjusting capacity to the market's rapidly shifting needs. The effectiveness of the service is determined by capacity management and service quality. The planning and control of service operations are based on the interplay of productivity, capacity management, and service quality.

Strategies for capacity management

Distinct tactics are used by organizations to manage their capacity. They're Businesses that provide customer development services aim to win over clients' loyalty by offering loyalty programs and free trials of their products.

Bundling

A discount is offered to the client when two or more services are promoted together. Differentiation In order to be ready to deal with extraordinary circumstances, some of the capacity is left inactive during regular operations.

A popular mathematical model in capacity management is queuing theory. This makes it possible to mathematically analyze a number of connected operations, such as entering the queue, waiting in line, and receiving service from the person at the head of the line.

CONCLUSION

Complexity, ambiguity, change resistance, and ethical issues are going to be important aspects of management control systems in the future. Management control systems have to deal with a number of stakeholders, conflicting agendas, and interrelated hazards as businesses becoming increasingly complicated and interconnected. Traditional control methods are challenged by ambiguity and uncertainty, necessitating more dynamic and adaptable approaches to management control on the part of businesses. The implementation of novel management control approaches might be impeded by resistance to change stemming from deeply ingrained corporate cultures, legacy systems, and apprehension about disruption. The design and implementation of management control systems must take ethical issues and risks—such as

data privacy, cybersecurity, and responsible technology use—into account. The strategic ramifications of management control systems in the future need enterprises to foster innovation, harness technology, develop human capital, and integrate sustainability into their control systems. Innovation requires a culture of experimenting, learning, and adaptation in order for enterprises to remain ahead of the curve and adjust to changing market dynamics. The use of technology, such as artificial intelligence (AI), blockchain, and the Internet of Things (IoT), presents prospects for augmenting the efficacy and efficiency of management control systems. These technologies provide real-time monitoring, predictive analytics, and job automation. In order for businesses to draw in, nurture, and keep talented workers who are capable of creating, implementing, and running complex management control systems, talent management is essential. Integrating sustainability into management control systems is essential, and ESG goals and objectives must be reflected in measurements, incentives, and governance structures.

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CHAPTER 12

CONTROL OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT:

Controlling service organizations poses unique challenges compared to controlling manufacturing firms due to the intangible nature of services, the diversity of service offerings, and the dynamic nature of service delivery. This paper provides a comprehensive analysis of the control mechanisms applicable to different categories of service organizations, including professional services, financial services, healthcare, and hospitality. Through an in-depth exploration, this study aims to elucidate the complexities of controlling service organizations, highlighting strategies, challenges, and best practices for effective control in each category. Professional service organizations, such as law firms, accounting firms, and consulting firms, rely on human capital and expertise to deliver services to clients. Control mechanisms in professional service organizations focus on monitoring billable hours, project budgets, client satisfaction, and employee productivity. Time tracking systems, project management software, and client feedback mechanisms are commonly used to monitor and evaluate performance, ensure compliance with quality standards, and mitigate risks related to client engagements.

KEYWORDS:

Risk Management, Strategic Planning, Total Quality Management (TQM), Value-Based Management, Balanced Scorecard, Business Process Reengineering.

INTRODUCTION

The two most often used models are threshold curves and models based on economics. Using the aviation sector as an example, the following can be said about the threshold curve and economics-based model:

Models based on economics

In the airline business, selling tickets at concession or premium prices is a common occurrence. Concession rate demand often outpaces premium rate demand by a significant margin. Organizations must determine a limit on the quantity of seats that may be offered at a concession rate in light of this trend. A low ceiling might lead to idle inventory, while a high ceiling can cost you premium clients. Players in the airline sector employ an economics-based marginal revenue model to overcome this problem [1], [2].

Curve of threshold

The threshold curve is created by using historical seat-related data. Historical trends are gathered, and threshold curves are built with the historical aggregate demand patterns in mind. Plotting the current trends versus the prediction follows the construction of these curves.

Management of Service Quality

In contrast to manufacturing companies, where a product's quality is determined by meeting a set of standard criteria, the primary determinant of quality in service businesses is the customer's perception of what they get and whether it satisfies their expectations. The three Ps

of service quality, or the three primary elements of service quality, are Physical setups and procedures include the procedure, the location, the atmosphere, and the services that are provided. People's behaviors include their capacity to solve problems and their manner of interacting with others. Integrity, expertise, and experience of a professional in the subject are all considered components of professional opinion [3], [4].

Six Sigma Standards for the Service Sector

The method of providing services and the individuals who carry them out are the main determinants of service quality. The following are some of the variables that affect the service delivery process's quality.

The senior management of service firms must create service quality standards with the expectations of their consumers in mind in order to regulate and enhance the quality of their offerings. The management must provide the staff with the required training and tools to ensure they have the requisite knowledge, abilities, and character qualities once the service standards have been established. The organization's management should make sure that all staff members are informed of the organization's goals, tactics, core principles, and standards for excellence as well as what is expected of them. The service provider should make sure that the proper information and message are sent to clients, and that there is sufficient publicity about the service. The company has to make sure it fulfills all of its commitments. Monitoring whether or not consumers believe that the service they get meets their expectations is crucial for the firm. This is accomplished by asking clients for comments and/or ideas about the quality of the service [5], [6].

Assessing the quality of services

Two crucial methods for assessing the quality of a service are

By carrying out an audit of service quality "An independent evaluation of service quality to determine its fitness for use and conformance to specification" is how J.M. Juran describes a service quality audit. By gathering input from clients Information on client satisfaction levels is gathered via the usage of a customer feedback system. These systems assist the company in determining the degree of client satisfaction with each service they have received as well as whether or not they were happy with their interactions with the company.

Six Sigma methodology for improving service quality

By reducing faults, mistakes, and flaws in their operations, Six Sigma helps to increase the efficacy and efficiency of the services. Organizations may lower process variability and achieve targeted service performance levels with the use of the Six Sigma methodology. Six Sigma seeks to decrease errors in the services industry by comprehending how they occur and creating process enhancements to address them. In the end, this leads to higher levels of consumer satisfaction. The company may gain from Six Sigma in both the operational and human resource domains.

In terms of human resources, it results in improved cross-functional collaboration. Employee morale and work satisfaction have improved as a result of a better grasp of problem-solving techniques. Because the judgments are based on facts rather than conjecture, it improves the quality of decisions made operationally. Quicker service delivery as a result of removing procedures that are unnecessary. Reduction of expenses brought on by complaints, delayed deliveries, etc. Improved consistency of outcomes as a consequence of decreased process variability [7], [8].

Six Sigma implementation problems

One of the biggest problems in implementing Six Sigma in a company is the lack of comprehensive and reliable data. Since most data must be obtained from consumers, the organization often has little control over the data's quality. Measuring customer satisfaction is additionally challenging due to higher levels of human connection and the effect of human qualities like friendliness that consumers appreciate.

Recuperated Services

Service failure results from a mismatch between what consumers anticipate and how they perceive the quality of the service they get. The steps a service provider takes to address a situation of service failure are referred to as service recovery. Among the problems and difficulties that service firms go across while providing services are Lack of a service technician when an equipment requires maintenance Service delivery is delayed Ineffective service management

One of the most important procedures in the service sector is the service recovery process as it is at this point that clients are more concerned with the company's treatment of them. Enhancing customer satisfaction is mostly the responsibility of the person in charge of the service recovery process. There are two methods to assess services: one is focused on the outcomes, and the other on the manner in which the services were provided. When a service is assessed at its first phase of purchase, the client usually concentrates on the outcome, but when it is assessed during service recovery, the emphasis is more likely to be on the method of delivery [9], [10].

Customer switching and service failure

When a current client leaves and joins a rival business, this is known as customer switching. Losses and a decline in market share are the outcomes of customer switching. A major factor in customer switching is the lack of prompt and efficient service recovery. Because it is more expensive to acquire new customers than it is to keep current ones, service businesses look for different ways to lower the rate at which consumers move. Keaveney found eight distinct explanations for why clients go to other service providers when service organizations fail to meet their needs. Service recovery can help with five of these reasons.

Grouping Service Providers

The process of classifying services helps in developing policies for carrying out the best service plan in order to increase an organization's profitability. A better understanding of the demands of the consumer is facilitated by the categorization collaboration between ideas and tactics. Considering that categorization facilitates the transfer of knowledge from one service sector to another. Prior service organization classifications relied on criteria typically applied to industrial companies. Other categories failed to take into account the systems used by service firms or the idea that clients are an essential component of service operations.

Characteristics of Service Organization Classification

Research on the categorization of service organizations identified six distinct factors that might serve as the foundation for these kinds of classifications.

Synopsis

Equipment concentration, human concentration while the tool or machine used to provide the service is significant with an equipment focus, the representatives of the company providing the service are more significant in a people focus. Process emphasis, product focus While process focus is concerned with how the purchase is impacted, product focus is concerned with what the buyer purchases.

Amount of personalization

This relates to how much a service meets the needs of a specific consumer or whether it is standardized, and it affects the process of providing services. A service may provide a great degree of customisation to cater to the unique demands of each consumer, or it may be very conventional.

Front office/back office priorities

The front office or the back office may handle the majority of the value addition in the service.

Length of the customer interaction

This is the length of time a client stays in a service system, and it is closely tied to the inseparability element of service delivery. Because the consumer spends less time with the company while receiving low contact services, their influence over the service delivery process is less than it is for high contact services.

DISCUSSION

The "degree of variation" dimension affects how service quality is managed. Conversely, the productivity component of the services is linked to the throughput time dimension. Operational control is often concerned with the characteristics of service quality and productivity in service companies. Managers may attempt to decrease the relative throughput time as well as the degree of variation in order to concurrently boost productivity and service quality. Put another way, they try to move their company from one of the three previously mentioned categories into the service factory category.

Organizations that Provide Professional Services

Professional services are defined by a high degree of variety, a high relative throughput time, highly competent or educated staff members, and the freedom to make choices on their own. Because employees are essential to an organization's operations, human resources are regarded as its most valuable asset class. Professional services require a higher level of interaction between the client and the service provider, where the client determines the requirements for the service that must be provided, and the service provider influences how the service will be delivered. In the service system, a long-term relationship is formed, which makes it challenging to automate organizational procedures. Professional service firms must prioritize human resource management due to their significant reliance on the employees who provide their services. As a result, the company must become pickier and pickier about who it hires; in other words, personnel management takes precedence over behavioral control. It is important for professional service businesses to provide their workers the freedom to use judgment while interacting with clients [9], [10].

Service Shops and Mass Services

High relative throughput times and minimal degree of fluctuation define mass services. Reducing throughput times should be the primary goal of mass services, since this will increase production. Throughput time may be decreased by identifying and removing "waste" sources, such as incomplete or inaccurate data, awkward locations for service delivery facilities, waiting, pointless stages in the process, and flaws in the product or service. Higher service quality in terms of dependability, accessibility, responsiveness, etc., might also arise from such trash removal.

Schmenner states that when it comes to mass services, tangibles, responsiveness, competence, access, and reliability are the key factors that determine service quality. One challenge in mass service management is that consumers may perceive a lower level of responsiveness as a result of fewer variations. The workforce can be trained in the necessary skills to address this issue. To improve customer loyalty and retention, proper monitoring of client feedback should be implemented. Low relative throughput times and a high degree of variation are characteristics of service shops. The challenge of managing the service shops usually centers on minimizing the differences by standardizing the services and attempting to disperse the overhead expenses across a larger number of service units without sacrificing the throughput time.

Factories for Services

Low relative throughput times and a low degree of fluctuation define service factories. Low levels of customisation and interaction, or variety, in services must be managed via the creation of standard operating procedures that need little staff creativity while interacting with clients. Because of this, it is essential that the service factory employ people who are knowledgeable about standard operating procedures. The following factors often need to be taken into account when evaluating service quality in a service factory: tangibles, responsiveness, recovery, and competence [11], [12].

Project Management and Control

In this unit, we will learn the importance of project control, how to use the project plan and project overview statement as the foundation for control, and why project auditing is necessary. Lastly, we will talk about resource use and conservation in projects. If organizations can find viable projects and carry them out successfully, they can succeed in their business endeavors, regardless of whether they are project-based or not. The importance of project control and how to use the project overview statement as the foundation for control will be covered in this unit. The utilization of the project plan as the main control mechanism and the significance of organization for project control will next be covered. We will also go over the principles of overall change control and how to manage a project's execution. Lastly, we'll go over the project auditing procedure and resource use and conservation in projects.

Project Control

Project managers need to concentrate on how to effectively manage the resources needed to finish projects and achieve the goals set forth by the project sponsor. The amount of resources needed can differ from project to project. In resource management, people, money, time, quality, etc. are all managed. The following elements affect a project's likelihood of success:

Clearly defining the project's objectives prior to the project's start, the project's stakeholders agree on the success elements. To guarantee project success, senior management's support and engagement are required thorough project preparation continuous cooperation between the project manager and sponsor, including the sponsor's participation in important talks and choices made throughout the project's design and implementation. The project personnel's technical and management proficiency, troubleshooting skills, and adaptability

Information systems, communication channels, coordination techniques, and progress review are all part of project control systems. The project team and other parties participating in different project functions are under the project manager's authority. Project control aims to accomplish the following: plan and organize the work to meet effectiveness and efficiency targets; execute the work to perform near plan; appropriately modify the project plan; and preserve and guarantee appropriate resource utilization.

Project control systems are necessary to monitor the project's advancement concerning schedule, budget, and output quality. A crucial part of the project life cycle, the cybernetic process in project control includes planning for control, evaluating performance, and implementing corrective measures. Selecting what, how, and when to monitor and regulate is part of the planning of control. Evaluating real performance and contrasting it with anticipated performance constitutes assessment. Analyzing the causes of the performance gap between actual and planned performance and implementing corrective measures are the main tasks involved in taking corrective action. A project's ability to be completed successfully hinges on how issues are found and dealt with right away. The control activity is necessary to maintain an eye on the output's quality, cost, and timeliness. It is better to consider it as exercise that leads the project team toward goal-directed conduct rather than as a means of coercion. Example: Uncovering the Observational Method's Potential

An observational method was one of the project control techniques that the construction company Mott MacDonald adopted. The project team was able to exercise controls over the construction works and use risk mitigation measures to protect the works or generate cost savings since the observational approach connected both design and monitoring data. Project control was essential to obtaining timely and relevant information to meet the demands of the project's stakeholders. Measures of resources used, status and achievements, comparisons of measures to standards and predictions, and efficient diagnosis and replanning were all part of this management process.

An overview of the project as the foundation for control

A precise statement of the goals for the project's execution is necessary for effective project management. The product scope, which contains information about the features and quality standards needed in the good or service that has to be provided, is where the output requirements are documented. The project goal and its intended method of achievement are clearly stated in the project overview statement. An Example of River Inter-Linking Initiatives

In August 1980, the Ministry of Irrigation created a National Perspective Plan with the purpose of developing water resources via interbasin water transfers and moving water from basins with surpluses to basins with deficits. The National Water Development Agency has created Project Feasibility Reports and identified thirty linkages. According to NPP, which serves as the project foundation, the Central Government has been aggressively pursuing the inter-linking of rivers program via consultation and has been funding projects as needed in yearly budgets. The Finance Minister stated in her 2022–2023 Budget Speech that the draft detailed project reports for the Damanganga–Pinjal, Godavari–Krishna Krishna–Pennar, Par–Tapi–Narmada, and Pennar–Cauvery were being reviewed. The implementation of the Ken–Betwa rivers linking is expected to cost ₹44,605 crore. Since they never got to the point of implementation, no money was set aside for river interconnection projects like the Godavari–Cauvery link project. Nonetheless, the government budget for 2022–2023 included ₹1,400 crore for the project of connecting rivers.

The needs of the users, the project sponsor, and other pertinent stakeholders must be taken into consideration while determining the project's scope. It should include information about the tasks to be completed and the materials needed to finish the project. If a project includes more than one phase, each phase's scope should be specified in detail. The problem or opportunity, the general project goal, the specific objectives, and the criteria for determining a successful project completion are all included in the project overview statement. Other elements include the anticipated risks and obstacles that could significantly affect the project's progress and completion, as well as the underlying assumptions. The involved project stakeholders must

concur on the project scope in order to maintain project control. Following the agreement, the project overview statement directs the project manager's decision-making throughout project execution and serves as the foundation for efficient project management throughout subsequent phases of the project's execution. It may not, however, provide the degree of specificity that the project team members need. The project team may create a thorough project definition statement that each member of the project team can use as a standard reference. In order to steer the project team members in the proper direction throughout project execution, this statement will be in line with the project overview statement.

The Project Plan as the Main Control System

Any business that wants to oversee and carry out a project might create a formal document called a project management plan. It is the most important document that must be properly created before a project is carried out. Due to its involvement in schedule formulation, resource planning, cost estimate for each resource, and activity cost budgeting, it is regarded as a fundamental control mechanism. It is essential to a project's effective completion. Gati Shakti National Master Plan, for instance

The goal of the Gati Shakti National Master Plan was to establish multimodal connectivity, primarily via digital platforms. The Government of India initiated the initiative with the aim of uniting 16 departments, such as roads and railways, to create an integrated infrastructure connection planning for their respective departmental projects. On a centralized digital platform that has been launched, every department has access to project data on the work on infrastructure projects that other departments are working on. Nearly all departments have benefited from this in terms of effective project planning and execution. Additionally, it reduced project delays throughout the various ministries and resolved coordination-related project management issues. By providing integrated and seamless connectivity for the movement of people, goods, and services, the plan aimed to transform India into a world-class infrastructure hub. It was anticipated that the use of a centralized portal for mega projects like □ 100 lakh crore Gati Shakti would reduce logistics costs by 8%, from earlier 15%. The project scope definition is the first step in creating the project plan. The tasks that must be completed for a certain scope are determined, along with their sequence-dependent relationships, and the work needed to complete each task is calculated. A project schedule is then created. The project manager follows the schedule to concentrate on the critical path, which is where any delay in finishing an activity will cause a delay in finishing the project. Following schedule finalization, resource planning, resource cost estimating, and activity cost budgeting are all part of developing the project plan. At this point, the project manager may assess if there are ways to shorten the project's overall time at the expense of increased expenses. The goals of the company and the requirements of the project stakeholders would determine this trade-off between effectiveness and efficiency.

Establishing quality standards and figuring out how to ensure quality assurance, planning for hiring new employees, outlining roles, duties, and reporting lines among project team members, identifying communication needs of various stakeholders and how to meet them, identifying and evaluating risks, and other things are all part of preparing the overall project plan. The project sponsor must approve the project plan before it can be used as the primary source of control throughout project execution.

Major stages are concluded by project milestones, which are specified in the project plan. They act as checkpoints for executive decision-making, signaling "go" or "no go." The project sponsor is informed of the interim project result at each milestone, and they use this information to choose whether to proceed with the project or not. Progress is reviewed and evaluated on a

regular basis. The frequency of reviews varies both inside and across project phases, depending on factors such as risk assessments and the allocation of overall work among the stages.

Setting Up for Project Control

Project-driven firms often use the matrix organization structure, which combines the benefits of the pure functional and product organization models. The project employs a temporary grouping of different resources to accomplish a goal, and the project teams are established inside the conventional line and staff structure. One department may oversee many project teams, or several departments may oversee one project team. Regardless of the situation, the departmental managers and the project manager are the people that the project participants answer to. Since the project and functional managers need to share the same workforce for their respective tasks, this might result in conflict between them. To reduce these kinds of confrontations, managers have to make an effort to order their tasks and responsibilities.

Matrix Organization Types

A matrix organization may be categorized as weak, strong, or balanced depending on the relative strength of the functional and project managers. The Weak Matrix In this kind of organization, the project manager is subordinate to the functional manager. The structure of the company may be such that employees' success is evaluated only on how well they contribute to the department or functions, not the project. Employees will be more devoted to their roles in such a scenario, and working on the project may feel like an additional responsibility to them. Under such circumstances, the project manager will not have any control over the personnel, even if they are in charge of organizing and overseeing the project. A conflict of interest might emerge between the functional manager and the project manager because personnel who focus more on function impede project development, while project focus affects departmental and functional operations. Furthermore, because their performance is entirely dependent on functional performance, the workers will not be interested in the latter. Because of this, the project manager works in a weak matrix organization.

The Strong Matrix Project managers, not functional managers, are accountable to the employees in a strong matrix company. Nevertheless, human resource management is not within the project managers' purview. Because the project manager's feedback is used to evaluate the workforce's performance in this instance, it aids in improved workforce management. The employees will be more dedicated to the project as a consequence. The functional manager works to make resources accessible, while the project manager creates plans about labor needs. Even though the functional manager and the project work together in this approach, the project manager has ultimate authority over all project-related operations.

The Balanced Matrix: Based on the two scenarios we just covered, it seems that one side has more influence than the other. This suggests that there is a potential for a decline in project performance or functional performance. As a result, the organization's performance is subpar. The management should make an effort to balance the function and the project in order to prevent this issue. There are many methods to do this. The management may create guidelines to assign tasks to managers based on the circumstances, or it can base performance reviews on both the project and the function. But achieving a win-win scenario for both the functional managers and the project managers should always be the aim.

Members' Duties in Project Management

By following the project plan, each team member should be able to accomplish the project's goals. A Linear Responsibility Chart may be used to assist distinguish between each project

member's duties and tasks connected to control. Three phases may be used to structure the LRC for project control. The units are labeled in the chart's top right corner, with the project units positioned apart from the non-project units. There are no line relationships shown in the project by this arrangement. The project control process's control tasks are shown on the chart's left side. To improve understanding, they are organized based on project phases. The link between units and control tasks is represented by symbols. Utilizing "Relationship Category-Task," this is possible.

CONCLUSION

Financial service providers, such as banks, insurance providers, and investment businesses, must adhere to strict regulations in order to maintain the stability, integrity, and security of financial systems. Financial services companies use internal audits, risk management, regulatory compliance, and fraud prevention as control techniques. Financial institutions are kept stable and resilient by compliance frameworks, such as Basel III for banks and Solvency II for insurance firms, which set standards for capital adequacy, risk management, and reporting. Due to the complexity of healthcare delivery, patient safety concerns, and regulatory obligations, healthcare organizations including hospitals, clinics, and healthcare networks face particular control issues. Healthcare businesses prioritize financial performance and operational efficiency with patient care quality, safety, and results via control systems. To monitor and enhance patient care procedures, lower medical mistakes, and guarantee compliance with legal requirements such as HIPAA in the US electronic health record (EHR) systems, clinical guidelines, and quality improvement programs are used.

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