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P.G. Diploma in Sports Management

I - Semester

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PRINCIPLES OF SPORTS MANAGEMENT

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SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE
Principles of Sports Management

Syllabi	Mapping in Book
BLOCK-1: MANAGEMENT AND PHILOSOPHY **Unit-1:** Introduction - The meaning of Management - The Functions of Management - Planning - Organizing - Leading - Evaluating. **Unit-2:** The skills of Management - Technical skill - Human skill - Conceptual skill. **Unit-3:** The Roles of a Manager - Interpersonal roles - Informational Roles - Decisional roles - The Management process in overview - the universal nature of the management process - Management and Administration. **Unit-4:** Philosophy - Functions of sports philosophy - a philosophy of sports results in the improvement of professional - A philosophy of sports essential to professional education - A philosophy of sports guides the professional - A philosophy of sports provides direction for the professional and individual programs - A philosophy of sports makes society aware that contributes to its values - Profession closer together - Sports and general education - Sports educators.	**Unit 1:** Introduction to Management **(Pages 1-13);** **Unit 2:** Managerial Skills **(Pages 14-18);** **Unit 3:** Managerial Roles **(Pages 19-28);** **Unit 4:** Philosophy in Sports **(Pages 29-42)**
BLOCK-2: PRINCIPLE AND THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING CONSTRAINTS **Unit-5:** Principles of management - Division of work - Authority and responsibility - Discipline - Unity of command - Unity of direction - Subordination of individual interest to general interest - Remuneration - Centralization - Scalar chain - Order - Equity - Stability of tenure - Initiative - Sprit de crops. **Unit-6:** Theories of management - Mc Gregor's Theory X and Theory Y - The path-Goal theory of leader effectiveness - The Adaptive-Reactive theory. **Unit-7:** Steps in the planning process - Rationality in planning - Planning and Decision making - Problem of organizational goals - Information and planning - Directional planning - Planning and sport organizations - Steps in the planning process. **Unit-8:** Specification of goals - Identification of constraints -Authoritative constraints - Biological constraints - Physical constraints - Generation of Alternatives.	**Unit 5:** Management Principles **(Pages 43-49);** **Unit 6:** Theories of Management **(Pages 50-58);** **Unit 7:** Process of Planning **(Pages 59-85);** **Unit 8:** Goals, Constraints and Alternatives **(Pages 86-92)**
BLOCK-3: SIGNIFICANCE OF PLANNING & BASIS OF GOALS **Unit-9:** Establishment of performance criteria - Evaluation of alternatives - Selection of an alternative - The plan document - Rationality in planning - Planning and decision making - Model of the Economic person - Model of an administrative person. **Unit-10:** The implicit favorite model - Problem of organizational goals - Goals as a Chain of means and ends. **Unit-11:** Official and Operative Goals - Genesis of official goals - Operative goals	**Unit 9:** Criteria, Alternatives and Rationality in Decision Making **(Pages 93-105);** **Unit 10:** Implicit Favourite Model and Problems of Organizational Goals **(Pages 106-116);** **Unit 11:** Official and Operative Goals **(Pages 117-124)**
BLOCK-4: DIRECTIONAL PLANNING AND GOALS AND ORGANISATION **Unit-12:** Official goal - Operative goals - Genesis of operative goals - Educational objective - Athletic objectives - Goals and Constraints. **Unit-13:** Information and planning - Forecasting - Nominal group techniques - The rolling fore cast - Alternative generation - Directional planning - Directional planning and official goals. **Unit-14:** Planning and sport organizations - Private sector organizations - Public sector organizations - Third sector organizations.	**Unit 12:** Educational and Athletic Goals and Constraints **(Pages 125-132);** **Unit 13:** Planning and Forecast **(Pages 133-143);** **Unit 14:** Planning and Sport Organizations **(Pages 144-160)**

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INTRODUCTION

Sports management is a vast and varied industry. It draws on aspects of marketing, law, finance and business, with a specific focus on the sports sector. One can find sport managers working for professional sports teams, colleges and universities, recreation departments or sport marketing firms. As event and facility managers, sports economists, promotions experts and more.

Today's sport managers face a complex web of difficult and exciting challenges. No longer does a manager sit in an ivory tower and issue directives from a distance. The traditional authority structure is giving way to employee involvement, work teams, group spirit, participative decision-making, lateral relationships, flexible work structures and more. This book will help you understand how sports management is becoming more and more aware that an organisation has no life but for the people in it. Accordingly, it is becoming more and more people-oriented as against task-oriented of the previous years. The job of a sports manager is one of the most rewarding, most exciting and most challenging of professions. Effective managers are effective leaders who can (and do) make significant contributions to society through the output of their industrial or service organisations such as businesses, universities, hospitals, government agencies and so on.

This book, *Principles of Sports Management*, is divided into fourteen units that follow the self-instruction mode with each unit beginning with an Introduction to the unit, followed by an outline of the Objectives. The detailed content is then presented in a simple but structured manner interspersed with Check Your Progress Questions to test the student's understanding of the topic. A Summary along with a list of Key Words and a set of Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit for recapitulation.

| BLOCK - I |
| MANAGEMENT AND PHILOSOPHY |

UNIT 1   INTRODUCTION TO MANAGEMENT

Structure

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Although proper definitions of management have only recently come into being, the act of 'management' has existed since time immemorial.

'Management' as a term refers to a range of activities undertaken in order to successfully complete a task. Simply put, management is all about getting things done. It refers to the process used to achieve a certain target or fulfil a specific goal. No wonder it is said to be an art as well as a science. Organizations across the world, irrespective of whether they are political, cultural, social or business, thrive on their management strategies or skills.

1.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define management
- Describe the functions of management
- Explain management as a science and as an art

1.2 MEANING OF MANAGEMENT

Management in some form or another is an integral part of living and is essential wherever human efforts are to be undertaken to achieve desired objectives. The basic ingredients of management are always at play whether we manage our lives or our business.

Example: Let us look at how a housewife uses managerial ingredients in managing the home. First of all, she appraises her household and its needs. She forecasts the needs of the household for the period of a week or a month or longer. She takes stock of her resources and any constraints on them. She plans and organizes her resources to obtain the maximum benefits out of these resources. She monitors and controls the household budget and expenses and other activities. In a large household, she divides the work among other members and coordinates their activities. She encourages and motivates them to do their best in completing their activities. She work towards improving goals and resources and the means to attain these goals. These tasks, generally, are the basic functions of management.

Management, as a system, is not only an essential element of an organized society but also an integral part of life when we talk about managing our lives. Managing life is similar to managing an organization. This 'art' of management has been with us from time immemorial. Just as a well-managed life is much better organized, goal oriented and successful, 'good' management of an organization makes the difference between the success and the failure of an organization. Perhaps, the importance of management was highlighted by the late President of the United States, John F. Kennedy when he said that, the role of management in our society is critical to human progress. It serves to identify a great need of our time: to improve standards of living for all people through effective utilization of human and material resources.

A manager's job is highly crucial to the success of any organization. The more complex the organization, the more crucial is the manager's role in it. A good manager makes things happen.

Definition of Management

Many management thinkers have defined management in their own ways. For example, Van Fleet and Peterson define management, 'as a set of activities directed at the efficient and effective utilization of resources in the pursuit of one or more goals.' Figure 1.1 shows the components of management.
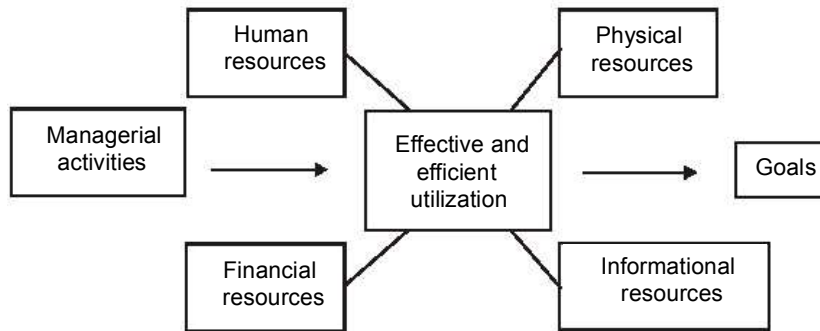
Fig 1.1 Components of Management

Megginson, Mosley and Pietri define management as 'working with human, financial and physical resources to achieve organizational objectives by performing the planning, organizing, leading and controlling functions'. Figure 1.2 represents this definition of management.
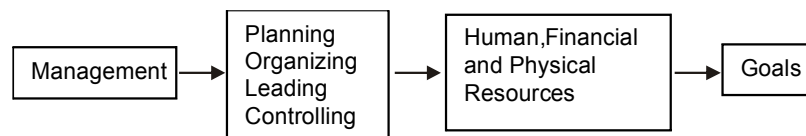
Fig 1.2 Megginson, Mosley and Pietri's Management Definition

Kreitner considers management as a problem solving process. In his book, *Management: A Problem Solving Process* (Houghton Mifflin, 1980), R. Kreitner, defines management as follows:

'Management is a problem solving process of effectively achieving organizational objectives through the efficient use of scarce resources in a changing environment.'

Some of the integral elements of this definition can be separated and briefly explained as follows:

1. **Problem solving process**: One of the most important functions of a manager is to make decisions and solve problems. Some of the major problems that management must continually face include unpredictable economic trends, changing governmental regulations, resource shortages and a severe competition for these resources, employee demands, technical problems, technological developments and so on. There are other problems that are comparatively routine in nature and can be solved by some tried and tested mechanisms.

   Example: A change in production quality can be easily tackled by close supervision.

2. **Organizational objectives**: All organizations have a mission that is the very basic reason for their existence and certain goals and objectives. While the goals are long range and more general in nature, objectives are more specific, tangible and most often quantifiable.

   Example: The mission of a college may be high-quality education, its goal may be to primarily serve the educational needs of the surrounding community and its objective may be to increase the number of new students entering the college by ten per cent in two years. The primary objective of most organizations is to provide a service for the public. Of course, such service has to be profitable for the organization in monetary terms, for that is the essence of a capitalist economy. Accordingly, management must plan its activities along these lines. Additionally, it is also the management's responsibility to integrate the personal objectives of the employees into organizational objectives. The personal objectives of employees may include higher remuneration, more challenging tasks and responsibilities and participation in the decision-making process.

3. **Efficiency**: Efficiency, along with effectiveness, is the most common way of measuring organizational performance. Efficiency is the ability to 'get things done correctly.' An efficient manager achieves a higher output with given resources of time, talents and capital so that these resources are fully utilized without waste. Similarly, effectiveness means 'doing the right things in the right way at the right time.' Accordingly, successful managers would not only be effective in terms of selecting the right things to do and the right methods for getting them done, but they would also be efficient in fully utilizing the resources.

4. **Scarce resources**: The resources of people, time, capital and raw materials are all finite and limited. They are all scarce in nature and not expandable. Additionally, there is a fierce competition for acquiring these resources. Management, basically, is a 'trusteeship' of these resources and hence must make conscious efforts to make the most of these resources.

5. **Changing environment**: The dynamics of the environment is influenced by the changes that have taken place in all areas in the last few years. The advent of computers and telecommunications technology has changed the ways in which the assessment of the environment is carried out for decision-making purposes. Accordingly, management must be prepared to predict these changes and formulate ways to meet these new challenges more effectively.

1.3   FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

There are basically five primary functions of management. These are:

1. Planning   2. Organizing

3. Staffing   4. Directing

5. Controlling

The controlling function comprises coordinating, reporting and budgeting. Hence, if this function can be broken into three separate functions coordinating, reporting and budgeting. Based upon these seven functions, Luther Guelick coined the word POSDCORB, which generally represents the initials of these seven functions. All the primary functions are explained and discussed as follows.

Planning

Planning is future oriented and determines an organization's direction. It is a rational and systematic way of making decisions today that will affect the future of the company. It is a kind of organized foresight as well as corrective hindsight. It involves predicting the future as well as attempting to control the events. It involves the ability to foresee the effects of current actions in the long run in future. **Example:** Business planning, project planning, strategic planning (vision, mission) etc. communications plans, research design planning etc.

Organizing

Organizing requires a formal structure of authority and the direction and flow of such authority through which work sub-divisions are defined, arranged and coordinated so that each part relates to the other part in a united and coherent manner so as to attain the prescribed objectives. Thus the function of organizing involves determining the activities that need to be done in order to reach the company goals, assigning these activities to the proper personnel and delegating the necessary authority to carry out these activities in a coordinated and cohesive manner. It follows, therefore, that the function of organizing is concerned with:

1. Identifying the tasks that must be performed and grouping them whenever necessary

2. Assigning these tasks to the personnel while defining their authority and responsibility

3. Delegating the authority to these employees

4. Establishing a relationship between authority and responsibility

5. Coordinating these activities.

When a new project begins, the manager identifies the groups best suited to handle the project. He then breaks down the activity into small parts and assigns each part to the person most suitable to handle it. He lets these 'leaders' know that

they are responsible for getting these tasks done and gives them the authority to do all that is necessary to complete the task. He assigns them deadlines and takes an update from these 'leaders' every morning to get an idea of the progress of the project.

Staffing

Staffing is the function of hiring and retaining a suitable workforce for the enterprise both at managerial as well as non-managerial levels. It involves the process of recruiting, training, developing, compensating and evaluating employees, and maintaining this workforce with proper incentives and motivations. Since the human element is the most vital factor in the process of management, it is important to recruit the right personnel. This function is even more critically important since people differ in their intelligence, knowledge, skills, experience, physical condition, age and attitude, and this complicates the function. Hence, management must understand, in addition to the technical and operational competence, the sociological and psychological structure of the workforce.

Directing

The directing function is concerned with leadership, communication, motivation and supervision so that the employees perform their activities in the most efficient manner possible, in order to achieve the desired goals. The leadership element involves issuing the instructions and guiding the subordinates about procedures and methods. The communication must be open both ways so that the information can be passed on to the subordinates and the feedback received from them. Motivation is very important, since highly motivated people show excellent performance with less direction from superiors. Supervising subordinates would give continuous progress reports as well as assure the superiors that the directions are being properly carried out.

Controlling

The controlling function consists of those activities that are undertaken to ensure that the events do not deviate from the prearranged plans. The activities consist of establishing standards for work performance, measuring performance and comparing it to these set standards and taking corrective actions as and when needed, to correct any deviations. All these five functions of management are closely interrelated. However, these functions are highly indistinguishable and virtually unrecognizable in a job. It is necessary, though, to put each function separately into focus and deal with it.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring and Evaluation is another function of a manager that helps improve performance and achieve results. Its goal is to improve current and future management of outputs, outcomes and impact.

1.4 MANAGEMENT – A SCIENCE OR AN ART

Generally, a controversy arises with the question whether management is a science or an art. It is said that management is the oldest of arts and the youngest of science. This explains the changing nature of management. But in order to have an exact answer to the question, it is necessary to understand the meaning of the terms 'science' and 'art'.

Management as a Science

Before trying to examine whether management is a science or not, we have to understand the nature of science. Science may be described as a systematized body of knowledge pertaining to an act of study and contains some general truths explaining past events or phenomena. It is systematized in the sense that relationships between variables and their limits have been ascertained and underlying principles have been discovered. Three important characteristics of science are:

 (i) It is a systematized body of knowledge and uses scientific methods for observation.

 (ii) Its principles are evolved on the basis of continued observation and experiment.

(iii) Its principles are exact and have universal applicability without any limitation.

Examples of scientific principles are that two atoms of hydrogen and one atom of oxygen form one molecule of water. Another example is that according to the law of gravitation if anything is thrown towards the sky it will come down to the earth.

Judging from these criteria, it may be observed that management too is a systematized body of knowledge and its principles have evolved on the basis of observation, not necessarily through the use of scientific methods. However, if we consider science as a discipline in the sense of natural science, one is able to experiment by keeping all factors and then varying them one at a time. In natural science, it is possible to repeat the same conditions over and over again, which enables the scientist to experiment and to obtain a proof. This kind of experimentation cannot be done in the art of management since we are dealing with the human element. This puts a limitation on management as a science. It may be designated as an 'inexact' or 'soft science'.

Management as an Art

Art refers to the 'know-how to accomplish a desired result'. The focus is on doing things in one way. As the saying goes 'practice makes a man perfect', constant practice of the theoretical concepts (knowledge base) contributes to the formation of skills. Skills can be acquired only through practice. In a way, the attributes of science and art are two sides of a coin. Medicine, engineering, accountancy and the like require skills on the part of the practitioners and can only be acquired through practice. Management is no exception.

Effective practice of any art requires a thorough understanding of the science underlying it. Thus, science and art are not mutually exclusive, but are complementary. Executives who attempt to manage without the conceptual understanding of the management principles and techniques have to depend on luck and intuition. With organized knowledge and the necessary skill to use such knowledge, they have a better chance to succeed. Therefore, it may be concluded that management is both a science and an art.

1.4.1 Management Levels

As the organizations grow larger and more complex, they usually develop several levels of managerial positions, forming a hierarchy of superior and subordinate reporting relationships. Traditionally, there are three managerial levels, which are usually depicted in the form of a hierarchical pyramid. The total number of personnel found at each level decreases as the management level increases up the pyramid. The largest number of people in the organization are at the lower organizational level at the bottom of the pyramid and these people operate in a non-managerial capacity. This group consists of individual contributors who are simply the employees who work under the guidance of their supervisors. Figure 1.3 shows these levels of management.

Top Level Managers

The top-level managers, also known as 'central management,' and are ultimately responsible for the entire organization. Top executives such as chief executive officer (CEO), chairman of the board of directors, president, executive vice-presidents and various vice-presidents are all top-level managers. These managers are primarily involved in broad organizational matters such as policy formulation, long-range strategic planning, goal setting and development of organizational strategies. They deal with all elements and forces that affect the survival, stability and growth of the organization.
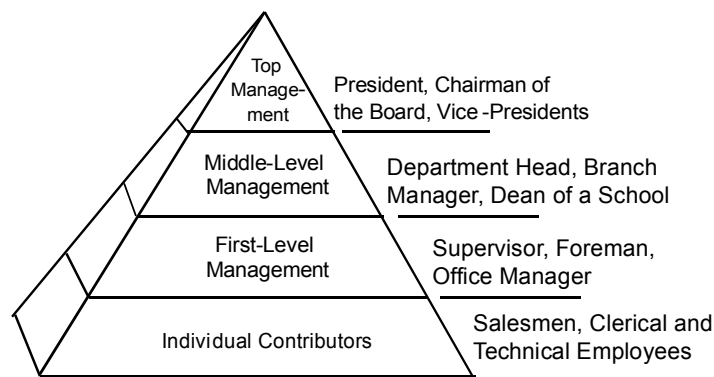
Fig. 1.3 Management Levels

Middle-Level Managers

The middle management level generally consists of divisional and departmental heads such as a plant manager, production manager, marketing manager, personnel director and so on. Their responsibility is to interpret policies and directions set by the top-level management into specific plans and guidelines for action. Their responsibility further is to coordinate the working of their departments so that the set objectives can be achieved. They are concerned with short-term goals and specific results. They spend more time on operational planning, information processing and day-to-day monitoring of their divisional activities. They serve as a link between the strategic activities of the top managers and operational activities of first level managers who are the subordinates in terms of information dissemination in both directions.

Organizations, specially the very large ones often have several layers of middle managers.

Example: During expansion years, at one time, General Motors (GM) had 14 or 15 management levels. However the tendency now is to have fewer layers and give the managers greater autonomy and responsibility, part of which is delegated to lower level managers.

First-Level Supervisory Managers

This level of management consists of supervisors, superintendents, unit heads, foremen, chief clerks and so on. The primary concern of the first-level managers is with the mechanics of the job and they are responsible for coordinating the work of their employees. They must possess technical skills so that they can assist their subordinate workers wherever necessary.

They plan day-to-day operations, assign personnel to specific jobs, oversee their activities, evaluate their performances and become a link between the workers and the middle level management. Because they represent both the middle-level management as well as the workers on the other side, the first-line supervisors can easily find themselves in the middle of conflicting demands.

General Versus Functional Managers

Apart from the vertical levels of managerial hierarchy, there are two types of managers with different responsibilities. These are 'Functional Managers' and 'General Managers'. Functional managers take responsibility for one type of function or specialized activity and supervise the work of employees who are engaged in such specialized activities as marketing, finance, accounting, quality control, production and so on.

General managers, on the other hand, are responsible for the activities of different groups that perform a variety of functions and have authority over both the specialized as well as generalized activities.

Example: The general manager of a plant in a manufacturing company is responsible for monitoring all aspects of the plant such as production, engineering, quality control, labour relations, purchasing, inventories and so on. Branch managers are considered as general managers if employees from different disciplines within the branch report to them.

General managers in non-profit organizations such as hospitals, universities or government agencies are designated as "administrators", rather than managers.

Example: The head of a hospital might be known as a chief administrator. Similarly, the president of a college or the dean of a school would be designated as an administrator.

Check Your Progress

4. List some important characteristics of science.

5. Who are the mid-level managers in an organization?

1.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Van Fleet and Peterson define management 'as a set of activities directed at the efficient and effective utilization of resources in the pursuit of one or more goals.'

2. The function of organizing involves determining the activities that need to be done in order to reach the company goals, assigning these activities to the proper personnel and delegating the necessary authority to carry out these activities in a coordinated and cohesive manner.

3. The controlling function consists of those activities that are undertaken to ensure that the events do not deviate from the prearranged plans.

4. Some important characteristics of science are:

    (i) It is a systematized body of knowledge and uses scientific methods for observation.

    (ii) Its principles are evolved on the basis of continued observation and experiment.

    (iii) Its principles are exact and have universal applicability without any limitation.

5. The middle management level generally consists of divisional and departmental heads such as a plant manager, production manager, marketing manager, personnel director and so on.

1.6   SUMMARY

- Management in some form or another is an integral part of living and is essential wherever human efforts are to be undertaken to achieve desired objectives.

- Management, as a system, is not only an essential element of an organized society but also an integral part of life when we talk about managing our lives.

- Megginson, Mosley and Pietri define management as 'working with human, financial and physical resources to achieve organizational objectives by performing the planning, organizing, leading and controlling functions'.

- There are basically five primary functions of management. These are:
  o Planning
  o Organizing
  o Staffing
  o Directing
  o Controlling

- Planning is future oriented and determines an organization's direction. It is a rational and systematic way of making decisions today that will affect the future of the company.

- Organizing requires a formal structure of authority and the direction and flow of such authority through which work sub-divisions are defined, arranged and coordinated so that each part relates to the other part in a united and coherent manner so as to attain the prescribed objectives.

- Staffing is the function of hiring and retaining a suitable workforce for the enterprise both at managerial as well as non-managerial levels.

- The directing function is concerned with leadership, communication, motivation and supervision so that the employees perform their activities in the most efficient manner possible, in order to achieve the desired goals.

- The controlling function consists of those activities that are undertaken to ensure that the events do not deviate from the prearranged plans.

- Traditionally, there are three managerial levels, which are usually depicted in the form of a hierarchical pyramid. The total number of personnel found at each level decreases as the management level increases up the pyramid. The largest number of people in the organization are at the lower organizational level at the bottom of the pyramid and these people operate in a non-managerial capacity.

1.7 KEY WORDS

- **Staffing:** It is the function of hiring and retaining a suitable workforce for the enterprise both at managerial as well as non-managerial levels.

- **Organizing:** It is a systematic process of structuring, integrating, co-ordinating task goals, and activities to resources in order to attain objectives.

- **Controlling:** In management, it means setting standards, measuring actual performance and taking corrective action.

1.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Define management.
2. How is management a problem-solving process?
3. Discuss the staffing function of management.

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the different functions of management.
2. Discuss whether management is an art or a science.
3. Examine the various levels of management.

1.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 MANAGERIAL SKILLS

Structure

2.0 Introduction
2.1 Objectives
2.2 The Skills of Management
2.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
2.4 Summary
2.5 Key Words
2.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
2.7 Further Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Management is not a simple task. It needs knowledge and experience. Because of that, there is the existence of hierarchy, organizational structure, and possibilities for each organizational member with adequate knowledge, experience, and skills to move from the bottom to the middle and top level of the managerial pyramid. For a person to perform the managerial tasks effectively, he or she needs to possess certain skills. These managerial skills will be discussed in the unit.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss technical and human skills of a manager

- Describe the conceptual skills of a manager

2.2 THE SKILLS OF MANAGEMENT

A skill is an acquired and learned ability to translate knowledge into performance. It is the competency that allows for performance to be superior in the field in which the worker has the required skill. All managers need to possess technical, interpersonal, conceptual, diagnostic, communicational and political skills. While technical and diagnostic skills refer to the knowledge and ability of understanding the processes involved and scientifically analysing problems and opportunities, all other skills deal with people in one form or the other. These human skills are the most important assets of any successful manager.

It is the manager's job to achieve the organizational objectives through the proper utilization of its human and material resources. However, since the material resources of equipment, capital, facilities, information, and so on can only be used by humans, the human resources are the most valuable assets of any organization.

Accordingly, a manager must be highly skilled in the art of optimally utilizing the human resources. This art is universal in nature. In every walk of life, human skills are necessary for success. These various skills are categorized as technical, human, conceptual, diagnostic, communication political skills.

Technical Skills

Technical skills basically involve the use of knowledge, methods and techniques in performing a job effectively. This is a specialized knowledge and expertise which is utilised in dealing with day-to-day problems and activities.

Example: Engineers, accountants, computer programmers and systems analysts have technical skills in their areas and these skills are acquired through education and training. This skill is highly necessary at the lower level of management and as one moves to higher levels of management, the relative importance of technical skills usually diminishes. This is so because unlike first-level supervisors, managers at higher levels have less direct contact with technical operating problems and activities.

Human Skills

Human skill is the ability to work with other people in a cooperative manner. It involves understanding, patience, trust and genuine involvement in interpersonal relationships. These are interpersonal skills and are necessary at all levels of management. People with good, human skills build trust and cooperation as they motivate and lead and thus become successful managers. This skill is gaining more importance as the work place is becoming more and more ethnically diversified and the manager has to be aware and become adaptive to cultural differences. Furthermore, since the businesses are more and more becoming multinational and global, managers are required to learn new ways of dealing with people in different countries with different cultures and value systems.

Conceptual Skills

Conceptual skill is the ability to view the organization as a total entity comprising various systems and subsystems. This skill is especially crucial for top level executives who must keep the whole system under focus. The top management must understand the complexities of the organization, including how each unit of the organization contributes towards the overall success of the entire organization. This skill generally depends upon an organized thinking process which deals with understanding of various functions of an organization, their interdependence and the relationship of the organization with the outside environment in terms of threats and opportunities.

Diagnostic Skills

Diagnostic skill refers to a manager's analytical ability where a manager can logically and objectively investigate and analyse a problem or an opportunity and use

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scientific approaches to arrive at a feasible and optimal solution. It is important however that a manager gets to the root cause of the problem so that the solution is a real and a permanent one rather than simply a short-term or a cosmetic one. This skill overlaps with other skills because a manager may need to use technical, human, conceptual or political skills to solve the problem that has been diagnosed.

Communicational Skills

Communicational skills are an important component of interpersonal skills and are basic to all other skills. These are important and necessary at all levels of management. A manager's best ideas will have little impact if they cannot be communicated effectively. Good communication is the foundation of sound management. Proper communication eliminates delays, misunderstanding, confusion, distortions and conflicts and improves coordination and control. All the four communicational skills, namely, writing, reading, listening and non-verbal gestures are important ingredients of successful leadership.

Political Skills

Political skill can be described as the ability to get your own way without seeming to be selfish or self-oriented. It is the ability to get your share of power and authority and use it without fear of losing it. It is the most complex of skills in the sense that it is required to establish the right connections and impress the right people and then skilfully use these connections to your own advantage. Political skill is most important at the middle management level because middle managers always aspire to reach the top levels of management and right connections help in such aspirations.

Check Your Progress

1. What is a skill?
2. Define diagnostic skills.

2.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. A skill is an acquired and learned ability to translate knowledge into performance. It is the competency that allows for performance to be superior in the field in which the worker has the required skill.

2. Diagnostic skill refers to a manager's analytical ability where a manager can logically and objectively investigate and analyse a problem or an opportunity and use scientific approaches to arrive at a feasible and optimal solution.

2.4 SUMMARY

- A skill is an acquired and learned ability to translate knowledge into performance. It is the competency that allows for performance to be superior in the field in which the worker has the required skill.

- All managers need to possess technical, interpersonal, conceptual, diagnostic, communicational and political skills.

- Technical skills basically involve the use of knowledge, methods and techniques in performing a job effectively.

- Human skill is the ability to work with other people in a cooperative manner. It involves understanding, patience, trust and genuine involvement in interpersonal relationships.

- Diagnostic skill refers to a manager's analytical ability where a manager can logically and objectively investigate and analyse a problem or an opportunity and use scientific approaches to arrive at a feasible and optimal solution.

- Political skill can be described as the ability to get your own way without seeming to be selfish or self-oriented.

2.5 KEY WORDS

- **Conceptual Skill:** It is the ability to view the organization as a total entity comprising various systems and subsystems.

- **Diagnostic Skill:** It refers to the knowledge and ability of understanding the processes involved and scientifically analysing problems and opportunities, all other skills deal with people in one form or the other.

2.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Discuss the political skills of a manager.
2. Write a short-note on the communication skills of a manager.

Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the technical, human and conceptual skills of a manager.

2.7   FURTHER READINGS

Watt, David. 2004. *Sports Management and Administration*. London: Routledge.

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UNIT 3   MANAGERIAL ROLES

Structure

3.0   INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the various skills of a manager. In this unit, you will learn about the various managerial roles. Managerial roles refer to the roles that managers are expected to perform in an organization. These roles can be defined as the organized sets of behaviours identified with the position. These roles were developed by Henry Mintzberg in the late 1960s after a careful study of executives at work. All these roles in one form or another deal with people and their interpersonal relationships.

3.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the interpersonal and informational roles of the manager
- Describe the management process
- Discuss management and administration

3.2   THE ROLES OF A MANAGER

Another approach to study management is to examine the roles that managers are expected to perform. Managerial roles can be defined as the organized sets of behaviour identified with the positions. Henry Mintzberg developed ten managerial roles in the late 1960s after a careful study of executives at work. All these roles in one form or another deal with people and their interpersonal relationships. The ten managerial roles are divided into three categories. The first category of interpersonal roles arises directly from the manager's position and the formal authority bestowed upon him. The second category of informational roles is played as a direct result of

interpersonal roles and these two categories lead to the third category of decisional roles. Figure 3.1 shows the ten managerial roles.

Interpersonal Roles

Managers spend a considerable amount of time in interacting with other people both within their own organizations as well as outside. These people include peers, subordinates, superiors, suppliers, customers, government officials and community leaders. All these interactions require an understanding of interpersonal relations. Studies show that interacting with people takes up nearly 80% of a manager's time. These interactions involve the following three major interpersonal roles:

1. **Figurehead:** Managers act as symbolic figureheads performing social or legal obligations. These duties include greeting visitors, signing legal documents, taking important customers to lunch, attending a subordinate's wedding or speaking at functions in schools and churches. All these, primarily, are duties of a ceremonial nature but are important for the smooth functioning of the organization.

2. **Leader:** The influence of the manager is most clearly seen in his role as a leader of the unit or organization. Since he is responsible for the activities of his subordinates, he must lead and coordinate their activities in meeting task-related goals and he must motivate them to perform better. He must be an exemplary leader so that his subordinates follow his directions and guidelines with respect and dedication.

FORMAL POSITIONAL AUTHORITY

Interpersonal roles
1. Figurehead
2. Leadership
3. Liaison

Informational roles
4. Monitor
5. Disseminator
6. Spokesperson

Decisional roles
7. Enterpreneur
8. Conflict-handler
9. Resource allocator
10. Negotiator
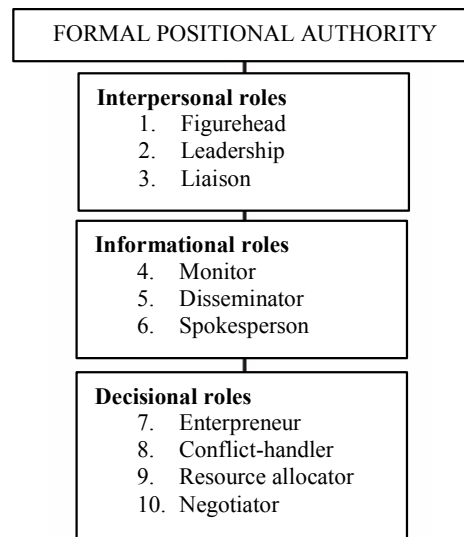
Fig.3.1 *Various Managerial Roles*

3. **Liaison**: In addition to their constant contact with their own subordinates, peers and superiors, the managers must maintain a network of outside contacts in order to assess the external environment of competition, social changes or changes in governmental rules, regulations and laws. In this role,

the managers build up their own external information system. In addition, they develop networks of mutual obligations with other managers in the organization. They also form alliances to win support for their proposals or decisions.

Informational Roles

By virtue of his interpersonal contacts, a manager emerges as a source of information about a variety of issues concerning the organization. In this capacity of information processing, a manager executes the following three roles:

- **Monitor: (For example:** scanning industry reports to stay ahead in competition)
- **Disseminator of information: (For example:** Sending memos outlining new initiatives and projects taken up)
- **Spokesperson: (For example:** making a speech to the media regarding the company's expansion plans to other areas of business)

Decisional Roles

On the basis of the environmental information received, a manager must make decisions and solve organizational problems. In this respect, a manager plays four important roles which are as follows:

- Entrepreneur
- Conflict handler
- Resource allocator
- Negotiator

All the ten roles listed above are important in a manager's job and are interrelated even through some roles may be more influential than others, depending upon the managerial position. The ability to recognise the appropriate role to play in each situation and the flexibility to change roles readily when necessary, are characteristics of effective managers. Most often, however, the managerial effectiveness is determined by how well the decisional roles are performed.

Check Your Progress

1. How do managers act as figureheads?
2. What is the liaison role of the manager?

3.3 MANAGEMENT PROCESS IN OVERVIEW

No doubt management, as an academic body of knowledge has come a long way in the last few years. It has grown and gained acceptance all over the world. Yet, the term 'management' continues to be the most misunderstood and misused. A

study of the process of management reveals the following points about the nature of management:

Management is a universal process

Where there is human activity, whether individual or joint, there is management. The process of management can be noticed in all spheres of life. The basic nature of management activity remains same in all arenas, whether the organization to be managed is a family, a club, a trade union, a trust, a municipality, a business concern or the government. Slight variations in approach and style may be there from organization to organization, but the management activity is basically the same everywhere.

Management is a factor of production

Management is regarded as a factor of production. Just as land, labour and capital have to be brought together and put to effective use for the production and distribution of goods and services, similarly managerial skills have also to be acquired and effectively used for the purpose.

In the modern industrial set-up, qualified and efficient managers are essential to reap the fruits of huge investment in business where the pattern of production has become capital-intensive. In fact, in this scenario, more important would be the role of management.

Management is goal oriented

The most important goal of all management activity is to accomplish the objectives of an enterprise. These objectives may be economic, socio-economic, social and human and thereby management at different levels seeks to achieve these in different ways. But at all times, management has definite objectives to pursue and it employs all the resources as it commands – men, money, materials, machines and methods in the pursuit of the objectives.

Management is supreme in thought and action

Determination of the objectives of an enterprise tests the collective wisdom and sense of imagination of its management. The objectives should be neither too high sounding or difficult to achieve, nor too low pitched to rob the workers of their sense of achievement. But, mere setting of objectives will be of no avail, if there is no vigorous action to achieve them.

Managers set realizable objectives and then mastermind action on all fronts to accomplish them. Managers belong to that rare breed of men who are not only aware of what is to be achieved and how, but also possess the capability and courage to accept the challenges of doing it.

Management is a group activity

An enterprise will not be able to achieve its objectives if only one or a few individuals or departments are efficient and the rest are inefficient. The calibre of each individual and each department needs to be efficient in order to make a project successful. **Example:** A marketing manager is responsible for increasing the sales of the products of any organization, human resources manager is responsible for recruiting new people, developing organizational policies for the employees etc.

Management is a dynamic function

Management is a dynamic function of a collective enterprise, which is constantly engaged in casting and recasting the enterprise in the world of an ever-changing business environment. Not only this, it sometimes also initiates moves that reform and alter the business environment. If an enterprise is well equipped to face the changes in business environment brought about by economic, social, political, technological or human factors, it can soon adapt itself to a changed environment or make innovation to attune itself to it.

Management is a social science

Management means getting the tasks done by different people with different qualities. This involves dealing with individuals each one of whom has a different level of sensitivity, understanding and dynamism. In fact, no definite principles or rules can be laid down with respect to human behaviour. These principles change from individual to individual and from situation to situation. No doubt, a manager may seek guidelines from established principles and rules but he cannot base his decisions on them.

Management is an important organ of society

Management shares a direct relationship with society. While the society influences the managerial actions, managerial actions also influence society. By their decisions, management of large undertakings influence the economic, social, political, religious, moral and institutional behaviour of the members of society. This creates an impact on the social and moral obligations of business management which cannot be easily ignored.

Management is a system of authority

It is the job of management to bring about a harmonious arrangement and pattern among the different resources employed in an undertaking. In fact, management's role as a factor of production forces itself to be methodical in plans and procedures and on the other hand systematic and regular in their implementation. For this, it is necessary that the authority vested in the management is to be exercised properly and correctly. Therefore, this calls for well-defined lines of command and delegation of suitable authority and responsibility at all levels of decision making.

Management is a profession

Management makes judicious use of all available means to accomplish certain predetermined ends. To achieve this successfully, managers need to possess managerial knowledge and training. Moreover, they have to conform to a recognized code of conduct and remain conscious of their social and human obligations. Managers are well paid and well provided by the organization for their work. Moreover, they enjoy considerable social prestige too.

Management as a process

Management is an activity consisting of a distinct process, which is known as the management process. This process is primarily concerned with the important task of goal achievement. No business enterprise can achieve its objectives until and unless all the members of the unit make an integrated and planned effort under the directions of a central coordination agency. In management terminology, this central coordinating agency is technically known as 'MANAGEMENT'. The methodology of getting things done is known as 'Management process'. The process, in general, is defined as a series of actions or operations conducted to achieve a goal. The functions that are performed by a manager and the sequence in which they are performed are together called the 'Management process'.

Ordinarily there are two main functions of each manager—decision–making and implementation of the decisions. Collectively, these two fall under the management process. The processes such as planning, organizing and actuating involved in the achievement of business goals together form the management process.

3.4   MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

According to Dalton E McFarland who subscribes to the classical or traditional approach, administration in business organizations is concerned with the higher level where policies are determined. Very rarely are first-line supervisors considered as administrators in such an approach. They are considered to be managers. However, in the field of health care and also in certain service organizations, problems such as chronic diseases are managed but programmes such as distribution of vaccines, etc. are administered.

Administration may be defined as 'the guidance, leadership and control of the efforts of a group of individuals towards some common goals'. Often the terms administration and management are used together as administrative management. Administrative Management is different from 'operative management', which is concerned with the operational aspects of a business. Some experts like Oliver and Sheldon distinguished administration from management by suggesting definitions of their own.

The Definition

Administration is defined as a function of an organization that is concerned with policy determination, co-ordination of finances, production, distribution and control of the executives required for establishing an organization. Contrary to this, management is the process that is concerned with the execution of the policies within certain limits set by the administration and employment of the organization for the purpose of accomplishing objectives laid down by the administration.

Essence of Administration

According to Ordway Tead in his book, *The Art of Administration*, the process of administration can be divided into the following elements: Establishment of the objectives of an organization; formulation of policies for an organization; stimulation of the organizational evaluation of the performance of the organization and planning for the future.

Thus, management actions are directed towards attaining aims and objectives that are laid down by the administration.

It is, therefore, clear that administration is more important at higher levels whereas management is more important at lower levels in the firm's organizational pyramid.

Thus, administration is a top-level function while management is a bottom level function. The fundamental point of distinction between these two aspects is that the former is the process of formulating policies and goals of the organization while latter directs and guides the operational or functional aspects of the organization towards achieving the objectives set by the former. Figure 3.2 shows the administration and management ladder:
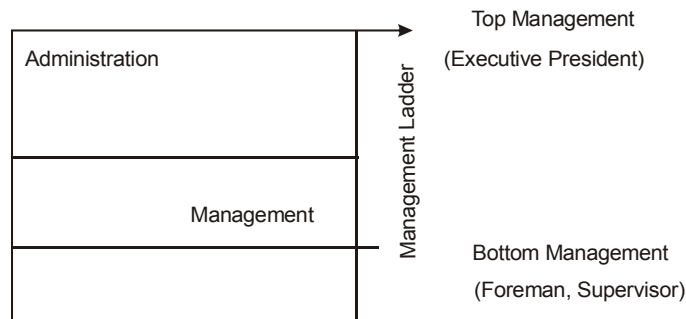
Fig. 3.2 The Management Ladder

The scope of management is broader than that of administration. It is true that planning is more important and broader at higher levels of organization. Yet, it is equally valid that every level of management, irrespective of its hierarchy in the organizational set-up has to do some sort of planning and policymaking along with their execution. Therefore, management includes both administrative management and operative management.

Check Your Progress

3. What is the most important goal of management?

4. Define administration.

3.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Managers act as symbolic figureheads performing social or legal obligations. These duties include greeting visitors, signing legal documents, taking important customers to lunch, attending a subordinate's wedding or speaking at functions in schools and churches.

2. The managers must maintain a network of outside contacts in order to assess the external environment of competition, social changes or changes in governmental rules, regulations and laws. In this role, the managers build up their own external information system. This is the liaison role of the manager.

3. The most important goal of all management activity is to accomplish the objectives of an enterprise. These objectives may be economic, socio-economic, social and human and thereby management at different levels seeks to achieve these in different ways.

4. Administration is defined as a function of an organization that is concerned with policy determination, co-ordination of finances, production, distribution and control of the executives required for establishing an organization.

3.6 SUMMARY

- Another approach to study management is to examine the roles that managers are expected to perform.

- Managerial roles can be defined as the organized sets of behaviour identified with the positions.

- Henry Mintzberg developed ten managerial roles in the late 1960s after a careful study of executives at work. All these roles in one form or another deal with people and their interpersonal relationships.

- The ten managerial roles are divided into three categories. The first category of interpersonal roles arises directly from the manager's position and the formal authority bestowed upon him. The second category of informational roles is played as a direct result of interpersonal roles and these two categories lead to the third category of decisional roles.

- The process of management can be noticed in all spheres of life. The basic nature of management activity remains same in all arenas, whether the organization to be managed is a family, a club, a trade union, a trust, a municipality, a business concern or the government.

- Management shares a direct relationship with society. While the society influences the managerial actions, managerial actions also influence society.

- According to Dalton E McFarland who subscribes to the classical or traditional approach, administration in business organizations is concerned with the higher level where policies are determined.

- Administration is a top-level function while management is a bottom level function.

- The fundamental point of distinction between these two aspects is that the former is the process of formulating policies and goals of the organization while latter directs and guides the operational or functional aspects of the organization towards achieving the objectives set by the former.

3.7 KEY WORDS

- **Figurehead:** It refers to someone who has the position of leader in an organization but who has no real power

- **Liaison:** It refers to communication or cooperation which facilitates a close working relationship between people or organizations.

3.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Differentiate between management and administration.
2. How is management a universal process?

Long Answer Questions

1. Examine the various roles of management.
2. Discuss the characteristics of the management process.

3.9 FURTHER READINGS

Watt, David. 2004. *Sports Management and Administration*. London: Routledge.

Hoye Russell, Aaron C.T. Smith, Matthew Nicholson and Bob Stewart. 2015. *Sports Management: Principles and Applications*. London: Routledge.

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NOTES

UNIT 4   PHILOSOPHY IN SPORTS

Structure

4.0   INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the various roles of a manager. Now we will turn to a discussion on sports philosophy.

Philosophy of sport is an area of philosophy that seeks to conceptually analyze issues of sport as human activity. These issues cover many areas, but fall mainly into five philosophical categories: metaphysics, ethics and moral philosophy, philosophy of law, political philosophy, and aesthetics. Its origins lay in classical Greece. Some of the modern sports philosophers encompasses the works of Paul Weiss and Howard Slusher.

4.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the functions of sports philosophy
- Explain the moral theories associated with the philosophy of sport

4.2   PHILOSOPHY

The importance of various arts and sciences is very well recognized. Art in its different categories (including sport) add completeness, multiplicity, glory and essence to our lives. Science makes inventions that contribute to our health and comfort. If the reasons behind the making of human existence (including art, science and, also, sport) worthwhile or troublesome are considered, it would amount to the development of basic interest in the matters of philosophy.

Philosophy takes what seems simple, factual and evident and makes it a subject matter for deeper understanding. It provides analytical tools to scrutinize

what people do, and opens it to critical examination. Not just opinion, philosophy demands meticulous arguments and clear definitions.

'Logic' is one division of philosophy. Logical argumentation helps in making cogent points. Throughout history and in many different civilizations, such a, Greek, Chinese, Indian, and so on, logical arrangements of elucidation have developed. Western formal propositional logic is mostly derivative from Aristotle's syllogistic logic – the assumption that something has to follow from 'x' proposition.

On the other hand, a modern explanation deals with 'natural language' or informal logic. Three categories of natural language misconstructions are:

- **Relevance:** Arguments that commit misconstructions of relevance rely on premises that are not relevant to the truth of the conclusion. (Ad hominem – personal attack)

- **Ambiguity:** Arguments that commit misconstructions of ambiguity manipulate language in misleading ways. (Straw man – misrepresent a position to make it seem weaker)

- **Presumption:** Arguments that commit misconstructions of presumption hold false grounds, therefore, fall short of establishing their conclusion.

The philosophy of sports is an area of philosophy that theoretically appraises issues of sports as human activity. These issues concern to several areas, but principally descend into five philosophical arrangements:

- Metaphysics;

- Ethics and moral Philosophy;

- Philosophy of law;

- Political philosophy; and

- Aesthetics.

The philosophical viewpoint on sport derives in ancient Greece, having experienced resumption in the later part of the 20th century. A philosophical perception on sports integrates its metaphysical associations with art and play, ethical issues of high merit and fairness and more largely socio-political.

Philosophy of sports in ancient Greece

The birth place of ancient philosophy, as well as the Olympics is believed to be ancient Greece. The Greeks defined philosophy as the 'love of wisdom' and philosophers as 'lovers of wisdom.'

Immense importance was hurled on athletic performance by Hellenistic philosophies. As per the view of the era, athletic proficiency of the leaders revealed their ability to lead. Sports was considered as an epistemic inquest, a mechanical course of action by which the intended truth of a person's athletic potential can be known by actualizing it in athletic contest. Athletics as an appraisal of individual importance was considered as a cure to social disparity. Sport was also considered

as moral education. Plato even backed the participation of women in sports for their moral growth. Aristotle highlighted physical activity as a moral responsibility.

Modern philosophy of sport

The revitalization of interest in philosophy of sport was made apparent by philosopher Paul Weiss' published book *Sport: A Philosophical Inquiry* (1969), which was regarded as the first book-length text on the philosophy of sport. In the book, Weiss elucidated the deficiency of work in philosophy of sport as a reflection of academic exclusiveness. As per Weiss, sport was constantly considered bad or ordinary.

On the other hand, philosophical observations of sport and physical activity were talked about as a subject of educational restructuring in the late nineteenth century, as the relation of physical education with health and well-being gained positive reception amongst scholars. To many people of the time, the health and educational benefits of physical activity were an element of public life. Involuntarily, many non-philosopher supporters of physical education took on philosophical positions on teleology, mind-body dualism and metaphysics as part of their model of human agency and personhood. In a bigger perspective, political philosophy came into the picture as scholars of the time, in response to pressing social and political issues of the day associated civic duty, responsible citizenship and other political features of sport. Although, a great deal of the focus had been on the work done in the West, philosophers of sport acknowledged the significance of work done in the East, especially in Japan.

Significant questions in philosophy of sport are related to the social merits of sport, the aesthetics of sporting recitals and display, the epistemology of individual and team approach and techniques, sporting moral values, the sense of rules in sport, metaphysics of sport as an element of human nature or character, etc. Nevertheless, some writers have compiled a philosophy of sport in terms of the body, art and its connections with generation X sports, such as bouldering, surfing, skateboarding.

Other areas of crossroads with contemporary areas of philosophy include philosophy of rules, philosophy of law, philosophy of education, philosophy of science, philosophy of mind, social and political philosophies.

Matters of concern in philosophy of sport

Moral concerns in philosophy of sport for the most part centre on behaviour of athletes in relation to rules of the game, other athletes, spectators, external causes such as socio-economic concerns among supporters and communities, and concerns of doping.

In sport, concerns for doping focuses on the morals of medical interventions on athletic performance. What is acceptable and what is not, and how restrictions can be created is the foremost concern. A meticulous mind is applied to the question

of what issues should to be taken into consideration while banning certain medical interventions. These and other matters of concern are by and large evaluated and discriminated all the way through the lenses of three noteworthy moral theories:

    I Consequentialism;

    II Deontology; and

    III Virtue ethics.

(I) Consequentialism

It is a class of normative ethical theories holding that the consequences of one's conduct are the ultimate basis for any judgment about the rightness or wrongness of that conduct. Thus, from a consequentialist standpoint, a morally right act (or omission from acting) is one that will produce a good outcome, or consequence.

Consequentialism is primarily non-prescriptive meaning the moral worth of an action is determined by its potential consequence, not by whether it follows a set of written edicts r laws. One example would entail lying under the threat of government punishment to save an innocent person's life, even though it is illegal to lie under oath.

Philosophies

Let us examine some of the philosophies that come under consequentialism.

State Consequentialism

Mohist consequentialism also known as state consequentialism is an ethical theory which evaluates the moral worth of an action based on how much it contributes to the welfare of a state.

Utilitarianism

In brief, according to Jeremy Bentham, people are driven by their interests and their fears, but their interests take primacy over their fears, and their interests are carried out in harmony with how people view the consequences that might be involved with their interests.

Ethical Egoism

Ethical egoism can be understood as a consequentialist theory according to which the consequences for the individual agent are taken to matter more than any other result. Thus, egoism will prescribe actions that may be beneficial, detrimental, or neutral to the welfare of others.

Ethical Altruism

Ethical altruism can be seen as a consequentialism ethic which prescribes that an individual take action that have the best consequences for everyone except himself. This was advocated by Auguste Comte, who coined the term 'altruism,' and whose ethics can be summed up in the phrase 'live for others'.

Rule Consequentialism

Rule consequentialism is a theory that is sometimes seen as an attempt to reconcile deontology and consequentialism. Like deontology, rule consequentialism holds that moral behaviour involves following certain rules. However, rule consequentialism chooses rules based on the consequences that the selection of those rules has.

Two-level Consequentialism

The two-level approach involves engaging in critical reasoning and considering all the possible ramifications of one's actions before making an ethical decision, but reverting to generally reliable moral rules when one is not in a position to stand back and examine the dilemma as a whole. In practice, this equates to adhering to rule consequentialism when one can only reason on an intuitive level, and to act consequentialism when in a position to stand back and reason on a more critical level.

Motive Consequentialism

Another consequentialism version is motive consequentialism which looks at whether the state of affairs that results from the motive to choose an action is better or at least as good as each of the alternative state of affairs that would have resulted from alternative actions.

Negative Consequentialism

Most consequentialist theories focus on promoting some sort of good consequences. However, negative utilitarianism lays out a consequentialist theory that focuses solely on minimizing bad consequences.

Teleological Ethics

Teleological ethics is an ethical theory that holds that the ends or consequences of an act determine whether an act is good or evil. Teleological theories are often discussed in opposition to deontological ethical theories, which hold that acts themselves are inherently good or evil, regardless of the consequences of acts.

Acts and Omissions, and the act and omissions doctrine

Since pure consequentialism holds that an action is to be judged solely by its result, most consequentialist theories hold that a deliberate action is no different from a deliberate decision not to act. This contrasts with the 'acts and omissions doctrine', which is upheld by some medical ethicists and some religions: it asserts there is a significant moral distinction between acts and deliberate non-actions which lead to the same outcome.

(II) Deontology

In moral philosophy, deontological ethics or deontology is the normative ethical theory that the morality of an action should be based on whether that action itself

is right or wrong under a series of rules, rather than based on the consequences of the action.

It is sometimes described as 'duty' or 'obligation' or 'rule' based ethics, because rules 'bind one to duty'. Deontological ethics is commonly contrasted to consequentialism, virtue ethics and pragmatic ethics. In this terminology, action is more important than the consequences.

It is an ethical framework that depends on the predefined sets of rules and policies for the proper functioning of a system in the environment. The deontology is simply based on the checklist which includes certain rules to be followed while performing a particular task. According to this framework, the work is considered virtuous only of this checklist is completed.

There are numerous formulations of deontological ethics.

Philosophies

Let us examine some of the philosophies that come under deontology.

Kantianism

The theory of ethics of Immanuel Kant is regarded as deontological for diverse reasons. Primarily, Kant believed that to act in the morally correct manner, people must act from duty. Secondly, Kant believed that the consequences of actions are not the one that makes them right or wrong but it is the motive of the person which carries out the action.

Kant's three noteworthy formulations of the unconditional imperative are:

- Act only according to that maxim through which you can as well determine that it would become a universal law.

- Act in such a way that you always treat humanity, whether within your own person or in any other person, not solely as a means, but constantly all at once as a destination.

- All coherent human being must so act, as if they were through their maxim constantly as a legislative member in a universal kingdom of destinations.

Divine Command Theory

While all deontologists are not spiritual, some trust in the 'divine command theory', which is in reality is a cluster of related theories which in core establish that an act is specific if God has decreed it as proper. The Divine Command Theory is a kind of deontology since, according to it, the appropriateness of any act relies upon the act being executed as it is a duty not because of any good results arising of that act.

Contemporary Deontology

A distinctive instance of epistemic influence would be 'the euphoria of an educator to his scholars' or 'the relation between an employer and his employee'. An educator has epistemic influence when producing declarative sentences that the scholar believes is trustworthy knowledge and apt, but senses no requirement to accept or follow; on the contrary, an employer has deontic influence in the act of issuing an order that the employee is gratified to accept and act upon, despite of its trustworthiness or aptness.

Deontology and Consequentialism

Frances Kasmm's principle of permissible harm is an attempt to originate a deontological limit which join together with the considered case judgments at the same time as also relying a great deal on Kant's categorical imperative. The principle affirms that one may harm in an order to save, if and only if, the harm is an outcome or a characteristic of the greater good by itself.

(III) Virtue Ethics

Virtue ethics are normative ethical theories which highlight the virtues of mind and character. Virtue ethicists confer the nature and meaning of virtues and further allied problems. Such problems comprise of:

- How virtues are obtained;
- How they are applied in different real life situations; and
- Whether they are ingrained in a common human behaviour or in a plurality of society.

Aristotle discovered around eighteen virtues that facilitate an individual to accomplish their human tasks in a good manner. He discriminated virtues relating to sentiment and aspiration from those relating to the mind. The first one he claimed to be as moral virtues, and the second one as intellectual virtues (nevertheless both of them are 'moral' in the contemporary perception of the word). Each moral virtue was a mean (golden mean) amid two analogous vices, one of surplus and one of deficit. Each intellectual virtue is a cerebral proficiency or a habit by which the mind reaches at the truth, establishing what is there or denying what is not there.

Moral Virtues

1. Courage in the face of fear.
2. Temperance in the face of pleasure and pain.
3. Liberality with wealth and possessions.
4. Magnificence with great wealth and possessions.
5. Magnanimity with great honours.
6. Proper ambition with normal honours.

7. Truthfulness with self-expression.

8. Wittiness in conversation.

9. Friendliness in social conduct.

10. Modesty in the face of shame or shamelessness.

11. Righteous indignation in the face of injury.

Intellectual Virtues

1. Nous (intelligence) apprehends fundamental truths, such as, definitions and self-evident principles.

2. Episteme (Science) is skill with inferential reasoning, such as, proofs, syllogisms and demonstrations.

3. Sophia (theoretical wisdom) combines fundamental truth with valid and necessary inferences to reason well about unchanging truths.

Several other traits

1. Gnome (good sense) is passing judgment 'sympathetic understanding.

2. Synesis (understanding) is comprehending what others say does not issue commands.

3. Phronesis (practical wisdom) is knowledge of what to do, knowledge of changing truths, issue commands.

4. Techne (art and craftsmanship).

Check Your Progress

1. What is the birth place of ancient philosophy?

2. What is deontological ethics?

4.3 FUNCTIONS OF SPORTS PHILOSOPHY

The main functions of philosophy of sports are:

(A) A philosophy of sports results in the improvement of a professional

Applied to the literary perspective of sport, philosophy can be very well thought out as an instrument, which is a vital and insightful mode of analysis, that permits the professionals of physical activities and sports, such as athletics, coaches, educators, teachers, etc., to check up and explore the meanings of such practice in regard to the creation of their identity as human organisms and individuals. Philosophy assists sport professionals to be attentive of their tasks and roles in such regard. Beginning from such a philosophical vision, the professionals can become conscious of their tasks as educators and of their academic role. The practical functions of philosophy of sport education are given as under:

1. It replicates on the requirements and state of affairs for authenticity of the notion of education all the way through sport, revealing the significance of sport for all individuals.

2. It studies the distinctiveness in the course of which sport can be supposed to be educational, arguing the reasons that validate such practice in terms of a real endorsement of human values and if the case is of school sport, its existence within the school curriculum in the form of physical education.

3. It examines the direct and indirect outcomes of the dearth of the educational and instructive element in the high intensity sports.

4. It evaluates the probable educational roles of sport in the social order and in the school and utilizes it as a decisive instrument against the existing profit-making mindset and against the crisis of values in the social order.

5. It formulates offers as to how to build up educational activities, to advance the values, social solidity and cultural pluralism in modern-day society all the way through sport.

(B) A philosophy of sports essential to professional education

Sport is, for all time, an unresolved and imprecise notion which always entails a few risks, both corporeal and ethical, for the individual. This is the reason why the philosophy of sport education highlights the requirement for helping inhabitants to make a decision, after all the analysis, whether being engaged in sport is 'good' or 'bad', or 'harmful' or 'therapeutic', for them and their subsistence and life experience as a person, in addition to, the significance of educating inhabitants to be responsible in sport, taking notice of all the risks and benefits constantly implied in this practice.

(C) A philosophy of sports guides the professional

Amongst the system of professed 'sport sciences', the philosophy of sport education provides a theoretical means to build up the intangible structure for sport pedagogy, developing the decisive, impulsive and deconstructionist point of view of this science. The elementary function played by philosophy as a motion capable to build up decisive thoughts in sport professionals is at the present completely acknowledged. In a broad sense, philosophy is a motion that facilitates human beings to realize their world and ask for the truth about things, facts and actions asking themselves as to why they subsist and why they have come into the world. As a result, philosophy is a human motion inherent in all the human beings; those are enthusiastic to elucidate the world around them.

(D) A philosophy of sports provides direction for the professional and individual programs

The philosophy of sport education envisions education as not merely as a substance that deals with the difficulties of teaching and learning or with school program where sport and physical activities are taught and learnt. This philosophy considers

the education in a wide-ranging and extensive sense, to be precise, in terms of development of the entire human being devoid of any gender disparity. In this outline, education is visualized of as a nonstop process of individual growth and transformation, where sport as an individual behaviour permits the individual to synchronize his or her psyche, body and essence, and to amalgamate his or her individual identity and self-hood contained by the society and its values, seen as the consequence of all the dissimilar kinds of cohesive human education events. In this sense, the concept of education that the philosophy of sport education implies seems to be very similar to the German term, 'Bildung', which means holistic structure of the individual. A term or concept extremely rich in hermeneutical and existentialist meanings, and if allied with sport can allocate for envisioning such practice as a special experience (Erlebnis) in which one may experience values, key goods and crucial life forces and learn from such individual and communitarian experience, all at the same time. Considering sport education as a 'Bildung' would mean the philosophy, which works on the relation between sport and education to put the person at the centre of its reflection, looking at him or her as the core and primary value that provides logic and significance to sport. The individual is the polar star that becomes conversant with and steers sport as a human activity encompassed of deliberate and forthcoming events towards the set of educational meanings, educational goals, aims and functions that permits it to be an advantageous value for all the humanity. The philosophical analysis of sport in light of an educational perception permits to vision the sports and physical activities as practices capable of generating educational values that provide complete connotation and individual understanding to such practices themselves. The philosophy of sport education characterizes an exceptional study ground in the midst of the extensive diversity interests of philosophy as a science. Its ground is drawn by a meeting point between dissimilar forms of philosophies (primarily, theoretical philosophy, philosophy of education, moral and social philosophy). The preliminary point of such functional philosophy is that sport corresponds to, at the outset, both educational and instructive difficulties for the society, to be precise, a crisis of how to build and teach sport values and how to put into practice all these values so as to show them in individual's skills and mannerism.

(E) A philosophy of sports makes society aware that contributes to its values

Philosophy of sport education can be defined as a philosophical dialogue on sport from an educational perspective, explicitly, studying and reflecting on the educational values such practice involves in the outline of the communitarian life and seeking the paramount approach to place them into practice. But what is an educational value from a philosophical standpoint?

Sport value can be defined as something, which is good for individuals and sport by itself and which give importance to the moral and social principles that allow living in an autonomous, fair and just society. A value can be considered

'educational' when it helps the person to gain knowledge of some new and good stuff or helps in improving their understanding of things.

Educational values are model conceptions, despite the fact that they do not subsist *per se* but at all times depend upon the environment in which they are envisaged of and revealed, that become conversant with the demeanour, deeds and activities of the concerned person. Education always shows that the path taken is whether appropriately oriented towards the values bound to be appreciated.

Sport is always uncertain in terms of transmission of values; this uncertainty makes sport a complicated conception to be defined in the structure of a meticulous and philosophical principled dialogue. The sport values can be identified, at least, into three forms:

1. Pure values,

2. Anti-values, and

3. Mixed values.

(F) Profession closer together: Sports and general education

Philosophical and educational manifestation on sport can be carried out from two points of view, following two manifestation lines distinctive of the philosophy of general education, whose study techniques can be engaged in the philosophy of sport education:

a) Theoretical-epistemological

b) Practical-methodological

The philosophy of sport education shows its main feature in addition to its nature as a specialized philosophy. A philosophical science, proficient in growing both theoretical and practical knowledge, is very valuable for physical education teachers, sport educators, athletes, coaches, parents and all of the other inhabitants, who for one reason or the other, are engaged in sport education each day. This philosophical science is a theoretical science and simultaneously a practical science whose most important objective is to evaluate and comprehend sport with the purpose to give it an educational sense in practice, specifically, construing and not just recounting sport and its complicated difficulties, and attempting to get a solution in light of an educational perception and in the course of a impulsive methodology of intercession.

(G) Sports educators

Sport educators are commonly known as sport management educators. Their job is to educate the athletes and the trainees about the technicalities of the different sports. Recent developments in this field have manoeuvred the physical education program towards the objective of overall wellness and sport educators now incorporate health and nutrition topics into their sessions.

In general, sport educators instruct trainees in a variety of physical activities relevant to curriculum requirements and their technicalities. While sports educators are characteristically permitted to design their own programs, those framework must stick to the program standards specified by the governing bodies in the state, region or country.

When planning program structures, sport educators include sports, physical fitness training and techniques with the relevant theoretical lectures and classroom instructions on general physical health and wellbeing, as well as, proper nutrition programs and practices. Such programs vary for different age groups.

After creating lesson plans and programs, a sport educator's responsibility is to motivate trainees to participate in prescribed activities. Sport educators then analyze individually the performances, attitude and level of physical fitness of the trainees. Such factors influence the overall grading of the athletes or the trainees.

Sport educators have a regular schedule. When not involved in instructing the trainees in the gymnasium or on the field, they work in their office or attend official meetings. While sport educators do spend much of their time in the office, involved in meetings and other paper work, they have to maintain a modest level of physical fitness so as to efficiently educate in their area of the program. Furthermore, sport educators who are in good physical structure perform as optimistic role models for the trainees

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Check Your Progress

3. Define philosophy of sports education.

4. What is the job of sports educators?

4.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The birth place of ancient philosophy, as well as the Olympics is believed to be ancient Greece.

2. In moral philosophy, deontological ethics or deontology is the normative ethical theory that the morality of an action should be based on whether that action itself is right or wrong under a series of rules, rather than based on the consequences of the action.

3. Philosophy of sport education can be defined as a philosophical dialogue on sport from an educational perspective, explicitly, studying and reflecting on the educational values such practice involves in the outline of the communitarian life and seeking the paramount approach to place them into practice.

4. Sport educators are commonly known as sport management educators. Their job is to educate the athletes and the trainees about the technicalities of the different sports.

4.5 SUMMARY

- The importance of various arts and sciences is very well recognized. Art in its different categories (including sport) add completeness, multiplicity, glory and essence to our lives.

- Philosophy takes what seems simple, factual and evident and makes it a subject matter for deeper understanding.

- The birth place of ancient philosophy, as well as the Olympics is believed to be ancient Greece. The Greeks defined philosophy as the 'love of wisdom' and philosophers as 'lovers of wisdom.'

- The revitalization of interest in philosophy of sport was made apparent by philosopher Paul Weiss' published book *Sport: A Philosophical Inquiry* (1969), which was regarded as the first book-length text on the philosophy of sport.

- Moral concerns in philosophy of sport for the most part centre on behaviour of athletes in relation to rules of the game, other athletes, spectators, external causes such as socio-economic concerns among supporters and communities, and concerns of doping.

- A meticulous mind is applied to the question of what issues should to be taken into consideration while banning certain medical interventions. These and other matters of concern are by and large evaluated and discriminated all the way through the lenses of three noteworthy moral theories:

  (i) Consequentialism;
  (ii) Deontology; and
  (iii) Virtue ethics.

- Applied to the literary perspective of sport, philosophy can be very well thought out as an instrument, which is a vital and insightful mode of analysis, that permits the professionals of physical activities and sports, such as athletics, coaches, educators, teachers, etc. to check up and explore the meanings of such practice in regard to the creation of their identity as human organisms and individuals.

- Amongst the system of professed 'sport sciences', the philosophy of sport education provides a theoretical means to build up the intangible structure for sport pedagogy, developing the decisive, impulsive and deconstructionist point of view of this science.

- Sport educators are commonly known as sport management educators. Their job is to educate the athletes and the trainees about the technicalities of the different sports.

4.6   KEY WORDS

- **Presumption:** It means the act of believing that something is true without having any proof

- **Metaphysics:** It means the branch of philosophy that deals with the first principles of things, including abstract concepts such as being, knowing, identity, time, and space

- **Deontology:** It is the normative ethical theory that the morality of an action should be based on whether that action itself is right or wrong under a series of rules, rather than based on the consequences of the action

4.7   SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short-note on the modern philosophy of sport.

2. What are the three categories of natural language misconstructions?

Long Answer Questions

1. Examine the three moral theories connected with the philosophy of sports.

2. Describe the functions of sports philosophy.

4.8   FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - II
PRINCIPLE AND THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT
AND PLANNING CONSTRAINTS

UNIT 5   MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES

Structure

5.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit will discuss the principles of management as discussed by the management thinker Henri Fayol. Fayol is claimed to be the real father of modern management. He was born in 1841 and worked as an engineer with a mining company. He improved the condition of the company from virtual bankruptcy and took it to high success. From his practical experience, he developed some techniques and basic principles, which he felt could be used in all management situations, irrespective of the organizational framework.

This book, titled *General and Industrial Management* in French, was later translated into English. It is now considered as one of the classics of management literature. The book mainly covers the aspects of the immutable and repetitive character of the management process and the concept that management can be taught in the classroom or the workplace. He also laid down the principles of management, which he deemed important for any organization. The principles are discussed below. Also discussed in the unit are Taylor's principles of management.

Taylor and Fayol both realized that working towards the problems of personnel and its management at all levels was the key to industrial success. Both applied scientific methods to the problems they faced while dealing with personnel and management. Taylor worked primarily on the operative level moving upwards in the industrial hierarchy, while Fayol concentrated on the managing director level and worked downwards. This shows us the difference in the working of Taylor and Fayol. Taylor and Fayol gave France a unified management body more than twenty years before the same ideology began to be realized in Great Britain.

5.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss Fayol's 14 principles of management

- Explain Taylor's principles of management

5.2 HENRI FAYOL'S PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

Henri Fayol's (1841-1925) approach to management is also known as the functional or process approach to management. Fayol observed the organizational functions from managerial' point of view. He believed in universality of management and reasoned that those who acquire general knowledge of managerial functions and principles can manage all types of organizations. He proposed the breaking of the complex management process into separate interdependent areas of responsibility. He divided the administrative activities into six groups, all of which are closely dependent on one another. These six areas of operations are:

1. **Technical:** This area is concerned with manufacturing products.

2. **Commercial:** It involves purchasing of raw materials for the products and selling the finished products.

3. **Financial:** This area involves searching for and acquiring capital and allocating it to various functions in an optimal manner and keeping an overview control of the flow of capital.

4. **Security:** Security operations are designed to take the necessary and adequate steps for the production and safety of goods and people.

5. **Accounting:** This area covers all accounting aspects of the organization including recording and taking stock of costs, profits, liabilities, assets, preparing balance sheets and compiling accounting statistics.

6. **Managerial:** Fayol's primary concern was with the managerial functions of planning, organizing, command, coordination and control.

In addition to these areas of operations, Fayol proposed 14 principles of administration which he believed would be most often applied for more efficient managerial behaviour and more logical organizations. These 14 principles are summarized as follows:

1. **Division of work:** This means that a worker is given only a small element of work, in which he becomes a specialist and the more people specialize, the more efficiently they can perform their work. Division of labour improves productivity by simplifying the tasks required of each worker. This can be applied to all kinds of work, technical as well as managerial.

2. **Authority and responsibility:** Authority is the right to command and the power to exact obedience in order to get the work done. Responsibility is the accountability of authority so that the official authority is not misused.

3. **Discipline:** Fayol considered discipline as outward marks of respect observed in accordance with the employment agreements and organizational rules. These rules and agreements should be clearly specified and understood by all. Also, these rules and regulations should be enforced fairly and judiciously.

4. **Unity of command:** Each organizational member should receive orders from only one superior, otherwise conflict and confusion in authority and instructions would result.

5. **Unity of direction:** This principle states that 'there should be one head and one plan' for a group of activities having the same objective. For example, the personnel department should have only one personnel manager with a specified plan for personnel policies, feeding personnel to all departments.

6. **Subordination of individual interest to organizational interest:** While the individual interests should be integrated with the organizational interests as much as possible, the interests of the organization must take priority over the interest of an individual or a particular group, whenever there is a conflict between the two.

7. **Remuneration of staff:** All employees should be fairly paid with appropriate additional incentives for additional efforts.

8. **Centralization:** Fayol believed that while some authority should be given to the subordinates to make operational decisions, all major policy decisions should be made at the top management level.

9. **Scalar chain:** There should be a clear chain of command from the top to the bottom of the organization and the line of authority should run in the order of rank from the top management downwards. This helps to ensure the orderly flow of information and communication.

10. **Order:** A place for everything and everything in its place. Materials and people should be in the right place at the right time for maximum efficiency. People in particular, should be in the jobs they are most suited for.

11. **Equity:** Managers should be both fair and friendly to the subordinates. Equity results when friendliness is coupled with justice. This will help in soliciting loyalty and devotion from subordinates.

12. **Stability of staff:** Employee turnover should be minimized. Tenure and long term commitment should be encouraged. It results in a sense of belonging to the organization.

13. **Initiative:** Employees should be given the freedom to be innovative. They should be encouraged to initiate new ideas and carry out their plans, even when some acceptable - mistakes result.

14. **Esprit de corps:** Employees should work as a team because there is strength in unity and the management should promote this team spirit.

5.2.1 F.W. Taylor's Principles of Management

Frederic Winslow Taylor started his career as a machinist in 1875. He studied engineering in an evening college and rose to the position of chief engineer in his

organization. He invented high-speed steel cutting tools and spent most of his life as a consulting engineer.

Taylor is called the father of scientific management. His experience from the bottom-most level in the organization gave him an opportunity to know first-hand the problems of the workers. Taylor's principal concern was that of increasing efficiency in production, not only to lower costs and raise profits but also to make possible increased pay for workers through their higher productivity.

Taylor saw productivity as the answer to both higher wages and higher profits. He believed that the application of scientific method, instead of custom and rule of thumb, could yield this productivity without the expenditure of more human energy or effort.

Principles of F.W. Taylor

Taylor published a book, titled *The Principles of Scientific Management*, in 1911. But his ideas about scientific management are best expressed in his testimony that was placed before a committee of the House of Representatives in 1912. He said:

> 'Scientific management is not any efficiency device, not a device of any kind for securing efficiency; nor is it a bunch or group of efficiency devices. It is not a new system of figuring costs; it is not a new scheme of paying men; it is not a piece work system; it is not a bonus system; it is not a premium system; it is not a scheme for paying men; it is not holding a stop watch on a man and writing things down about him; it is not time study; it is not motion study, not an analysis of the movements of men; it is not the printing and loading and unloading of a ton or two of blanks on a set of men and saying 'Here's your system; go and use it'. It is not divided foremanship or functional foremanship; it is not any of the devices which the average man calls to mind when scientific management is spoken of ... '

Now, in its essence, scientific management involves a complete mental revolution of the part of the working man engaged in any particular establishment or industry. This complete mental revolution focuses on the duties of the organization toward its work, toward its fellowmen and toward its employees and it involves an equally complete mental revolution on the part of those on the management's side, which involve the foreman, superintendent, owner of the business, board of directors and so on. The great mental uprising that occurs in the mental outlook of both the parties in scientific management is that both the parties turn their attention from holding distribution of surplus as important and jointly focus their concentration on raising the surplus, which grows so large that it is pointless to argue over the way it is to be distributed. They realize that when they stop competing with each other and combine their efforts to work in the same direction, the size of the surplus generated by their combined efforts is actually praiseworthy. When amiable

cooperation and joint helpfulness of rivalry and conflict are substituted, it becomes possible for both the parties to increase the surplus to such a great extent than what it was in the past, that plenty of room is available for a great raise in wages for the workers and an equally large raise in profits for the manufacturer. The underlying principles of scientific approach to management as seen by Taylor may be summarized as follows:

- Replacing rules of thumb with science
- Obtaining harmony in group action, rather than discord
- Achieving cooperation of human beings, rather than chaotic individualism
- Working for maximum output, rather than restricted output
- Developing all workers to the maximum extent possible for their own as well as company's highest prosperity

Taylor concentrated more on productivity and productivity-based wages. He stressed on time and motion study and other techniques for measuring work. Apart from this, in Taylor's work, there also runs a strongly humanistic theme. He had an idealist's notion that the interests of workers, managers and owners should be harmonised.

Henry Gantt worked with Taylor and was responsible for introducing 'Task and Bonus Plan' and the Gantt chart. The 'Task and Bonus Plan' was aimed at providing extra wages for extra work in addition to a guaranteed minimum wage. Bonuses were also awarded to supervisors who were successful in getting their workers to meet the output goal. The Gantt chart, which was a forerunner of today's Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) was a chart on which the process of work could be recorded.

Check Your Progress

1. What do you understand by authority?
2. What was the task and bonus plan of Taylor and Gantt?
3. What was F.W. Taylor's principal concern?

5.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Authority is the right to command and the power to exact obedience in order to get the work done.
2. The 'task and bonus plan' of Taylor and Gantt was aimed at providing extra wages for extra work in addition to a guaranteed minimum wage. Bonuses were also awarded to supervisors who were successful in getting their workers to meet the output goal.

3. Taylor's principal concern was that of increasing efficiency in production, not only to lower costs and raise profits but also to make possible increased pay for workers through their higher productivity.

5.4   SUMMARY

- Henri Fayol's approach to management is also known as the functional or process approach to management. Fayol observed the organizational functions from managerial' point of view.

- Fayol proposed the breaking of the complex management process into separate interdependent areas of responsibility. He divided the administrative activities into six groups, all of which are closely dependent on one another.

- Fayol proposed 14 principles of administration which he believed would be most often applied for more efficient managerial behaviour and more logical organizations.

- Fayol believed that while some authority should be given to the subordinates to make operational decisions, all major policy decisions should be made at the top management level.

- According to Fayol, There should be a clear chain of command from the top to the bottom of the organization and the line of authority should run in the order of rank from the top management downwards.

- Taylor is called the father of scientific management. His experience from the bottom-most level in the organization gave him an opportunity to know first-hand the problems of the workers.

- Taylor's principal concern was that of increasing efficiency in production, not only to lower costs and raise profits but also to make possible increased pay for workers through their higher productivity.

- Scientific management involves a complete mental revolution of the part of the working man engaged in any particular establishment or industry.

- Taylor concentrated more on productivity and productivity-based wages. He stressed on time and motion study and other techniques for measuring work.

5.5   KEY WORDS

- **Program Evaluation and Review Technique:** It is a technique adopted by organizations to analyze and represent the activity in a project, and to illustrate the flow of events in a project.

- **Esprit de Corps:** It is a feeling of loyalty and pride that is shared by the members of a group who consider themselves to be different from other people in some special way.

5.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What are the six areas of managerial operations according to Fayol?

2. List the underlying principles of the scientific approach to management.

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain Fayol's 14 principles of management.

2. Describe F.W Taylor's principles of management.

5.7 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 6   THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT

Structure

6.0   INTRODUCTION

Management has evolved and changed considerably over the period of time. Even though the formal scientific management practice began arid established itself in the early part of 20th century, the recorded application of organized management dates back to 5000 B.C. when Sumerians established written records for both government and commercial use. As early as 3000 B.C. Egyptians were aware of the importance of planning, directing, organizing and controlling and this is evident from the great pyramids of Egypt built around 2800 B.C.

The mid-1700s saw the movement from the cottage industry (where production of items was limited to family and living quarters) to the factory system (where products are produced in a centralized location) and this gave birth to the industrial revolution in Europe and especially in England. This industrial revolution changed the entire behaviour of the civilized world. Adam Smith is known to have established the management principles in the area of division of labour and specialization around 1776. Eli Whitney in 1800 introduced the idea of interchangeability of parts which led to the standardization of parts resulting in mass production. These principles were highly utilized by Henry Ford in mass production of, automobiles.

The phenomenal industrial growth brought in the widespread need to coordinate the efforts of large number of people employed in industries and auxiliary services. A number of individuals began to focus on developments of techniques that would apply to specific situations and solve specific problems. These techniques and strategies laid the ground work for subsequent study of broader management theories. In this unit, we will be restricting ourselves to three theories of management.

6.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Examine McGregor's theory x and theory y
- Explain the path goal theory of leadership
- Discuss the adaptive-reactive theory

6.2 MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y

Douglas McGregor (1906-64) was a professor of industrial management at Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) for most part of his career. His contribution to management thought lies in his proposal that a manager's assumptions about the role of employees determine his behaviour towards them. According to him, the classical organization with its highly specialized jobs, centralized decision-making and communication from top downwards through the chain of command was not just a product of the need for productivity and efficiency, but instead it was a reflection of certain basic managerial assumptions about human nature. These assumptions, that McGregor somewhat arbitrarily classified were designated as Theory X. Theory Y identified the classical approach to management based upon the ideas generated in the late 1800s and early 1900s, and was primarily based upon the assumption about economic rationality of all employees. This evolved around the classical assumption of Adam Smith that people are motivated by economic incentives and they will rationally consider opportunities that provide for them the greatest economic gain. To the classical thinkers, an efficiently designed job, efficiency centred organization and proper monetary incentives to workers were the proper tools of motivation. This approach was effective because it was a product of its times. In the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, technology change was relatively slow and predictable, labour was abundant, competitors were known and productivity was the main focus.

Theory X Assumptions

1. Most people dislike work and avoid it whenever possible.
2. They need to be directed, controlled and threatened with punishment in order to move them to work and achieve organizational goals.
3. An average person is lazy, shuns responsibility, prefers to be directed, has little ambition and is only concerned with his own security.
4. Most people avoid leading and want to be led and supervised. They are unwilling to accept responsibility.

McGregor believed that managers who hold Theory X assumptions are likely to treat workers accordingly. These managers practice an autocratic management style and may use the threat of punishment to induce employee productivity. The

communication is primarily directed downwards and the environment is characterized by minimal manager-employee interaction.

In contrast, Theory Y emphasizes management through employee input and delegation of authority. According to Theory Y, managers make the following assumptions.

Theory Y Assumptions

1. Work is natural to most people and they enjoy the physical and mental effort involved in working, similar to rest or play.

2. Commitment to goals and objectives of the organization is also a natural state of behaviour for most individuals.

3. They will exercise self-direction and self-control in pursuit and achievement of organizational goals.

4. Commitment to goals and objectives is a function of rewards available, especially the rewards of appreciation and recognition.

5. Most people have the capacity for innovation and creativity for solving organizational problems.

6. Many individuals seek leadership roles in preference to the security of being led.

Managers who hold Theory Y assumptions treat their workers as responsible persons and give them more latitude in performing their tasks. Communication is multidimensional and managers interact frequently with employees. These managers encourage innovation and creativity, minimize the use of supervision and controls and redesign the work to make it more interesting and satisfying with regard to higher level needs of workers such as self-esteem and self-actualization. They integrate individual goals and organizational goals so that with commitment and dedication, both goals are achieved at the same time.

Compared to Theory X, Theory Y has the greater potential to develop positive job relationships and motivate employee performance. It must be understood, however, that in some situations where workers do require close supervision and greater controls, Theory X assumptions are more effective in achieving organizational goals.

6.3 PATH GOAL THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Goal plays a central role in leadership development. Martin G. Evans initially presented the leadership model of path goal. The path goal theory is derived from the expectancy theory of motivation. Leadership is closely related with work motivation and power base. Robert House has developed this theory to make leadership more effective. This theory states that the leaders' job is to create structure, support and reward so that the employees reach the organisational goal.

A leader has to create a healthy work environment for the employees' satisfaction and better performance. It tells of role clarity, goal expectancies, satisfaction and performance. The path goal model is analysed under process, improvement and leadership style.

The path goal model helps in identifying the employees' needs, providing appropriate goals, connecting goal achievement, work rewards, clarifying expectancy and instrumentality relationships.
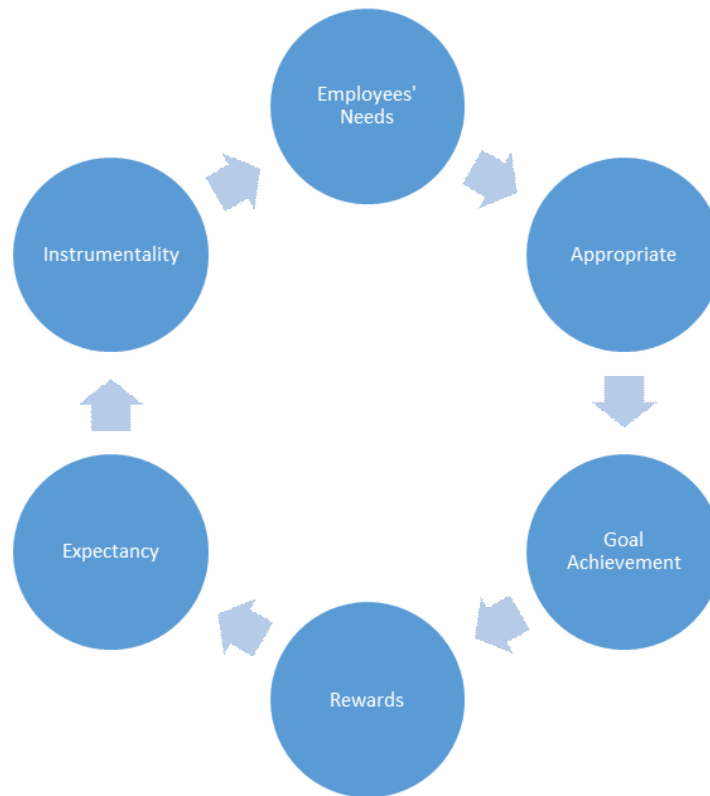
Fig. 6.1 *Path Goal Process*

1. **Employees' needs:** Performance and satisfaction are important components of the path goal model. The employees get satisfaction when their needs are fulfilled. According to Maslow, the five hierarchy of needs are required differently by different cadres of employees. Employees are motivated considering their respective needs. A leader has to assess the respective requirements for motivating them to get a higher performance and satisfaction.

2. **Appropriate goals:** The establishment of targets and objectives is essential for a successful performance. The objectives are formulated for a long-term as well as a short-term period. The short-term period objectives are based on long-term objectives. The goal is generally short-term. It provides the methods of measurement so that the performance is compared with the goal of an employee to award them for a higher performance and remand

them for lower performance. The performance standard is based on goals and past achievement. A person can perform better when he has specific goals. In other words, human behaviour is goal-oriented. Goal-setting prerequisites are worthwhile goals, available resources and different environment. The leader plays an instrumental role to use the resources for achieving the goal. His behaviour directs the employees for right performance. Goal is the compass which guides the employees towards a distinct path and destination. Uniformity and cohesiveness are maintained with the tool of goals and targets. Without goals, different employees will go different ways. Work will go astray. This problem continues until the direction of the employees is set towards the achievement of goals.

3. **Goal achievement:** Management by objectives (MBO) is the popular philosophy where the leader and employees mutually agree to carry out the work to attain the objectives. The corporate and departmental objectives are achieved respectively by them. Objective leads to proper functions, and functions are tallied with objectives. Deviations are noted and corrected for future planning. A leader's behaviour emphasises mutual goal setting, planning and periodic reviews of the progress. It resets goals, planning and action. This cycle continues throughout the life of the organisation. The path-goal-oriented behaviour of a leader makes the employees goal-specific, helps them accept the goal and find the task a challenge.

4. **Rewards:** The path goal model provides rewards to the employees and provides opportunities to get the maximum reward benefits through the attainment of objectives. Rewards and punishments are attached with this model. The employees' performance is increased through personal pay-offs which are achieved by coaching and directing of employees. The expectations of employees are found and these are used to motivate them.

5. **Expectancy:** A goal leads to expectation which encourages them to achieve and get rewards. Employees thus develop a high vision which is a long-range image. Expectation is an idea of what can or should be achieved. It increases commitment and enthusiasm. Shared beliefs and values serve as the basis for the creation and change of the culture of an organisation. Vision is a key factor for developing leadership. The development of an organisation depends on the vision of the managers. They are responsible for creating an environment, projecting the future conditions and developing master strategies for achieving goals.

6. **Instrumentality:** Providing feedback to the leaders creates a successful path of goal achievement. Knowing the needs and desires of employees, creating a conducive environment, reducing frustrating barriers, increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction and awarding employees according to their performance are instrumental for creating a smooth path of goal achievements. A leader attempts to make the path of goal achievement as smooth as possible. A leader's directiveness is positively related to

satisfaction and expectation of the subordinates. Supportive leadership has the most positive effect on performance and satisfaction.

Path Improvement

The path goal theory offers only a few suggestions to leadership. It requires the consideration of situations. Fiedler's contingency model has improved this theory. The path goal theory considers only goals and methods to achieve them but it ignores the contingency factors which are important for leadership development. Contingency or situational factors such as personal characteristics of subordinates and environmental factors must be considered for developing leadership. Path improvement includes task support, psychological support and role-modelling.

Task support: Task support means that a leader helps the employees perform their respective tasks. He assembles the resources, money, power and removes constraints. He exhibits upward influence and provides recognition contingent upon performance. Leaders behaviour is motivational. He helps to satisfy the subordinates by fulfilling their job needs. Awards are given based on better performance. He provides coaching, guidance, support and the necessary facilities for an effective performance. The leader attempts to influence the subordinates through his behaviour.

Psychological support: Task support by itself does not satisfy the employees. They require a psychological push by the leader's behaviour. For example, the enthusiasm and zeal of a leader motivates the employees to perform better. The employees want to learn from the leader. Such a situation is highly motivational. A leader's behaviour is acceptable to subordinates only when they realise that the former's behaviour is the immediate source of satisfaction or instrumental for future satisfaction.

Role-modelling: The subordinates follow the leader's action. If the leader desires that a particular system should prevail in the organisation, he himself should demonstrate the behaviour. What is preached is not followed. So, it is essential to practically demonstrate rather than to preach the principles. The leader thus has to play the role of a subordinate. Role-playing is a very effective behaviour of a leader to make his employees perform appropriately.

Leadership Style

The leadership style is an essential part of the path goal model as it tells the employees what to do, and how to do which are respectively goal and path. Moving on the path to attain the objectives requires a specific style. In other words, the success of path and goal depends on how the path is travelled to attain the goal. Goals increase the employees' expectancy. A leader has to exercise his style of functioning to motivate them to achieve goals and rewards. One style is not appropriate for all the employees. It differs from employee to employee. Generally, there are four types of leadership styles, viz. directive, supportive, achievement-oriented and participative leadership.

Directive leadership: It is an authoritarian leadership. Subordinates are instructed to perform the job in a specific manner. A leader gives specific directions. There is a wide difference between a leader and the employees. A leader is considered as superior and the employees as inferior. A leader's voice is final. Employees cannot question his instructions. Work schedule is framed by a leader. He is responsible for task assignment and standardised performance. Autocratic leadership styles come under this category as the leader takes full authority and responsibility. He gets work done even by coercion and threats.

Supportive leadership: Unlike directive leadership, the leader is friendly and sympathetic to the employees. He helps them in times of need. He is always concerned with the problems of employees, A distance between the leader and the employees is maintained but it is not inapproachable. A leader demonstrates a helping attitude for developing the employees' well-being. A healthy and helpful atmosphere is created for the satisfaction of employees. A leader is known as a benevolent autocrat.

Achievement-oriented leadership: A achievement-oriented leader sets high expectations for the employees, creates confidence in them, inspires desired behaviour and motivates them to achieve the maximum possible result. Challenging goals are set by the leader to be achieved easily by the subordinates. The leader uses justice to award or punish the subordinates.

Participative leadership: In the achievement of a goal, the employees are invited to participate in the decision-making process so that they willingly execute the decision. The suggestions made by the employees are directly and indirectly given to the leader who incorporates them in his final decision. It should be known that the final decisions are still made by the leader. He does not accept the suggestions of employees in toto. Suggestions are welcomed but are used in the final decision only after careful consideration.

6.3.1 Adaptive-Reactive Theory

Osborn and Hunt's adaptive-reactive theory of leadership focussed on how organizations affects its leaders and members. They conceptualized leader behaviour as a dichotomy consisting of adaptive and reactive behaviour. They noted that leaders have to balance the demands of the organizational system with the needs of the individual members. In other words, leaders must *adapt* to the requirements of the organization (example, function of unit size, level of technology, formal structure) and *react* to the needs and desires of the organizational members (example, a function of the nature of the task, individual differences).

Check Your Progress

1. According to McGregor, what was the classical organization a reflection of?
2. Why is the leadership style an essential part of the path goal model?
3. What does the path goal theory of leadership state?

6.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. According to McGregor, the classical organization with its highly specialized jobs, centralized decision-making and communication from top downwards through the chain of command was not just a product of the need for productivity and efficiency, but instead it was a reflection of certain basic managerial assumptions about human nature.

2. The leadership style is an essential part of the path goal model as it tells the employees what to do, and how to do which are respectively goal and path.

3. The path goal theory of leadership states that the leaders' job is to create structure, support and reward so that the employees reach the organisational goal. A leader has to create a healthy work environment for the employees' satisfaction and better performance.

6.5 SUMMARY

- Douglas McGregor's contribution to management thought lies in his proposal that a manager's assumptions about the role of employees determine his behaviour towards them.

- According to McGregor, the classical organization with its highly specialized jobs, centralized decision-making and communication from top downwards through the chain of command was not just a product of the need for productivity and efficiency, but instead it was a reflection of certain basic managerial assumptions about human nature. These assumptions that McGregor somewhat arbitrarily classified were designated as Theory X. Theory Y emphasizes management through employee input and delegation of authority.

- Compared to Theory X, Theory Y has the greater potential to develop positive job relationships and motivate employee performance.

- Martin G. Evans initially presented the leadership model of path goal. The path goal theory is derived from the expectancy theory of motivation. Leadership is closely related with work motivation and power base.

- The path goal model helps in identifying the employees' needs, providing appropriate goals, connecting goal achievement, work rewards, clarifying expectancy and instrumentality relationships.

- The path goal theory considers only goals and methods to achieve them but it ignores the contingency factors which are important for leadership development.

- The leadership style is an essential part of the path goal model as it tells the employees what to do, and how to do which are respectively goal and path.

- Generally, there are four types of leadership styles, viz. directive, supportive, achievement-oriented and participative leadership.
- Osborn and Hunt's adaptive-reactive theory of leadership focussed on how organizations affects its leaders and members. They conceptualized leader behaviour as a dichotomy consisting of adaptive and reactive behaviour.

6.6 KEY WORDS

- **Authoritarian:** It means someone who is favouring or enforcing strict obedience to authority at the expense of personal freedom.
- **Zeal:** It means great energy or enthusiasm in pursuit of a cause or an objective.
- **Incentives:** It refers to a thing that motivates or encourages someone to do something.

6.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short-note on theory x assumptions of McGregor.
2. Discuss the adaptive-reactive theory.

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the path goal theory of leader effectiveness in detail.
2. Describe the different leadership styles under the path goal theory.

6.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 7   PROCESS OF PLANNING

Structure

7.0   INTRODUCTION

Planning is one of the primary functions of management as all other functions depend upon how the organization plans to achieve its objectives. It involves the process of ascertaining objectives and deciding on the process to attain these objectives. It has been established that companies with formal planning consistently perform better than those with none or limited formal planning. A vigorous and detailed planning programme gives the managers some purpose and direction. However, planning can be very frustrating because it requires an extremely detailed, careful and analytical thought process.

Organizational plans are usually divided into two types— standing plans and single-use plans. Standing plans refer to plans that remain roughly the same for long periods of time and are used in organizational situations occurring repeatedly. Single-use plans focus on relatively unique situations within the organization and may be required to be used only once. There are basically three levels of planning associated with the different managerial levels: strategic planning, tactical planning and operational planning.

The unit will also discuss decision making. Decision-making is an everyday process in life. It is the major role of a manager too. The decision taken by a manager has a far-reaching effect on the business. Right decisions have a salutary effect and wrong ones may prove to be disastrous. Decisions may be classified into two categories, tactical and strategic. Tactical decisions are those which affect the business in the short run. Strategic decisions are those which have far reaching effects on the course of business.

7.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the steps in the planning process
- Discuss the concept of planning and decision making
- Describe the rationality in planning and decision making
- Examine the problem of organizational goals
- Discuss the concept of directional planning
- Describe the steps in the planning process in sports organizations

7.2 STEPS IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

The planning process includes five major stages to perform planning related activities. Figure 7.1 shows the hierarchical structure of planning process.

Step 1 — Establish and define objectives

Step 2 — Assessment of resources

Step 3 — Develop forecasts and future conditions

Step 4 — Preparation of derivative plans

Step 5 — Implementation and evaluation of plan
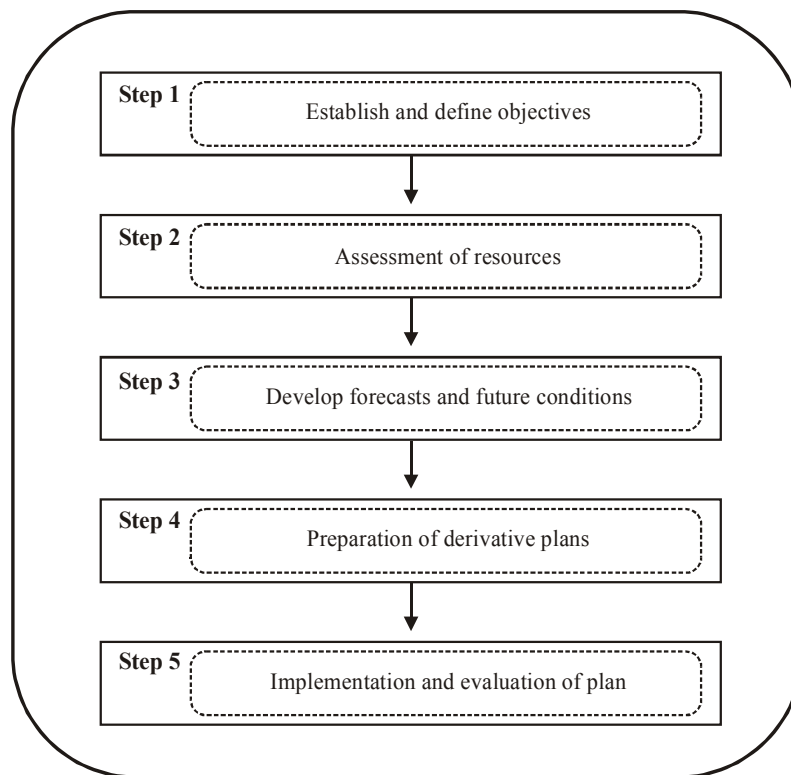
Fig. 7.1 The Hierarchical Structure of Planning

Planning can be considered as a series of sequential steps. These steps are as follows:

Step 1. Establish and clearly define the central and overall objectives of the organization. A well-defined objectives can make the difference between success

and failure of an enterprise. It clearly defines the product or service as well as the purpose of the company. Along with the overall mission of the company, it is also necessary to establish the specific objectives and goals. For example, the overall objectives of a hospital is to provide quality health care.

Step 2. The second step is to make an assessment of the available resources. This will give an idea of resources that need to be procured.

Step 3. Develop forecasts and future conditions. In order to effectively plan, it is important and necessary to forecast as accurately as possible, the future trends that will affect the company's standing and operations. The factors of forecast will include general economic conditions, changes in consumer attitudes, new technological and product developments, possible competitive strategies and any adverse legal developments.

Step 4. Preparation of derivative plans. Once an overall plan has been adopted, it is necessary to develop other derivative plans for each segment of the company, to support the formal plan. Derivative or sectional plans are developed in each area of the business, but within the framework of the primary plan in order to coordinate and integrate programmes and policies of all sections of the enterprise.

Step 5. Implement the plan and evaluate its results. The success of the plan would depend   upon how effectively the plan is implemented. This implementation is going to require a combination of all skills and coordination of all factors. Also in this ever-changing dynamic environment, it is necessary to keep the plan open to evaluation and modification. The plans should be periodically re-evaluated to measure its progress and effectiveness so that any deviations can be corrected, and any adjustments can be made.

7.3   PLANNING AND DECISION MAKING

Decision making and problem solving is a core function of management, because it is an integral part of all other managerial functions such as planning, organising, directing and controlling. It is also on integral part of life because life cannot be managed without making decisions. We are always faced with situations where we have to make choices almost every day of our lives and making a choice out of many options constitutes a decision. This decision maybe a simple one such as, choosing clothes to wear, selecting food from a menu or deciding general activities for the day or it may be a major decision such as changing a job or purchasing a house.

Rational decision-making and problem solving may be used interchangeably since a problem has to exist and a decision has to be made to solve such a problem. While most decisions indeed involve a problem, some decisions are part of routine and may not involve a problem. For example, decisions as to what to wear or which movie to see or whether to stay or go for swimming are routine decisions and simple choices among available alternatives, requiring common sense and

simple qualitative judgement. Problem solving on the other hand is a much more vigorous process which requires rational inquiry based upon unemotional reasoning, identifying the problem, generating feasible solutions for it, choosing the best solution from utility point of view and then applying this solution to see if it works efficiently and effectively. In general, while decision-making results in a choice from many alternative courses of action, the problem-solving results in resolving the disparities between the desired performance and the performance actually obtained.

Decision making is a complex mental exercise in reality. Some of the decisions we make are highly significant with highly important consequences. The more significant decisions very often need the exercise of considerable analytical judgement and the quality of such judgement is the backbone of successful decisions. These judgements must eliminate the root causes of the problems that have necessitated such decisions. Ineffective decisions attack only the symptoms and are only cosmetic in nature. They may solve the problem on the surface or on a short run basis, but in order to find a lasting solution, the problem must be attacked at its roots.

As we all face the future, its unpredictability brings to us certain situations that are unexpected and hence problematic in nature. As we grow older and share added responsibilities, we develop certain characteristics and some intuitional senses that help us solve some of these problems and we also learn some techniques and methodologies through the acquisition of knowledge and skills, which assist us in solving certain types of problems. These problems require decisions that exist at personal, organisational and social levels.

Individuals must make major decisions regarding their careers, their marriage and family and other decisions, which have far reaching personal implications. The organizational decisions involve problems relating to investments, products, marketing, location of production or service facilities, dealing with personnel problems, contributions towards community welfare and so on. Societies, in general, have many problems that affect their very survival such as crime, energy shortages, depletion of finite resources, health services, employment, political conflicts among nations, and so on.

All these problems have to be faced and solved. No person can avoid problems and ignoring a problem is never a solution. As Thomas J. Watson Jr. put it:

'I never varied from the managerial rule that the worst possible thing we could do would be to lie dead in the water with any problem. Solve it, solve it quickly, and solve it right or wrong. If you solved it wrong, it would come back and slap you on the face and then you could solve it right. Doing nothing is a comfortable alternative because it is without immediate risk, but it is an absolutely fatal way to manage a business.'

From organisational point of view, the decision-making process is such an integral and important part of management that some thinkers propose that

management is simply a decision-making process. They call it the "decision theory school of management." The basic emphasis of this school is not on people or environmental variables influencing the management behaviour but on the process of decision making and the theory that all management thought could be built around it. According to Simon:

"A theory of administration should be concerned with the process of decision as well as with the process of action. Even if the decision making is not the only skill required for effective management, it cannot be denied that in fact it is an essential and highly important skill. This skill is actively utilised in all other functions of management such as planning, organising, directing and controlling.

Hence, decision making is widely acknowledged as the centre of executive activity in business and industry and is considered as the major criterion for the evaluation of an executive's administrative performance."

Defining a Problem

Since a problem must exist in order to make a decision for solving it, we must know what the problem is so that we can identify it when it shows up. Being aware of the problem is the first prerequisite for finding a solution. The Webster's Dictionary defines a problem as, "a question raised for inquiry, consideration or solution." While this definition is not complete or self-explanatory in itself, a problem seems to exist when the symptoms of the outcome of an activity do not seem to be conforming to the expected outcome of the same activity as planned. For example, you are going to your office in the car and on the way, you get a flat tire, then you have a problem since you did not expect this to happen. Similarly, if someone becomes ill, then this is a deviation from the norm of healthy living and this would constitute a problem and the sick person would seek solution to the problem by going to the doctor.

Structure of Problems

According to Harvey G. Brightman, the problems may be of the following types:

1. **Ill-structured versus well-structured problems**: The ill-structured problems are unique, unpredicted and unprecedented situations. These problems are ambiguous and poorly understood and defy any cut-and-dry solution. These are generally "one-shot" occurrences for which standard responses are not available and hence require a creative process of problem solving which is specifically tailored to meet the requirements of the situation at hand. Such problems may involve closing of a plant, buying or merging into new company, starting a new business and so on. Because the ill-structured problems do not have well-structured solutions, such solutions generally rely upon skill, intuition, creativity, experience and considered judgement and carry with them consequences of diverse ramifications. Top-level management generally faces these problems because their environment is complex and is involved with high level policy decisions.

Well-structured problems, on the other hand, are clearly defined, routine, and repetitive and respond to standardised responses. They are familiar, complete and easily defined and analysed. These problems are generally faced by lower level and middle level managers who have, at their disposal a set of rules, policies and procedures that can be used to solve these problems so that such problems do not have to be referred to superiors for solutions. For example, if a professor cuts too many classes, the chairperson of the department can use the prescribed rules to discipline him and the issue does not have to be referred to the president of the college. Similarly, it you buy some merchandise and it turns out to be defective, you can take it back for a refund. The management of the company has a well-structured set of rules and procedures to deal with the problem of making refunds for defective merchandise.

2. **Operating level versus strategic level problems**: Operating level problems are generally well-structured problems encountered by the organisation on a daily basis. For example, a newspaper shop owner has the problem of reordering the newspapers and magazines every day and he knows when to order and how much to order. Similarly, daily or weekly production levels, inventory levels or sales levels are set and known and standard solutions exist to solve any problems in these areas when they arise. These situations are not new or unique and do not involve any changes in organisational policies or procedures.

On the other hand, strategic level problems are unique and demand high level managerial attention. These problems may involve changes in policies and are important in terms of actions taken or resources committed. While operating level problems do not affect the survival of the organisation, strategic level problems do. Sometimes, if the operating level problems are left unattended, they may become strategic level problems. For example, if no action is taken against a professor who habitually cuts classes, this may affect other professors thus making it a morale problem for the college, which then would be considered a strategic level problem.

3. **Crisis versus opportunity problems**: The crisis problems develop suddenly and are totally unexpected at a given time. These may develop within the general framework of expectations so that the management has some types of preparations to handle these crisis situations. For example, a forest fire will create a crisis problem but the government and the community is generally prepared to fight the forest fire. Similarly, a major strike at the plant may not have been expected, but the management generally has made provisions to handle the situation. Solving crisis problems is reactive in nature and requires reacting quickly and aggressively to solve the problem. It may be achieved through task forces, which may try to mould crisis situations into familiar problems for which the solutions are known to exist.

The opportunity problems are more of challenges, which must be exploited for the betterment of the organisation. For example, if an opportunity of a highly beneficial merger arises, and the organisation fails to recognise the potential, it would be considered a lost opportunity. Similarly, a slightly increased rate of employee absenteeism may mean some deeper organisational problem and if the management does not recognise this opportunity to deal with the problem, this missed opportunity may blow up into a crisis. Both the crisis problems as well as the opportunity problems are handled by the central management.

The Problem Pointers

First of all, how do we determine that there is a problem? Even if we know that there is a problem, how do we determine the extent and the seriousness of the problem? According to Miller and Starr, there are certain characteristics that are attributes of problems. One of the major characteristics of the problem is the existence of a deviation between what was expected under a given set of conditions and what actually happened.

Before solutions can be found, the problems must be thoroughly and correctly diagnosed and the decisions concerning solutions to the problems must be dealt with, keeping in view the underlying factors other than the surface symptoms. For example, a doctor prescribing a medicine for a headache as a symptom without looking into the root cause of it, will only provide a temporary relief and not really "solve" the problem. Accordingly, in properly defining a problem, we must ask some critical questions relating to it. Some of these critical questions may be:

- What type of problem is it?

- How large is the deviation from the norm?

- How quickly has this deviation been observed?

- What are the critical factors relating to the problem?

- Why do we want to solve this problem and when?

- Would the cost of solving the problem be justified?

- Who should solve the problem and what particular method is chosen to solve the problem?

These initial questions would indicate the extent of the problem so that we can become fully aware of it and grasp its significance.

It is very important that the problem be diagnosed as early and correctly as possible. For example, cancer, when detected in earlier stages, may be cured, but in advanced stages it can be fatal. The early awareness of the problem is the first prerequisite for dealing with it. However, sometimes we may not even know that there is a problem when in fact it exists until it is too late. Colon cancer, for example, does not have obvious symptoms for early detection so that the patient may not even know that he has it until in its advanced stage. At other times, we may be

aware of the problem but may not consider it serious enough to find a solution until it becomes a crisis. Some problems may hit us when their severity can no longer be ignored. For example, too many lives lost in car collisions may require legislation about seat belts in cars in order to solve the problem of death and injury in car accidents. Similarly, the destruction brought about by typhoons and hurricanes may indicate the problem of inadequate early warning systems.

Another problem pointer is a built-in signal in the process of operations so that whenever there is a deviation from expected outcome, it gives out a signal. For example, the Internal Revenue Service computer will create and send a signal to alert an administrator if some tax deductions are excessive in a given tax form so that some action can be taken. Similarly, our organisational accounting system can be set up in such a manner that any changes in the cash flow or demand, increase in the cost per unit produced, excessive and delayed state of accounts receivables, excessive inventories at hand and so on will attract the manager's attention quickly for an appropriate action.

Some problems are pointed out by third parties such as a user of a product or a consumer representative group. The problem of toxic wastes almost became a crisis when various consumer groups started pointing out the problem of the community health to the government agencies. Polaroid instant camera came into existence because of a "consumer complaint," when the consumer happened to be the daughter of the instant camera inventor, who wanted to look at the pictures taken right away. Thus, if a product is faulty, it can be brought to the attention of the manufacturer. The Federal Safety Commission and Food and Drug Administration in America test products to see if they conform to the prescribed standards. If they do not, then there is a problem for which the solution must be found.

There are some problems that come to surface due to sheer idle curiosity. The problem may not be a real one but may be considered a problem if solving it leads to better outcomes. Such a problem is not really the deviation between what is happening and what is expected, but a deviation between what is happening and what is actually achievable.

For example, when Fredrick Taylor applied scientific methods to production, the productivity improved tremendously so that there was really no problem in production except that the situation was made into a problem by asking, "can we do it better?" Based upon this premise, some organisations are continuously involved in finding problems with existing methods in order to improve upon them.

In general, a problem exists whenever there is a difference between an actual situation and the desired situation. For example, if the total number of incoming students into a college suddenly goes down than what was expected, then this would pose a problem requiring administrative attention and solution.

Factors Affecting Decision Making

Some of the factors and personal characteristics that have an impact on the decision makers are described below. Some factors are more important at higher levels of management and others are more important at lower levels.

- **Programmed versus non-programmed decisions**: As discussed earlier in the types of problems that managers face, programmed decisions are made in predictable circumstances and managers have clear parameters and criteria. Problems are well structured and alternatives are well defined. The problems are solved and decisions are implemented through established policy directives, rules and procedures.

  Non-programmed decisions are made in unique circumstances and the results of such decisions are often unpredictable. Managers face ill structured problems. These problems require a custom-made response and are usually handled by the top management. To start a new business, to merge with another business or to close a plant are all examples of non-programmed decisions. For example, when Steven Jobs and Stephen Wozniak introduced the first Apple microcomputer in 1978, they were not certain about the market for it. Today, Apple Macintosh computer is a major competitor to IBM computers.

- **Information inputs**: It is very important to have adequate and accurate information about the situation for decision making, otherwise the quality of the decision will suffer. It must be recognised, however that an individual has certain mental constraints, which limit the amount of information that he can adequately handle. Less information is as dangerous as too much information. Some highly authoritative individuals do make decisions on the basis of comparatively less information when compared to more conservative decision makers.

- **Prejudice**: Prejudice and bias is introduced in our decisions by our perceptual processes and may cause us to make ineffective decisions. First of all, perception is highly selective, which means that we only accept what we want to accept and hence only such type of information filters down to our senses. Secondly, perception is highly subjective, meaning that information gets distorted in order to be consistent with our pre-established beliefs, attitudes and values. For example, a preconceived idea that a given person or an organisation is honest or deceptive, good or poor source of information, late or prompt on delivery and so on, can have a considerable effect on the objective ability of the decision maker and the quality of the decision.

- **Cognitive constraints**: A human brain, which is the source of thinking, creativity and decision making, is limited in capacity in a number of ways. For example, except for some unique circumstances, our memory is short term, having the capacity of only a few ideas, words and symbols. Secondly,

we cannot perform more than limited number of calculations in our heads and it is tough to compare all the possible alternatives and make a choice. Finally psychologically, we are always uncomfortable with making decisions. We are never really sure if our choice of the alternative was correct and optimal until the impact of the implication of the decision has been felt. This makes us feel insecure.

- **Attitudes about risk and uncertainty**: These attitudes are developed in a person, partly due to certain personal characteristics and partly due to organizational characteristics. If the organizational policy is such that it penalizes losses more than it rewards gains, then the decision maker would tend to avoid the alternatives that have some chances of failure. Thus a manager may avoid a potentially good opportunity if there is a slight chance of a loss. The personal characteristics of a decision maker regarding his attitudes towards risk taking affect the success of the decision. The risk taking attitude is influenced by the following variables:

    A. **Intelligence of the decision maker**: Higher intelligence generally results in highly conservative attitudes and highly conservative decision makers take low risks. There are others who are more willing to take calculated risks if the potential rewards are larger and there is some chance of success.

    B. **Expectation of the decision maker**: People with high expectations are generally highly optimistic in nature and are willing to make decisions even with less information. The decision makers with low expectations of success will require more and more information to decide upon a course of action.

    C. **Time constraints**: As the complexity of the personal habits of the decision maker and the complexity of the decision variables increase, so does the time required to make a rational decision. Even though there are certain individuals who work best under time pressures and may outperform others under severe time constraints, most people, by and large, require time to gather all the available information for evaluation purposes. However, most people under time pressure rely an "heuristic approach", which relies on satisfactory rather than optimal decisions, thus limiting the search for additional information, considering few alternatives and few characteristics of alternatives and focusing on reasons to reject some alternatives. This approach may also be in use when the cost of gathering information and evaluating all such information is too high.

- **Personal habits**: Personal habits of the decision maker, formed through social environmental influences and personal perceptual processes must be studied in order to predict his decision making style. Some people stick to their decisions even when these decisions are not optimal. For example,

Hitler found himself bound by his own decisions. Once he decided to attack Russia, there was no going back even when it was realised that the decision was not the right one. Some people cannot admit that they were wrong and they continue with their decisions even ignoring such evidence, which indicates that a change is necessary. Some decision makers shift the blame for failure on outside factors rather than their own mistakes. These personal habits have great impact on organisational operations and effectiveness.

- **Social and cultural influences**: The social and group norms exert considerable influence on the style of the decision maker. Ebert and Mitchell define a social norm to be "an evaluating scale designating an acceptable latitude and an objectionable latitude for behaviour activity, events, beliefs or any object of concern to members of a social unit. In other words social norm is the standard and accepted way of making judgements." Similarly, cultural upbringing and various cultural dimensions have a profound impact on the decision making style of an individual. For example, in Japanese organisational system, a decision maker arrives at a decision in consensus with others. This style is culturally oriented and makes implementation of the decision much easier since everybody participates in the decision making process. In America, on the contrary the decision making style is generally individualistic with the help of decision models and quantitative techniques.

7.3.1 Rationality in Planning and Decision Making

In planning, the rational planning entails a number of rational actions or steps. Taylor (1998) outlines five steps, as follows:

- Definition of the problems and/or objectives
- Identification of alternative plans/policies
- Evaluation of alternative plans/policies
- Implementation of plans/policies
- Monitoring of effects of plans/policies

On the other hand, rational decision making simply involves following the steps mentioned earlier without any biases introduced into the process at any step. The rational approach to decision making was devised to assist managers in making objective decisions rather than decisions based on intuition and experience alone. A rational decision maker must establish the reliability of the information received and must be free from perceptual biases. Perceptual biases are introduced when a decision maker has the tendency to filter out information that might be considered threatening to his self-image or his security. An intuitive decision maker may also have motivational biases that would affect the quality of the decision.

While some decisions made by managers on the basis of past experiences have turned out to be excellent, the tendency is towards rational decision making so that there exists fewer chances of making mistakes in the process. The rational

decision maker goes through the five steps mentioned earlier very carefully and makes certain that all relevant aspects of the problem as well as the solution have been looked into. This is important because as human beings we have limited capacity to absorb information and have ability to deal with no more than five or six variables at a time. This concept is known as Bounded Rationality. The attempt to be rational is bounded by the enormous complexity of many problems. In today's environment decisions must be sometimes made very quickly. They may have limited time, limited information and may have to deal with multidimensional complex issues. The bounded rationality perspective is often associated with intuitive judgments. It does not mean that the intuitive decisions are not rational, but it means that the manager may not have the resources of time to look at all aspects of the problem or all possible alternatives. He may not look for optimal decisions but satisfactory decisions.

7.3.2 Information and Planning

Information and planning can be discussed by examining the management information system (MIS). MIS is a planned approach towards collecting internal and external information related to organization. Computers process this information to present correct and informative reports. These reports help decision makers in taking decisions. MIS provides management with needed information on a regular basis. It is called as Decision Support Systems, Enterprise Information Systems and Executive Information Systems.

Information systems in the enterprise

An organization consists of different levels—operational, knowledge, management, and strategic—with each level having its own interests and specialties. The managers at each level need different types of information that a single system cannot provide. Therefore, different kinds of information systems are used in an organization to serve the different levels. In addition to levels, an organization is divided into various **functional areas**—the in-house services that support an organization's business. The major functional areas of an organization include sales and marketing, manufacturing and production, finance and accounting, and human resources. The information systems at each organizational level are also designed to support the functional areas of the business.

Different kinds of information systems

Depending on the organizational level at which the information systems serve, they are classified into four categories, namely *operational-level*, *knowledge-level*, *management-level*, and *strategic-level* systems. Figure 7.2 shows the different kinds of information systems used in an organization as well as the people who use them.
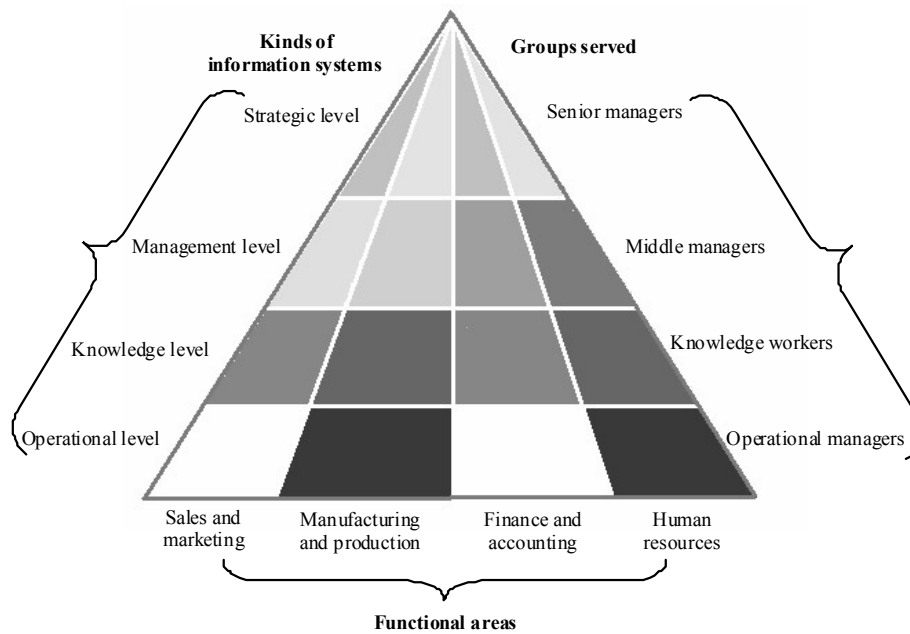
Fig. 7.2 Different Kinds of Information Systems

Operational-level systems

Operational-level systems are designed to serve the managers at the operational level. These systems keep track of day-to-day activities taking place in the organization and are responsible for answering routine questions like the amount that has been paid to a certain supplier, the number of units a customer has ordered for a particular item, and the number of units of a particular item that is available for sale, etc. The main function of the operational-level systems is to track and record the transactions such as sales, purchases, cash deposits, payments, etc.

Knowledge-level systems

Knowledge-level systems support application of knowledge in organizations. These systems integrate new knowledge acquired through research into the existing system, and support dissemination of this business knowledge to managers and other employees. Some examples of knowledge-level systems are computer-aided design (CAD), computer-aided engineering (CAE), computer-aided software engineering (CASE), and computer-aided manufacturing (CAM) software. These systems provide feedback quickly to the knowledge workers resulting in better performance of the organization.

Management-level systems

Management-level systems help middle managers to monitor, control, and administer the organization. These systems provide periodic reports like monthly, quarterly and yearly report of sale, purchase, stock, etc. Some of the management-level systems can also be used for 'what-if' analysis in order to answer some less

structured questions like the quantity of an item that should be manufactured if a particular amount of sale in future is expected. Answers to these types of questions often require information from inside as well as outside the organization.

Strategic-level systems

Strategic-level systems support senior managers in taking decisions on strategic issues that affect the organization over a long period of time. Some examples of strategic decisions include launching new products, forecasting the market trends for a specific line of products in the next five years, collaborating with other companies, knowing the human resource requirement in the long term, etc. The strategic-level systems harmonize any changes in the external environment with the available organizational abilities. These systems are used by the highest-ranking officials of an organization, such as vice-president, CEO, board of directors, etc.

Six major types of systems

A typical organization has six types of information systems with each supporting a specific organizational level. These systems include transaction processing systems (TPS) at the operational level, office automation systems (OAS) and knowledge work systems (KWS) at the knowledge level, management information systems (MIS) and decision support systems (DSS) at the management level, and the executive support systems (ESS) at the strategic level.

7.3.3 Directional Planning

Directional planning is also known as strategic planning. It is the process of planning as to how to achieve the organizational goals with the available resources and is undertaken by the central management of the organization. Strategic planning is necessary and important for the following reasons:

First, there are a large number of external variables — whose values do not remain constant — that affect the operations of the organization. These variables include changing international environment, political and governmental policies and forces, economic trends, social dynamism and so on. Strategic plans must have provisions to cope with these changing situations.

Second, all natural resources are becoming scarce. The management must decide on how to compete for these resources and how to allocate and utilize them properly. The profiles of human resources are constantly changing in nature. There is more and more of an educated work-force and most of the routine and repetitious work is being taken over by computers and robotics. Hence a proper redistribution of human resources must be put into proper focus.

Thirdly, there has been an information explosion which has tremendously increased the data base and has necessitated increase in knowledge and ability to plan effectively. Since effective strategic planning takes into account the contributions of all environmental forces, most companies find it necessary to develop strategic plans to cope with the influences of such forces.

Strategic planning and implementation of strategic plans constitute a separate management process known as strategic management. Strategic management is top level management's responsibility and is defined as, "the process of identifying and pursuing the organization's mission by aligning the organization's internal capabilities with the external demands of its environment." Since demands of the external environment affect every organization, large or small, strategic planning becomes necessary to respond to competition, cope with the rapidly changing environment and effectively utilize resources for the purpose of fulfilling organization's missions.

Some of the critical questions that strategic managers address in the process of strategic planning are:

— What is our business? What business should we be in ?

— Who are our customers and what do they want?

— Who are our competitors ? What are their strengths and limitations?

— What is our competitive strength ? How should we use our resources to gain a competitive edge?

— What major changes are occuring in our environments ? How will these changes affect our businesses ?

The analytical responses to these result in "strategic thinking" which is necessary to cope with the changing dynamics of the market place.

Check Your Progress

1. What is the second step in planning?

2. Give examples of ill-structured problems.

3. What is bounded rationality?

4. Give examples of knowledge-level systems.

7.4 ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS AND ITS PROBLEMS

To understand how organizational goals are set in an organization, let us discuss the concept of Management by Objectives (MBO).

Management by Objectives

The ideas behind MBO were advocated and popularized by Peter Drucker, who stressed that business performance requires that each job be directed towards the objective of the whole business. Even though it is a comparatively new area, a lot of attention has been paid to it, notably by John Humble in England and George Odiorne in America. George Odiorne has explained the concept as follows:

'The system of management by objectives can be described as a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of results expected of him and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members.'

MBO by definition is a goal-oriented process and not a work-oriented process. Just being busy and doing work is not important, if it does not effectively lead to achievement. It is both an aid to planning as well as a motivating factor for employees. By its proper utilization, some of the errors in planning can be eliminated or minimized. It is a comprehensive system based upon set objectives in which all members participate. These objectives are common for all participants and the extent or rewards for each member would be determined by the degree of achievement. This leads to a fair appraisal system. Additionally, a good MBO plan involves regular and face-to-face superior-subordinate communication and hence it improves the communication network.

Objectives of MBO

The objectives of MBO are as follows:

- Determining and judging the performance
- Increasing capability and growth of the subordinates
- Enhancing communication between supervisors and subordinates
- Relating individual performance to organizational objectives
- Enhancing organizational control and integration

The MBO Process

Some of the elements in the MBO process can be described as follows:

1. **Central goal setting**: The first basic phase in the MBO process is the defining and clarification of the organizational objectives. These are set by the central management and usually in consultation with the other managers. These objectives should be specific and realistic. This process gets the group managers and the top managers to be jointly involved. Once these goals are clearly established, they should be made known to all the members of the organization and be clearly understood by them.

2. **Manager-subordinate involvement**: After the organizational goals have been set and defined, the subordinates work with the manager in setting their individual goals. Such joint consultation is important because people are much more motivated in achieving objectives that were set by them to start with. The goals of the subordinates are specific and short range and primarily indicate what the subordinate's unit is capable of achieving in a specified period of time.

3. **Matching goals and resources**: The objectives in themselves do not mean anything unless we have resources and means to achieve those objectives. Accordingly, management must make sure that the subordinates are provided with necessary tools and materials to effectively achieve these goals.

4. **Freedom of implementation**: The manager–subordinate task force should have adequate freedom in deciding on the utilization of resources and the means of achieving the objectives. As long as these means are within the larger framework of organizational policies, there should be minimum interference by the superiors.

5. **Review and appraisal of performance**: There should be periodic reviews of progress between manager and the subordinates. These reviews would determine if the individual is making satisfactory progress. They will also reveal if any unanticipated problems have developed. They also help the subordinate understand the process of MBO better. They also improve the morale of subordinates since the manager is showing active interest in the subordinate's work and progress. However, the performance appraisal at these intermediate reviews should be conducted, based upon fair and measurable standards. These reviews also will assist the manager and the subordinates to modify either the objectives or the methods, if necessary. This increases the chances of success in meeting the goals and makes sure that there are no surprises at the final appraisal.

Advantages of MBO

Henri Tosi and Stephen Carroll have done extensive work in this area and described some of the pros and cons of MBO. Some of the advantages of MBO are:

1. Since MBO is a result-oriented process and focuses on setting and controlling goals, it encourages managers to do detailed planning. As the planning process is improved, it helps in a better overall management system.

2. Both the manager and the subordinates know what is expected of them and hence there is no role ambiguity or confusion.

3. The managers are required to establish measurable targets and standards of performance and priorities for these targets. Since these measurable targets are tailored to the particular abilities of the subordinates, it obtains maximum contribution from them thus providing optimum utility of human resources. In addition the responsibilities and authority of the personnel is clearly established.

4. It makes individuals more aware of the company goals. Most often the subordinates are concerned with their own objectives and the environment surrounding them. But with MBO, the subordinates feel proud of being involved in the organizational goals. This improves their morale and commitment.

NOTES

5. MBO often highlights the area in which the employees need further training. By taking keen interest in the development of skills and abilities of subordinates, the management provides an opportunity for strengthening those areas needing further refinement thus leading to career development.

6. The system of periodic evaluation lets the subordinates know how well they are doing. Since MBO puts strong emphasis on quantifiable objectives, the measurement and appraisal can be more objective, specific and equitable.

7. It improves communication between management and subordinates. This continued feedback helps clarify any ambiguities and it helps in the process of control so that any deviations can be easily and quickly corrected.

7.4.1 Problems of Organizational Goals

The problems of organizational goals can be discussed by examining the disadvantages of the MBO process. The disadvantages are as follows:

1. MBO can only succeed if it has the complete support of top management.

2. MBO may be resented by subordinates. They may be under pressure to get along with the management when setting goals and objectives and these goals may be set unrealistically high. This may lower their morale and they may become suspicious about the philosophy behind MBO.

3. The emphasis in MBO system is on quantifying the goals and objectives. It does not leave any ground for subjective goals. Some areas are difficult to quantify and even more difficult to evaluate.

4. There is considerable paperwork involved and it takes too much of the manager's time. Too many meetings and too many reports add to the manager's responsibility and burden.

5. The emphasis is more on short-term goals.

6. Most managers may not be sufficiently skilled in inter-personal interaction such as coaching and counselling, which is extensively required.

7. The integration of MBO system with other systems such as forecasting and budgeting etc., is very poor. This makes the overall functioning of all systems more difficult.

8. Group goal achievement is more difficult. When the goals of one department depend on the goals of another department, cohesion is more difficult to obtain.

7.5 PLANNING AND SPORTS ORGANIZATIONS

Examining planning as a process, it can be stated that it consists of purposes, which the sport organization desires to perform in future, and the plans that are means devised to realize purposes. The adequate defining of the purposes and

developing the plans lead to results desired and growth in the organization's efficiency and in the process itself is another important element – the mission of the organization. The cycle of the planning defines the various assignments in management during the planning process and these tasks refer to the various elements, which may be as follows: (1) analyses of the current position, (2) confirming purposes, (3) examining various options, (4) detailed planning phase, (5) plan evaluation, (6) finalizing the planning process and (7) feed-back. The effective planning process consists of more steps or phases which are grounded on confirming the common strategic direction and on defining the role of the strategic and the operative plans.

In sport organizations there are four key phases, each of them consisting of various stages during the implementation of the planning process, these phases are as follows: (1) preplanning phase or preparing for planning, (2) formulating the strategy phase, (3) Implementation phase and (4) evaluation and control phase. Each of these phases together with the stages is equally important for the final result and that is why to the functioning of the organization itself and the realizing of the purposes.

Pre-planning phase

In this beginning phase of planning research and describing of the present position must be initiated. This phase unites and combines the information from the yearly report and revision which contains statistic, financial and other data concerning the internal activities at the organization and the external influences to the organization. The key information of the organization's situation at this beginning of planning phase is taken from the yearly and several years reports. By revising and quantification of the sports and working results in the four-year or the yearly plan the assignments to perform must be examined, the level of performance must be confirmed and the reasons for non-performance of purposes are stated. The results from these aspects in future periods should be also stated and this can be shown by tables or detailed text which are important to the sport organization elements.

Because every organization works in a certain environment (external and internal) in which it realizes the purposes of its activities and this environment is a subject to situation analyses, analyses of the position and has the purpose to point out the level of compatibility of the sport organization. The attentive analyses of the situation in which the organization precedes the formulation of the efficient strategies for obtaining competitive advantages and enables the necessary prognoses-making as a pre-condition to planning.

When the analyses are made about the external and the internal environment in which the organization is functioning, as well as its competitiveness in certain circumstances and situations, a SWOT analyses is applied. By making the SWOT analysis, the advantages of the organization are evaluated, i.e., S – strength and W – weaknesses, together with the opportunities and chances O – opportunities which come for the external environment as well as the T – threats. The

opportunities or chances are the circumstances in the environment which are favourable for improving the organization's positions referring to the competitors and the threats are circumstances in the environment which may put the organization in danger the competitive position of the organization. SWOT analysis is used as a ground for the future development of the organization, but for the evaluation of the present abilities of the organization a comparison of the organization is to be made using benchmarking.

Formulating the strategy phase

Before the beginning of the performance at any sport organization, same applies to the new cycles beginning in the old organizations; the directions for future-works should be set out. The answers to the problems about the future approaches in the organization, on the reasons for its existence, about the works in which it is involved, planning the directions of the activities, all that should be viewed in two initial elements of the strategic planning – the mission and the vision. From here come the rest of the issues to be defined – purposes, strategies and tactics.

Vision, as it refers to a wider current activities range can be defined as 'mind picture' which actually and realistically presents the future of the organization. Base of the vision, as an element of planning, concerns the purpose of existing and sustaining of the organization (mission) to make the sense for the long-term purposes and the initial grounds for choosing an adequate strategy.

Vision is the idealistic picture of the situation of the working and other activities at the organizations, which may be obtained in most favourable circumstances and which responses to the most optimistic intentions of the establishing body, the owner, the leader or the manager. The manager's vision on growth defines the current profile of the organization and also the future position of the organization. Vision gives the responses to the problems what are we presently and what would we like to be.

The vision in sports equals to the concept and politics and strategies, this is a dream about the sports even when it seems to be unattainable. Keeping in mind the fact that the sport results are limited to the real human abilities, the sports vision is limited to the manager's capacity. Vision in sports is a product made by all managers, most often the trainer-manager. It refers to individual athlete and sport teams with existing positions' goals, sport values and projective value which can be obtained by planning actions. Vision covers the entire sport organization and its whole projection in the future, which is why it is only the idea for directing the organization which is to be altered in the process of confirming the organization's purposes.

Vision always has to be adequate and explicit. Unidentified expressions are not suitable for involving the people in its realization. It cannot be too wide or heavy to be performed. The most important aspect of the vision is the level to which it responds to the needs and the expectations of the employees. It should

be taken into consideration that the difference between the successful and not successful vision is the fact whether it is correctly realized in the practice. The explanation of the concept of the moving vision can be shown in the following steps: (1) announcing the explanation of the vision, (2) managing its importance through constant conversations and model making and (3) structure changes in the organization grounded on the vision.

Mission is the expression or the formal explanation of the nature of working activities at the organization and refers to the essence of the reasons for its existing. It responses to two questions: in what working field are we and the activities and why we are dealing with these works? Mission is the fundamental assignment of the organization's intentions for realizing its vision.

It is the logical extension of the vision process which should be redirected in real planning action and can be defined also as a description of the reasons for existing of an organization. Mission is the reason for existing and it should be feasible in reference to the organization's potential and the environment's condition.

Mission or the reason for existing of each organization contains also the mission which the sport, as a category of the human activity has in it. This is an important element to be recognized by the sport managers while formulating the strategy and the organization's manifestation of mission and should not be subordinated to certain tendencies of equalizing the mission with money or profit. Mission is the self-definition of the organization, the essence in which it is different to other organizations. As the mission is limited to the criteria of its formulating, it cannot be moved in the framework of the general sports definition, its exclusive sport activities, and sport philosophy and also in the framework of the organization.

Planning should begin with defining announcing the mission because the mission is the reason why an organization exists. Announcing the mission is a clear and concise document that describes all working assignments at the sport organization to direct it and its functions and operations toward the most favourable opportunities. Announcing the mission should be brief, expressed in one sentence to be easily understood, to be worked on its realization individually and in team using the potential of the organization.

The announcement of the mission can be a very powerful mean to clear defining the reasons for existing of the sport organization, and the devotion to its formulating can be of key importance to its success. Mission helps management to focus on preserving or improving the competitiveness of the organization according to the others in the field or according to the customers of the sport services and products.

The final result that an organization desires to complete in future presents the purpose of the sport organization. The purposes are defined as a future situation referring to quantity and quality toward which the organization is directed and leads its long-term activities. A purpose expresses the reason for existing of the organization and help to understand them, it also defines the needs that the

organization should response in the future. All resources at the organization in various intensity and scales as to its functions are organizational purposes and they are the control positions in realizing plans. Based on vision and mission and in the framework of a certain period the long term may be defined as results that the organization has to achieve.

Having in mind that in sports and in sport organizations there is only one general purpose coming from their mission and refers to creating new and constant human and sport values, than the rest of them are concretely put to serve the development of the general purpose's realization. Their sources can be the following: (1) mission of sports, (2) the human freedom to be involved in sports, (3) achieving high sport results, (4) stability and working positions of the sport organization, (5) developing the expertise and creativity, (6) respecting the sport rivals and self-respect, and (7) developing the standard and the improvement of the athlete and the expert.

Strategy implementation phase

After the phase of formulating the strategy, the next phase is its implementation and the transition between the two of them is very critical and can result in difficulties during the transition period. This is the reason why the operative plans should be developed very well, namely those that define expenses and the additional plans related to concrete functions of the organization and are related to the strategic plans. It can be stated that the implementation phase depends on the development and the implementing of the operative plans and also the coherence between the internal and the external environment where the strategy is to be implemented.

As there are different risks that put into danger the implementation of the strategy planning, the coordination among the members, actors, stakeholders as to the plan documentation is very essential. The strategic plan that is formally accepted by the sport organization has stronger chances to overcome problems than plans which are informally used by other members and that is why the formulating of the plan must involve key investors in strategy implementation.

The development of the operative actions is related to operative-tactics actions that are confirmed by introducing measures and conditions for realizing plans and the development of alternative actions to be taken in various periods. This presumes revising the planning details and the phase is also called a detail planning phase. As a finalization of this stage of the strategy implementation, the management should have a clear picture of the position of the sport organization, the purposes and the achievable options, one of them is to be chosen. The detailed planning is a process of finding the most efficient approach to obtain the defined purpose.

During the process of detailed planning the key activities for purpose achieving are to be identified first and if they are too complex – they must be divided into to a reduced number of smaller key activities. For each of them the way of performing

is to be defined as well as the time, resources for the performance and on this base the expenses are calculated for each activity. Following action in the established order of their priority helps to save time on assignments with less priority.

As purposes are the desired results, the plans are the means to produce the desired results. In cases when the purposes are part of the activities on strategic, tactic and operative level they can be less important without the definition of the approach for obtaining a purpose. The importance of planning becomes evident when there are more approaches to perform a purpose and the plans differ depending on the level of the organization and the number of repeating implementations.

Plan is the prescribed official document for the desired future state of the organization and in the same time it contains the elements of analyses of the present and the potential resources as a ground for the total growth of the organization. It is the way to foresee future status and present actions to reach the desired positions by the criteria for control of performing purposes and is the ground for decision making in everyday working process. Plan is the precise direction in a certain time and for a certain job assignment that should be performed, and it expresses the desired direction of organization's development. There are four fundamental elements in the plan: (1) purposes that precisely draw future states, (2) actions that are the means for performing purposes, (3) resources that are usually limited during actions because of past determining of the resource quantities needed for the purpose performance (4) realizing the plan that is related to directing human resources toward realizing the plan.

As we have learnt before, in terms of bases of organizational level, the plans can be categorized as strategic, tactic and operative. Strategic plans contain details on the activities to be undertaken to achieve the strategic purposes, defined by the organization as mission, purposes and strategies. These are developed by the top management of the organization to cover relatively long period from 3 to 5 years. Tactic plans are devised to support the implementation of the strategy plan and for obtaining the tactic purposes. Operative plans are the support for the tactic plans and for obtaining the operative purposes and it is related to time frameworks of one year and even shorter. These are performed by the operative level managers.

Evaluation and control of the planning assignments

A plan is very important document that should be permanently used during the year in order to make decisions on important issues related to finances and the entire internal environment of the organization. When the plan is finalized and accepted at the beginning of its realization it should be regularly monitored and revised. Changes in the organizational structure, new sports production, different needs in the services of the organization are some of the internal factors affecting a sports organization. The externa factors include changes in legislation, economic relations, political changes and the entry of new competitive organizations, etc.

After working out the details of the plan, examinations of the phases should be made as to functioning, the expected affects – positive and negative results. It may also happen that after the evaluation and comparison of the results, the managers make a decision that the plan is not worth it to be implemented. When at this stage, the evaluation of the plan is made, an opportunity is acquired to revise other options that were not taken into consideration before.

The methods for plan evaluation are numerous, among the most important are the analyses of the expenses/incomes/profits, PMI analysis, Force Field analysss, prognoses on the cash flow, Break Even Point and the risk analyis of the contingency planning. One of the approaches to test the efficiency of the plan is the benchmarking test. The terminology benchmarking refers to the managing process on various levels of the organization activities in coherence to certain standards and the purpose is to give information for improving the decision making and evaluation processes that managers make to obtain better results of the activities. The two main types of benchmarking are the results focused on comparative information about the activities and the processes developing in the sport organization.

With accepting the plan, the programmes or the projects are finalized. It may be useful to make an evaluation of the plan in reference to the quality, obtained quantities, the time that were needed to achieve what is planned and on what expenses. All these aspects should be revised in relation to the internal and external effects on the plan and thanks to that the management may come to conclusions needed for future planning.

Check Your Progress

5. Which type of goals are not covered by the MBO process?

6. What are operative plans?

7.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The second step in planning is to make an assessment of the available resources. This will give an idea of resources that need to be procured.

2. Some examples of ill-structured problems may involve closing of a plant, buying or merging into new company, starting a new business and so on.

3. The rational decision maker goes through the five steps mentioned earlier very carefully and makes certain that all relevant aspects of the problem as well as the solution have been looked into. This is important because as human beings we have limited capacity to absorb information and have ability to deal with no more than five or six variables at a time. This concept is known as bounded rationality.

4. Some examples of knowledge-level systems are computer-aided design (CAD), computer-aided engineering (CAE), computer-aided software engineering (CASE), and computer-aided manufacturing (CAM) software.

5. The emphasis in MBO system is on quantifying the goals and objectives. It does not leave any ground for subjective goals. Some areas are difficult to quantify and even more difficult to evaluate.

6. Operative plans are those plans which define expenses and the additional plans related to concrete functions of the organization and are related to the strategic plans.

7.7 SUMMARY

- Planning is one of the primary functions of management as all other functions depend upon how the organization plans to achieve its objectives. It involves the process of ascertaining objectives and deciding on the process to attain these objectives.

- The planning process includes five major stages to perform planning related activities: Establish and clearly define the central and overall objectives of the organization, make an assessment of the available resources, Develop forecasts and future conditions, Preparation of derivative plans, Implement the plan and evaluate its results.

- Decision making and problem solving is a core function of management, because it is an integral part of all other managerial functions such as planning, organising, directing and controlling.

- Rational decision-making and problem solving may be used interchangeably since a problem has to exist and a decision has to be made to solve such a problem. While most decisions indeed involve a problem, some decisions are part of routine and may not involve a problem.

- The answers to questions like how do we determine that there is a problem? And even if we know that there is a problem, how do we determine the extent and the seriousness of the problem? Is answered by Miller and Starr, who believe there are certain characteristics that are attributes of problems. One of the major characteristics of the problem is the existence of a deviation between what was expected under a given set of conditions and what actually happened.

- There different types of problems: Ill-structured versus well-structured problems, Operating level versus strategic level problems and Crisis versus opportunity problems.

- In planning, the rational planning entails a number of rational actions or steps. Taylor (1998) outlines five steps, as follows:

  (i) Definition of the problems and/or objectives

(ii) Identification of alternative plans/policies

(iii) Evaluation of alternative plans/policies

(iv) Implementation of plans/policies

(v) Monitoring of effects of plans/policies

- An organization consists of different levels—operational, knowledge, management, and strategic—with each level having its own interests and specialties. The managers at each level need different types of information that a single system cannot provide.

- Directional planning is also known as strategic planning. It is the process of planning as to how to achieve the organizational goals with the available resources and is undertaken by the central management of the organization.

- The ideas behind MBO were advocated and popularized by Peter Drucker, who stressed that business performance requires that each job be directed towards the objective of the whole business.

- MBO by definition is a goal-oriented process and not a work-oriented process. Just being busy and doing work is not important, if it does not effectively lead to achievement. It is both an aid to planning as well as a motivating factor for employees.

- The problems of organizational goals can be discussed by examining the disadvantages of the MBO process.

- The cycle of the planning defines the various assignments in management during the planning process and these tasks refer to the various elements, which may be as follows: (1) analyses of the current position, (2) confirming purposes, (3) examining various options, (4) detailed planning phase, (5) plan evaluation, (6) finalizing the planning process and (7) feed-back.

- In sport organizations there are four key phases, each of them consisting of various stages during the implementation of the planning process, these phases are as follows: (1) preplanning phase or preparing for planning, (2) formulating the strategy phase, (3) Implementation phase and (4) evaluation and control phase.

7.8 KEY WORDS

- **Planning:** It involves the process of ascertaining objectives and deciding on the process to attain these objectives.

- **Rational Decision-Making:** The rational approach to decision making was devised to assist managers in making objective decisions rather than decisions based on intuition and experience alone.

- **MIS:** It is a planned approach towards collecting internal and external information related to organization

- **Directional Planning:** Also known as strategic planning, it is the process of planning as to how to achieve the organizational goals with the available resources and is undertaken by the central management of the organization.

- **MBO:** MBO by definition is a goal-oriented process and not a work-oriented process. It is a comprehensive system based upon set objectives in which all members participate.

7.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. 'Planning can be considered as a series of sequential steps.' What are the steps?
2. Write a short-note on problem pointers.
3. What is the structure of problems?
4. What is directional planning?
5. List the objectives of MBO.

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the factors affecting decision-making.
2. Discuss the organizational goals through the MBO process.
3. Describe the advantages and problems of the organizational goals.
4. Explain planning as a part of sports organization.

7.10 FURTHER READINGS

Watt, David. 2004. *Sports Management and Administration*. London: Routledge.

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UNIT 8   GOALS, CONSTRAINTS AND ALTERNATIVES

Structure

8.0 INTRODUCTION

We have already learnt in the previous units that planning is a very significant component for achieving organizational goals. But what are these organizational goals really? It is very important for the organization, be in the sports field, to ensure the setting of goals. This involves specifying what these goals constitute. These involve not only enumerating the different kinds of goals, but also sub-divisions within these goals in order to rank them as per priority so that their completion through efficient organizational processes and steps are achieved. But the organizational goals are important be understood from yet another perspective and that is of the different constraints that have an effect on the goals. Unless, the constraints are identified, it is difficult to deal with them. Another important factor which affects organizational goals and their achievements are alternatives. And these are nothing but all the possible courses of action for the perusal of the goal or situation. In this unit, we will discuss the goals, constraints and alternatives of an organization.

8.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

* Discuss the concept of specification of goals

* Describe the constraints-based approach of sports management

8.2   SPECIFICATION OF GOALS

The planning process for all organizations is built on the framework of the statement of a formal mission, specific objectives (established on the basis of the mission

statement) and the plans that can be developed to achieve these goals or objectives. Figure 8.1 shows the planning process.

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┌──────────┐      ┌────────────┐      ┌──────────┐
│ Mission  │ ───▶ │ Objectives │ ───▶ │  Plans   │
└──────────┘      └────────────┘      └──────────┘
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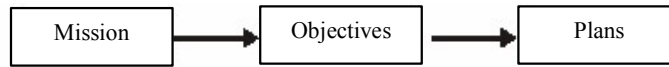
Fig. 8.1 The Planning Process

The need for planning exists at all levels of the organizational hierarchy but is extremely important at higher levels where the potential for impact on organizational success is greater. Once the upper level strategies are well-defined and understood, then the lower level managers can plan accordingly, in order to accomplish the objectives of their units. The specification of goals can be understood through the characteristics of sound objectives and their hierarchy.

Characteristics of Sound Objectives

Sound objectives or goals should have five basic characteristics which are as follows:

1. In a written format
2. Time bound
3. Measurable
4. Attainable
5. Mutually supportive

Figure 8.2 shows the characteristics of sound objectives.
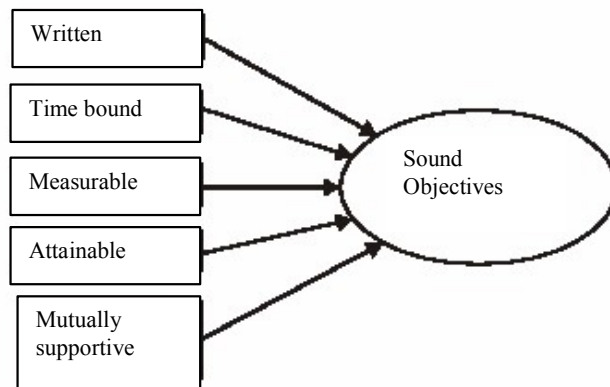
Fig. 8.2 Characteristics of Sound Objectives

Organizational objectives should be stated in writing. They should be specific and communicated clearly so that all members of the organization are aware of what is expected of them. This eliminates ambiguity and confusion. Placing objectives in a written form increases employees understanding of them and thus leads to commitment. Objectives should also be time-bound. A time limit must be set for the achievement of the given objectives. They cannot be open-ended. Employees also need to know the time frame in which an objective should be

accomplished. Establishing deadlines gives workers a sense of challenge and they take pride in meeting these challenges.

Hierarchy of Objectives

While the management is primarily concerned with the organizational mission and establishing goals and strategies, objectives exist at all levels of the organizational hierarchy. The broader aims of the company are broken down into hierarchical segments of divisional objectives, departmental objectives, work group objectives and employee objectives. Each level of objective is supported by one or more lower level objectives. This identification enables each member of the organization to relate his contribution to the overall objectives. This helps in the proper alignment of objectives at all levels of the organization with the central aim of the organization.

Example: An electric power plant may have four types of objectives: policy, strategic, project, and input. These objectives are grouped as policy, strategic and operational ones. They can be arranged hierarchically as follows:

8.3 CONSTRAINTS BASED PERSPECTIVE ON SPORTS LEARNING

A sound and structured theoretical model of both the learner and process of learning is crucial for the designing of appropriate environments which can be used for performance and learning of movement skills in sports and physical education. Motor learning study focuses on the behavioural, biomechanical, and neural bases of development, acquisition, and performance of functional movement skills.

These learning models help the organizations in recognizing and adopting the best learning environments which can give the most effective results in the allotted practice time. Further, there are many approaches which can be used for developing the motor learning models, and one of the emerging approaches is the constraints-led perspective for acquisition of movement skills and game play knowledge. It utilizes the task, performer and environmental constraints to direct the acquisition of movement skills and decision-making behaviours in learners. In this approach, the different sets of constraints initiate certain specific movements from the learners. This is important during the physical education classes.

It has been seen from various research-based evidence that it is pertinent that the educators of physical education have an in-depth knowledge about how sports actions in real situations take place so as to manipulate the task constraints as per needs in the practice sessions. This necessitates appropriate information–movement couplings. The movement variability must be treated by the physical educators as a disadvantage to learning and in fact it should be thought of as an important phenomenon preceding the acquisition of a stable and functional movement pattern.

A very important role played by a constraint-specific approach of learning is that it allows the physical educators to gain cognizance about the influence of physical education on each individual as per the different performer, task and environmental constraints. Teaching is considered to be a changing art which works in tandem with the science of motor learning theories. Through the constraints-objective, the physical education teachers become aware that the skill acquisition and game play is affected by the neurobiological processes.

Identification of Constraints

In this theory of learning, the identification of the biggest and crucial limiting factor (i.e. constraint) which obstructs the achievement of a goal is undertaken in order to systematically reducing the effect of the constraint till the point it has no obstructive bearing on the learning. For instance, the constraints are known as bottlenecks in manufacturing organizations. The improvement process in this case requires a a scientific approach. It theorises that no matter the type of complex system, the constituents are always in the form of multiple linked activities, and one among this link obstructs the system in its entirety (that is to say that the weakest link in the chain is this constraint activity).

Biological Constraints

These are the constraints which restrict the ability of the species to learn newer tasks that are beyond the comprehension of the species due to the limitations of mental or cognitive and or physical abilities. For example, if we take the example of apes (Gorillas and Chimps), we can observe that even though they are capable of undertaking physical activities and even learn sign language, still their mental organization prevents them to speak or learn to read.

Physical Constraints

As the name suggests, there refer to those physical constraints which limit our physical actions.

Authoritative Constraints

Some individuals in sports, are adept at making direct decisions independently, they are called authoritative leaders. At times, dictatorial or autocratic adjectives are also used to refer to this style of leadership. Another example of this type of constraint could be a coach who is strict and has a rather commanding vocal and domineering behaviour towards his team. So, in this case all the ill-effects arising out of such authoritative behaviour is considered to be authoritative constraints.

8.3.1 Generation of Alternatives

Dealing with a situation can be in varied forms, the different sets of actions, strategies or portfolio of varied individual elements which are used to tackle a certain specific problem or situation is called the generation of alternatives. Developing good

alternatives is iterative and it must be evaluated technically at all times. The top characteristics of good alternatives are that is technically sound, it is very clear, is value-focused, is comprehensive, displays high quality, is mutually exclusive and has the inherent ability to expose trade-offs.

The generation of alternatives allow the decision-makers to be aware of the different solutions for dealing with a particular problem. Of course, these alternatives can be chosen by the team based on the level of risk they induce.

Check Your Progress

1. Why is the need for planning extremely important at higher levels?
2. How are the broader aims of the company broken down into hierarchical segments?
3. What are biological constraints?

8.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The need for planning exists at all levels of the organizational hierarchy but is extremely important at higher levels where the potential for impact on organizational success is greater.

2. The broader aims of the company are broken down into hierarchical segments of divisional objectives, departmental objectives, work group objectives and employee objectives.

3. Biological are the constraints which restrict the ability of the species to learn newer tasks that are beyond the comprehension of the species due to the limitations of mental or cognitive and or physical abilities.

8.5 SUMMARY

- The planning process for all organizations is built on the framework of the statement of a formal mission, specific objectives (established on the basis of the mission statement) and the plans that can be developed to achieve these goals or objectives.

- The need for planning exists at all levels of the organizational hierarchy but is extremely important at higher levels where the potential for impact on organizational success is greater. Once the upper level strategies are well-defined and understood, then the lower level managers can plan accordingly, in order to accomplish the objectives of their units. The specification of goals can be understood through the characteristics of sound objectives and their hierarchy.

- Sound objectives or goals should have five basic characteristics which are as follows:
    1. In a written format
    2. Time-bound
    3. Measurable
    4. Attainable
    5. Mutually supportive

- A sound and structured theoretical model of both the learner and process of learning is crucial for the designing of appropriate environments which can be used for performance and learning of movement skills in sports and physical education.

- There are many approaches which can be used for developing the motor learning models, and one of the emerging approaches is the constraints-led perspective for acquisition of movement skills and game play knowledge.

- The constraints model utilizes the task, performer and environmental constraints to direct the acquisition of movement skills and decision-making behaviours in learners. In this approach, the different sets of constraints initiate certain specific movements from the learners. This is important during the physical education classes.

- It has been seen from various research-based evidence that it is pertinent that the educators of physical education have an in-depth knowledge about how sports actions in real situations take place so as to manipulate the task constraints as per needs in the practice sessions. This necessitates appropriate information–movement couplings.

- A very important role played by a constraint-specific approach of learning is that it allows the physical educators to gain cognizance about the influence of physical education on each individual as per the different performer, task and environmental constraints.

- In the constraints-based theory of learning, the identification of the biggest and crucial limiting factor (i.e. constraint) which obstructs the achievement of a goal is undertaken in order to systematically reducing the effect of the constraint till the point it has no obstructive bearing on the learning.

- Dealing with a situation can be in varied forms, the different sets of actions, strategies or portfolio of varied individual elements which are used to tackle a certain specific problem or situation is called the generation of alternatives.

- The top characteristics of good alternatives are that is technically sound, it is very clear, is value-focused, is comprehensive, displays high quality, is mutually exclusive and has the inherent ability to expose trade-offs.

8.6 KEY WORDS

- **Motor Learning Study:** It focuses on the behavioural, biomechanical, and neural bases of development, acquisition, and performance of functional movement skills.

- **Constraints-Led Perspective:** It refers to the approach for acquisition of movement skills and game play knowledge which utilizes the task, performer and environmental constraints to direct the acquisition of movement skills and decision-making behaviours in learners.

- **Generation of Alternatives:** It refers to the different sets of actions, strategies or portfolio of varied individual elements which are used to tackle a certain specific problem or situation is called the generation of alternatives

8.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Enumerate the characteristics of sound objectives.
2. Why should objectives be time-bound?
3. Write a short-note on the hierarchy of objectives.
4. What is generation of alternatives?

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the concept of constraints-based approach for sports learning.
2. Describe the different types of constraints in sports learning.

8.8 FURTHER READINGS

Watt, David. 2004. *Sports Management and Administration*. London: Routledge.

Hoye Russell, Aaron C.T. Smith, Matthew Nicholson and Bob Stewart. 2015. *Sports Management: Principles and Applications*. London: Routledge.

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BLOCK - III
SIGNIFICANCE OF PLANNING AND BASIS OF GOALS

UNIT 9 CRITERIA, ALTERNATIVES AND RATIONALITY IN DECISION MAKING

Structure

9.0 INTRODUCTION

Decision making can be referred to as the process of choice making among the alternative courses of action that could also include the act of inaction. Although the major decisions are taken by the management some of the crucial decisions taken in an organization could also fail (Ireland & Miller, 2004). Thus, there is an increasing need of effectiveness in decision making. The same is crucial for maximizing the effectiveness of the sports organization. Making good decisions alone could avoid the common decision-making traps.

Individuals in organizations could use the information which they gather to make a wide range of decisions. The same could affect the lives of others and could also change the course of the firm. It can be said that the decisions which are made by the executives and consulting firms could lead to a profit or loss for investors, and many employees might loose their jobs.

Thus, a good decision by the management is very crucial. There are many decisions in sports management which need an ethical component which is one of the most important considerations when it comes to management.

9.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the concept of establishment of performance criteria
- Describe the evaluation of alternatives
- Explain the selection of an alternative
- Discuss the concept of planning and decision making
- Examine the model of economic person and administrative person

9.2   COMPONENTS OF PLANNING AND DECISION MAKING

The decisions which one makes as an employee or manager have to be ethical. Some of the basic questions which one can ask before making the decision are to judge if the decision is fair, and will a person and firm feel better after taking the decision (Blanchard & Peale, 1988).

Sometimes the type of time spend on the decisions should vary as per the type of decision. One might not spend much time on decisions which are not important. These decisions could be straightforward decisions which could also be called programmed decisions.

These decisions can occur frequently so that we can develop an automated response to them. The automated response which is used to make decisions is called the decision rule.

Level of Decision	Examples of Decision	Who Typically Makes Decisions
Strategic Decisions	Should we merge with another company? Should we pursue a new product line? Should we downsize our organization?	Top Management Teams, CEOs, and Boards of Directors
Tactical Decisions	What should we do to help facilitate employees from the two companies working together? How should we market the new product line? Who should be let go when we downsize?	Managers
Operational Decisions	How often should I communicate with my new coworkers? What should I say to customers about our new product? How will I balance my new work demands?	Employees throughout the organization

***Fig. 9.1** Levels of Decisions*

There are many steps in a decision making process. You have already learnt about some of the steps in the preceding units. In this section, you will only concentrate on some of these topics, namely, evaluation of performance criteria, evaluation of alternatives and selection of an alternative.
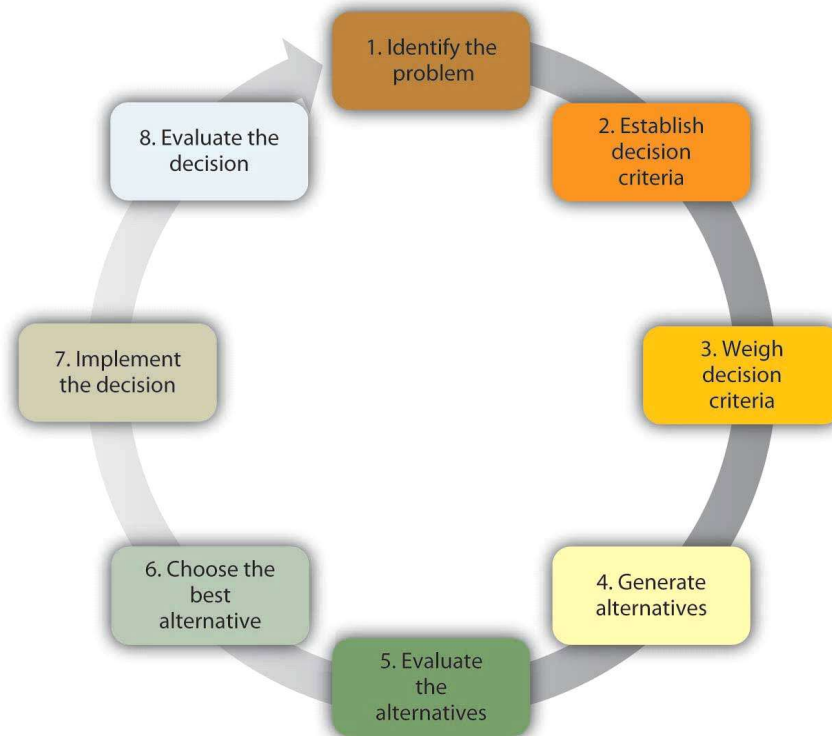
Fig. 9.2 *Steps in the Rational Decision-Making Model*

9.2.1 Establishment of Performance Criteria

When a manager of a sports organization has to take a decision about an issue, he should list the major performance criteria for the same. This is done as the decision taken by the manager will be very crucial for the individual and the team.

The performance criteria for a company could be many, for example, the health of the employee and the training given to him could be some of the performance criteria which could be set before taking a crucial decision.

The criterion provides the basis for making decisions which are in sync with the desired outcomes and the company's project goals. Also, the criteria has to support the core values and the agreements and commitments which have been previously developed.

On some of the smaller decisions, there could be less complex criteria of decision vis a vis the ones which have a more complex criteria. The criteria of performance will be decided on the development of vision and project-specific goals.

The criteria could also be established with a focus on the sports personnel and their performance needs. The same could then become crucial in deciding a criterion for the company.

The decisions related to the alternatives selected should also be in sync with the outcomes and actions and the core values of the firm.

For having a fair decision making process which states the crucial outcomes and goals of the decision, it is important to determine the criteria before developing the potential alternatives.

Also, one has to list the major concerns and issues of the sports person which could be used as an information for the formation of criteria. The same has to take into consideration all the stakeholders and parties which will be affected by this decision to take care of their interests.

These then become crucial in determining the decision outcomes. It is significant for the management to represent the needs of all stakeholders in the established criteria. This could include the priorities and requirements, past comments and concerns, etc.

The established criteria should be in sync with the stakeholders' interests, which includes ethics, community, local needs and priorities of the sportsperson and the nation. Thus, when establishing a criterion and giving weightage to the same, one needs to analyse the full range of interests and requirements which could be related to the into criteria.

This could support the evaluation process which are in sync with the requirements and interests in a transparent manner. A good criterion will be measurable and relevant to the sports decision and will help in easily differentiating between alternatives of decision making.

9.2.2 Evaluation of Alternatives

The manager will have to take into mind the stakeholders and identify alternatives that could be taken as relevant options for a set of outcomes. These outcomes have to be goal-specific.

The outcomes could be listed after the review of commitments which can be made for improvements. The major alternatives for the decision are listed and the same has to be done by brainstorming options that could lead to the final goals for the project.

The sports company will have to engage the public along with the stakeholder parties when one is listing the alternatives for the outcomes of the decision.

The same will also bring in an opportunity for the range of alternatives that has a structured approach. Ideas that will come up in the steps of decision making can also be evaluated in a pattern that all the interested parties could understand the same.

This then filters the new ideas which are brought forward in the later steps and brings in a transparent process. Strategies which have been developed in the past could be captured in strategies with the help of core value.

Here the supplement would be the brainstorming effort. Here the alternatives could also include the complete alternatives which can address the desired outcomes of the project. There could be smaller parts of a solution which could be combined to a package of options.

This could form an alternative of the goal. Here the brainstorming exercise could help in the major ideas being captured.

9.2.3 Selection of Alternatives

The next step would be the process of analysing alternatives and the evaluation criteria for the alternatives which facilitate decision making. The same could be a one-step or multi-step process.

The number of steps involved in this process will be dependent on the complexity of the alternatives. The evaluation process can entail in it the refining alternatives which are needed to develop the final alternative or option.

A crucial part of this step would be the evaluation of all ideas which could be done after studying the previously established criteria.

The effective use of the criteria for the evaluation and selection of alternatives could also be a criterion at appropriate levels when it comes to effective decision-making process. For example, for a sports organization, the criteria of the safety of the sportsperson is always supreme and the same could be listed as one of the key criteria selected of any major decision.

Sometimes the decision of the crucial criteria could be complex, and the process could be iterative, at differing levels of detail.

Here there could be a three-level process which could be used to choose a broad criterion where the company could rule out unrealistic alternatives and try and select the evaluation criteria for the future evaluation steps.

This filtering of the unrealistic criteria could lead to streamlining the evaluation by stressing on the data collection for the viable alternatives. The sports firm could also go for a multi-level evaluation which could offer an opportunity to refine options which could meet the desired goals.

The same could increase the affectivity and have a greater understanding of the alternative's strengths and weaknesses for each of the criteria selected.

9.2.4 Rationality in Planning

The rational decision-making model talks of a series of steps which the decision makers have to look for before they maximize the quality of the outcomes. To be sure that one is making the best choice, one will have to go through formal steps in the decision-making model which could make sense.

The rational decision-making model could help in major purchases which could avoid making poor choices.

Also, an importance is to be given to each factor in the planning process. In case each of the factors are equally important, then no weightage should be assigned to them. Sometimes in a sports management decision, the weightage of some factors may be crucial.

For example, in choosing the right equipment for a sports person, the safety and performance of the sports person may be of prime concern. One could weigh these factors heavily and keep the other criteria at less importance.

Rationality will also be important when on the basis of the crucial weighted factors, one comes across a number of decisions. Then rationality is needed to choose from among the alternatives.

The same could be a very crucial decision. For example, choosing which sportsman will be selected for a team becomes a very rational decision, the same has to be decided on the basis of performance of the sports person than emotional incline towards a person.

9.2.5 Planning and Decision Making

For a sports firm, the strategic plan could be a very fundamental starting point for its day to day operations. A strategic plan will be crucial in giving direction to the firm by defining the purpose of existence of the firms and by providing mid-term goals along with the listed success indicators. These clear indicators will help the organization to assess if the targeted goals have been reached.

In a strategic planning process, the firm will list and work on the following:

- What does the firm want to achieve in the long run – **Vision**
- What are the principles which guide the firm for its operations – **Values**
- What are the short term innovations which it is doing for its Vision– **Mission**
- The changes a firm looks forward to for the key identified problems – **Overall goal**
- The goal that the organization wants to achieve from short to mid-term – **Immediate objective**
- What are the key outcomes the firm finally wants to reach – **Key results areas**

The above aspects are crucial to list the major strategic framework of the firm and to start engaging in the process of active planning. The same could be identifying concrete activities which could bring in an achievement of the overall goal for the firm's operations.

Decision making on the other hand refers to the organizational processes which could help the sports firm to be able to take a correct and qualified choice among the major options available with respect to operational and organizational decisions.

The same has to entail the following parts:

- local or international partnerships
- strategic planning
- funding decisions
- internal structures
- management procedures
- communication strategies and policies

A decision could be effective, and the process of decision making could be contributing to the firm's vision. The same has to be transparent, accessible and applicable.

Legally registered organizations have to bind the legal details and all the decision making for the firm have to be taken in context of legal bindings. This association between the different bodies has to be present for finally taking a decision.

The organizations might not have a set of established guidelines which could address operational decision making processes which could go beyond the legally required procedures of the firm.

The Plan Document

A plan document is nothing but a strategic plan in a written format for the perusal of the appropriate persons. As mentioned elsewhere, the written format allows different members to stay on the same page and be clear about the set priorities. It must contain a clear description of all the mission, vision and aspirations statements. There must also be details about the core values of the organization which guides all the actions. The plan document must also contain the strategies analysis alongwith the objectives, operational tactics, plan of action, etc. The measurement methods of these actions along with the cost related factors like budget as well as funding stream must also be specified. Lastly, the evaluation techniques must also be mentioned in the plan document.

Check Your Progress

1. What affects the decision on performance criteria?
2. Name the factor which affects the number of steps in the evaluation of alternatives.

9.3 MODEL OF THE ECONOMIC MAN VS MODEL OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERSON

There are two types of models described in this segment. One is the model of the economic man and one is the administrative man.

The economic man is the idealized human being who will act rationally will have a complete knowledge. This type of a man will try and maximize personal utility. Economic man has been an assumption of many economic models.

Some scientists have been working on models which explain the economic model. For the same, the scientists will have to make assumptions which could simplify the reality. The same is a concept of economics, where there could be simplifying assumptions which relate to economic man. This is different from a real human as the economic man will always behave in a rational way and be totally self-interested. Only then it will maximize his satisfaction.

This assumption helps economists to study how the markets could work populated by these theoretical persons. It is assumed that demand for a product would be linear function of price. The same is true with certain goods but is not reflective of the actual consumer environment.

Economists have been aware of the limitations of the use of the economic man, although some could be more willing to abandon the concept as compared to others. A crucial reason for the same would be the that human beings don't behave rationally always. One could be rational in some cases but the same might not be the case always. There is a narrow economic self-interest. The economic man concept also makes an assumption that the options faced by economic man bring in many differences in satisfaction.

It will not be clear as one option could be superior to another. One could enhance the person's utility or satisfaction in two ways, clear that one is better than the other.

Two contrasting views of models have been related to decision-making model using varying degree of rationality. These models are economic man model and administrative man model.

Economic Man Model

The economic man model has been used since ages as a classical approach of decision-making. The same works on the theory of decision-making when there are conditions of certainty. The economic man has been explained as a very rational man. When one talks of the economic man model, the decision-making could have in it the following characteristics:

> a) Decision-making would be completely rational where the aim would be the 'means-ends' sense. Thus, the decision maker will be a rational

man who will identify the ends to which he plans to reach and will list systematically the means which are available for reaching the end.

b) Economic man could be said to be a rational and can order his preferences as per the hierarchy of values. He can then make a choice so that he can maximize the desired value. This desired value will be equivalent to organizational goal attainment.

The task goal of profit would be crucial for the economic man when he is going through a process of decision-making in the organizational context.

c) The economic man is totally aware of various alternatives and what the outcome are in each of the alternative which could be identified. This would help him to select the best outcome. The economic man will collect a huge collection of information and then process it to make a final selection.

The model of economic man is not very practical in business because of two reasons namely:

a) The complete rationality is just a myth and is not possible. This is because a completely certain condition is a myth and not a really.

b) In case the rationality is possible, the same might not always be used to maximize the profit as there could be some pressures from the environmental forces which might not allow the maximization of profit.
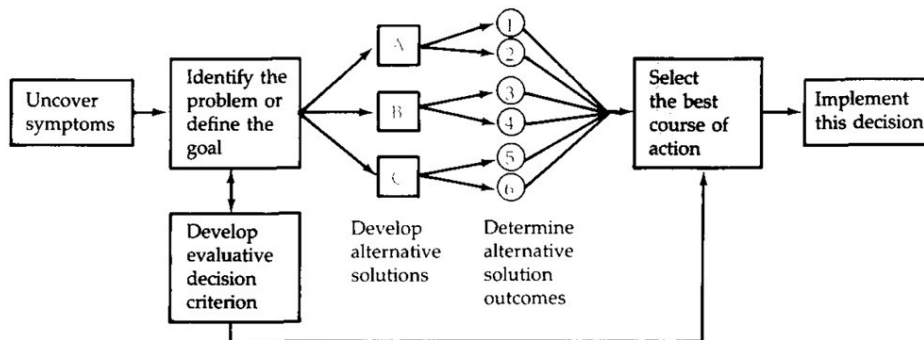
Fig. 9.3 *Economic Man Model*

Administrative Man Model

The administrative man model was proposed by Herbert A. Simon and Richard Cyert and James March. This model speaks of the decision-making behaviour of individuals along with some organizations.

As per Simon, people will have a limited view of the problems as they might not have full information about the real problem. Also, people might not have the knowledge of the possible alternative solutions which could be available for the problems or their outcomes.

People may also not have the abilities to analyse the competitive environment along with the technical information related to it. Also, some people might not have sufficient time and resources to do a search for alternative solutions which relate to the problems.

Thus, it is due to the human limitations make that a man may not be able to make a perfectly rational decision as was the case in the model of the economic man. This model explains that there are 'boundaries to rationality' in sports organizations.
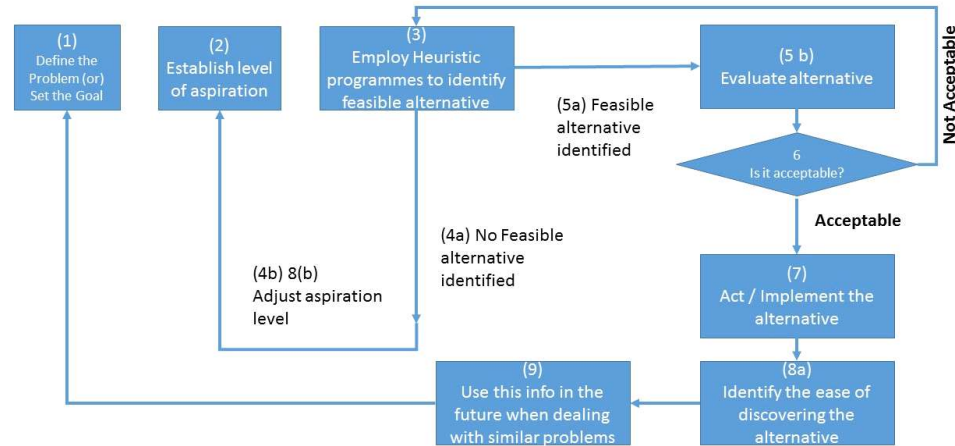
Fig. 9.4 *Administrative Man Model*

Check Your Progress

3. How is the economic man different from a real human being?

4. Who proposed the administrative man model?

9.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The criteria of performance will be decided on the development of vision and project-specific goals.

2. The number of steps involved in the process of evaluation of alternatives will be dependent on the complexity of the alternatives.

3. Economic man is different from a real human as the economic man will always behave in a rational way and be totally self-interested.

4. The administrative man model was proposed by Herbert A. Simon and Richard Cyert and James March.

9.5 SUMMARY

- Decision making can be referred to as the process of choice making among the alternative courses of action that could also include the act of inaction. Although the major decisions are taken by the management some of the crucial decisions taken in an organization could also fail (Ireland & Miller, 2004).

- There is an increasing need of effectiveness in decision making. The same is crucial for maximizing the effectiveness of the sports organization. Making good decisions alone could avoid the common decision-making traps.

- Individuals in organizations could use the information which they gather to make a wide range of decisions. The same could affect the lives of others and could also change the course of the firm.

- The decisions which one makes as an employee or manager have to be ethical. Some of the basic questions which one can ask before making the decision are to judge if the decision is fair, and will a person and firm feel better after taking the decision (Blanchard & Peale, 1988).

- When a manager of a sports organization has to take a decision about an issue, he should list the major performance criteria for the same. This is done as the decision taken by the manager will be very crucial for the individual and the team.

- The performance criterion provides the basis for making decisions which are in sync with the desired outcomes and the company's project goals. Also, the criteria has to support the core values and the agreements and commitments which have been previously developed.

- The manager will have to take into mind the stakeholders and identify alternatives that could be taken as relevant options for a set of outcomes. These outcomes have to be goal-specific.

- The outcomes could be listed after the review of commitments which can be made for improvements. The major alternatives for the decision are listed and the same has to be done by brainstorming options that could lead to the final goals for the project.

- The sports company will have to engage the public along with the stakeholder parties when one is listing the alternatives for the outcomes of the decision.

- The process of analysing alternatives and the evaluation criteria for the alternatives which facilitate decision making could be a one-step or multi-step process.

- The number of steps involved in this process will be dependent on the complexity of the alternatives. The evaluation process can entail in it the refining alternatives which are needed to develop the final alternative or option.

- A crucial part of this step would be the evaluation of all ideas which could be done after studying the previously established criteria.

- The effective use of the criteria for the evaluation and selection of alternatives could also be a criterion at appropriate levels when it comes to effective decision-making process. For example, for a sports organization, the criteria of the safety of the sportsperson is always supreme and the same could be listed as one of the key criteria selected of any major decision.

- The rational decision-making model talks of a series of steps which the decision makers have to look for before they maximize the quality of the outcomes. To be sure that one is making the best choice, one will have to go through formal steps in the decision-making model which could make sense.

- The rational decision-making model could help in major purchases which could avoid making poor choices.

- For a sports firm, the strategic plan could be a very fundamental starting point for its day to day operations. A strategic plan will be crucial in giving direction to the firm by defining the purpose of existence of the firms and by providing mid-term goals along with the listed success indicators. These clear indicators will help the organization to assess if the targeted goals have been reached.

- A decision could be effective, and the process of decision making could be contributing to the firm's vision. The same has to be transparent, accessible and applicable.

- A plan document is nothing but a strategic plan in a written format for the perusal of the appropriate persons. As mentioned elsewhere, the written format allows different members to stay on the same page and be clear about the set priorities.

- The economic man is the idealized human being who will act rationally will have a complete knowledge. This type of a man will try and maximize personal utility. Economic man has been an assumption of many economic models.

- The economic man model has been used since ages as a classical approach of decision-making. The same works on the theory of decision-making when there are conditions of certainty. The economic man has been explained as a very rational man.

- The administrative man model was proposed by Herbert A. Simon and Richard Cyert and James March. This model speaks of the decision-making behaviour of individuals along with some organizations.

9.6 KEY WORDS

- **Decision Rule:** It refers to the automated response which is used to make decisions
- **Brainstorming:** It refers to the group discussion process to produce ideas or solve problems
- **Strategic Plan:** It defines the purpose of existence of the firms and by providing mid-term goals along with the listed success indicators. These clear indicators will help the organization to assess if the targeted goals have been reached.
- **Economic Man:** It refers to an idealized human being who will act rationally will have a complete knowledge

9.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What is the concept of rationality in planning?
2. What is listed and worked upon in strategic planning?
3. Define a plan document.
4. What are the limitations of the economic man assumptions?

Long Answer Questions

1. Write short notes on: (i) establishment of performance criteria, (ii) evaluation of alternatives and (iii) selection of an alternative.
2. Describe the model of economic person and administrative person.

9.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 10   IMPLICIT FAVOURITE MODEL AND MEANS-END ANALYSIS

Structure

10.0 Introduction
10.1 Objectives
10.2 The Implicit Favourite Model or Gamesman Model
10.3 Goals as a Chain of Means and Ends
10.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
10.5 Summary
10.6 Key Words
10.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
10.8 Further Readings

10.0   INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the establishment of performance criteria, evaluation of alternatives, planning and decision making and the model of administrative and economic person. In this unit, the discussion will turn towards the implicit favourite model and goals as a chain of means and ends.

10.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

* Discuss the implicit favourite model
* Explain the application of the means-ends theory

10.2   THE IMPLICIT FAVOURITE MODEL OR GAMESMAN MODEL

The implicit favourite model describes non-programmed decisions. These decisions are novel or unique decisions made by a manager of an organization. Let us now understand the whole process of the implicit favourite model.

Non-programmed decisions could also be made in an intuitive fashion. Thus, by doing the same the person could become convinced that he/she has been acting in a rational manner which supports the logical and reasoning decision for an important topic of concern to a sports organization.

People could arrive at a decision in an intuitive manner even before they have applied logic to the same decision. The implicit favourite model was formulated by Soelberg (1967) and it emerged as one of the best models which observed the job selection process when it came to the case of business students.

It was noted in the model that the students identified their favourites during recruitment and choice process. In addition, they kept on searching for additional alternatives and finally selected the alternative which was best according to then and then sent a confirmation to the confirmed candidate.

Here then the students started developing decision rules which then demonstrated unequivocally that the implicit favourite has been superior to the alternative confirmation candidate. This was done with the help of perceptual distortion of information which pertained to two alternatives and also was related to the weighing systems which was designed to highlight the positive features in the implicit favourite. Thus, after making a decision rule there was a clearly favoured implicit favourite which was decided and the final decision was announced.

10.3 GOALS AS A CHAIN OF MEANS AND ENDS

The Means–End Chain (MEC) could be defined as a hierarchy of goals which is represented by the potential identities which relate to the actions which are necessary for the person when he/she she has to reach his/her goal.

The goals as means-end analysis can be grouped into three categories namely, action goals (which talk of the act itself), outcome goals which have an immediate effect of the actions and consequences which denotes the indirect effects resultant of the outcomes.

The Action Unit (AU) can be said to be the planned sequence of acts which takes the person towards goal achievement. AUs will become a part of the means-end theory and will lead to the final decision.

Data can be presented which can suggest that laddering can take the respondents beyond the intended goals when it comes to their initial actions or choice. Goals which go beyond the AUs that are a part of the means-end theory could represent the main reasons as to why one is striving for the goals that we do.
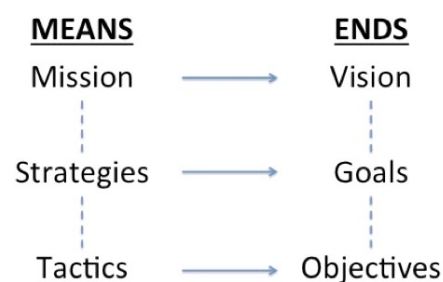

Fig 10.1 Means-Ends Chain

Means-ends analysis could be a useful method of solving a problem with the use of artificial intelligence (AI). It is also a technique used at least since the 1950s as a creativity tool, most frequently mentioned in engineering books on design methods.

The value of the means end theory application is based on the management's philosophy, the company's values and the company's vision and goals. This would also involve the organizational culture along with its social environment. Also another factor —culture has to be considered as per the type of leadership and communication of the organization, which is a part of the means end theory application in the firm.

Here the employees perceive the behaviour and their quality of work life that is crucial for the degree of motivation. In this manner, the employee's performance at the workplace and his satisfaction both at the personal and professional levels is evaluated. In other words, it is a mix of these elements which forms a model or framework by which the firm follows the means-end goals application.

For the means-end goals chain the people arrive at certain judgments in planning development projects which convey that the organizational behaviour could bring in bias in estimating the needed effort.

Here one of the issue is that the planners which are supreme in organizational behaviour are reluctant to take on the uncertainty of the means-end theory application. Thus, numerous times they take on such employee strategies which then become detrimental for estimating the task. This also stresses the fact that there is no distinct expertise of the employee effort estimation, which brings in the dilemma of the questionable beliefs based on how they could make a judgment of goals with their type of experience with the usually seen misdiagnosed unusual events.

This organizational problem might just get exacerbated at different levels of the organization. Many organizations fail to maintain a clear distinction among their key goals and predictions, thus, they do not believe in recording the right estimation of judgments, which then becomes a major cause of surprise.

The implementation of organizational behaviour brings in the basic psychological and organizational effects, for which the best possible solution is the better training of staff. Another major issue is when to give and how much to give. The motivation be it monetary or non-monetary can affect the employee. Thus, clear balance is important to be achieved.

Means-end theory application involves how the organizations act as vital structures which can work more effectively; with many events which bring in such outside situations that sometimes do affect organizations.

Here it is crucial for the manager to take on the learning of the organizational behaviour for the dynamic business environment of the present times. This could

help managers in creating a good and better workplace and understanding people which would entail both to them and their subordinates.

It is this knowledge of means end theory application which can brings successful career for the managers. Here what the manager needs is to do his job with the help of others, so as to utilize the best possible organizational behaviour skills which then becomes a valuable talent.

In today's dynamic business environment, the crucial role of the managers has become more sensitive. Thus, the manner has to know from the means-end theory application study as to how one can work with the new workforce, and then sort out the complication of the new environment. This is because it is crucial for the supervisors to change the attitude and behaviour of employees working along with them in the organization.

The HR department takes on the responsibility for imparting training to the newly recruited managers and other employees so that they get acquainted with the vision and objectives of the organization and accordingly, understand their role in the overall growth of the organization. The study also finds that wage incentive system should be properly adjusted for increased efforts to means-end theory application.

Participative management should be introduced from the bottom and collective bargaining should be accepted for effective workers participation in management. Thus, it concludes that the scheme for workers participation in management in India should grow as labour acquires maturity and strength of the union grows till eco reaches full level of employment till workers participation carries weight.

Researchers reveal that activities such as employee-friendly work environment, career development, development oriented appraisal, human relations and comprehensive training show a significant positive relationship with Means end theory application.

As we know, human resource is the asset for any organization and when the organization has better human resources, a company can grow faster and get better output from employees. Nowadays we can see that the important of reward and compensation has increased too much in an organization. Reward not only motivates the staff of the organization but it also gets the benefits of long term employee retention in the means end goals fulfilment.

Lorsch and Morse (1974) explored this perspective focusing on the interrelationship between organization internal subunit. Pennings and Goodman (1977) has similarly stressed upon internal forces and their effects on organizational effectiveness and influence of sub unit operations. The entire organizational effectiveness literature was reviewed by Campbell, which suggested the way of developing organizational effectiveness criteria, and developing suitable organization characteristics that can be associated with this basic model. He proposed 14 criteria's.

Miles (1980) commented on the organizational effectiveness jungle. He identified five major schools of organizational effectiveness thought: scientific management, human relations, socio technical, organizational development, and classical eco theory of the firm. Miles sorted these schools into two- goal attainment and systems models.

He discussed certain problems associated with these models like difficulty with goal identification, perspectives, and priorities, as well as their failures to differentiate between goals and strategies. Pure system model were seen to focus attention on organization's ability to survive at the expense of identifying appropriate ends and measuring progress towards them. He proposed a convergence of these goals which he called ecology models where he defined organizational effectiveness as an 'ability of the organization to minimally satisfy the expectation of its strategic constituencies'.

Van de Vann and Ferry (1980) advanced another view, which raised the question that organizational effectiveness is being measured from whose perspective. This model establishes an incremental process of achieving and maintaining successive higher levels of effectiveness. Analyses are conducted at various levels throughout the organization, and are focused via five sets of organizational effectiveness.

Scott (1977) suggested integrating the various criteria into a system containing three basic models: a rational system model with a mechanistic, instrumental focus: a natural system model with an organic system maintaining focus; and open system model with a system maintaining focus.

Seashore (1979) also proposed a three-model which is similar to Scott but with one major difference. In his model, one basic decision process is added with a focus on acquisition and management of information. Cameron (1979) proposed a four-model framework, consisting of goal, system resource, internal process and participant satisfaction models. The uniqueness of Cameron's model lies in his addition of a participant satisfaction model, as an elaboration of system maintenance component of Scott and Seashore's model. The participant satisfaction model view organization as system designed to satisfy each constituency represented by that organization's particular dominant coalition.

Building on the organizational effectiveness models by Scott (19770 and Seashore (1979), and Cameron, Quinn and Rohrsbareaugh mapped the various effectiveness constructs on as "spatial model" of organizational effectiveness. The implicit assumption of this model is that it represents a shared construct, or asset of cognitions shared among their panelists.

Here the main objective of means end theory application is to enable employees to work to a maximum level of efficiency and thus establish a business competitive advantage. This is today needed by many a companies to get back its position after the recession. This should be done at both the functional responsibilities

levels concerned with the personnel management, namely managerial functions and operative functions.

Means end theory application includes planning involving formulating policies for future development of the enterprise, program to choose adequate number of persons who can work efficiently and accomplish the business objectives, provide training to the workers in the enterprise, and so on. Integration and maintenance of work force are all parts of HRM strategies that corporate can follow to lead to an effective personnel management.

The delegation of authority and responsibility can make employees fulfil their idea after working with everyone up and down their hierarchal level. Also they will have to work with different operational people of different authority in the organization. This will solve the problem of the company being limited to one's own operational unit for learning which is presently being faced around the world. Such a delegation of authority and responsibility will generate more effective result for the stakeholders. This is presently not done in many companies (Marshak, R.J. (1993).

The crucial parameters to means end theory application are span of control, ergonomics and work schedule which is something that companies have not practiced as yet. These companies have to work for the moral responsibility of the stakeholder. Work scheduling and controls makes people more focused, more concerned with results —and more creative, because they draw from different experiences.

The work schedule and control activities can be effective in helping companies to accept the idea that culture can be moulded. Many a skills and talents are needed to take in a thriving enterprise. The organization has to know whether they can hire the right people to take control as the next level with effective business profit level .This is true for good organizations which have the following parameters (Levy, A. (1986):

- Organizations have high energy while
- Organizations practice fair listening skills.
- Organizations are good teachers.
- Organization takes risks and are good at dealing with a crisis.
- Organization has very high control needs and delegate
- Organization develops a wide range of networking skills.

In conclusion, one can sum up that management should be open to giving new suggestions rather than limiting this authority to the top management. A participative leadership will help employees see what they have to achieve. Mentors in turn should recognize and support the Means end theory application. They should teach them to continually see where the greater balance in the job environment can be met.

When a firm is growing, its structure can be influenced by it employee members from whom he will learn what is wrong or right. The world also contains religion, culture and social norms, which are critical in formation of the right management structure. Also a participative culture would bring in a lesser level of hierarchy.

These parameters influence the means end theory application, however other factors like friends, or idols may influence their choices of talking to a group of varied culture. Thus they become critical for the management structure of the company to function effectively.

When the flexible concept of organization structure emerged in the 1980s, in the times of Thatcherism and Reaganomics, it 'could not help but look more desirable than personnel management' (Hope-Hailey). The attractiveness of the theory of managing personnel led to a proliferation of organizational structure language. Nonetheless, it remains to be seen if there is more to organizational structure than only a new and shining rhetoric.
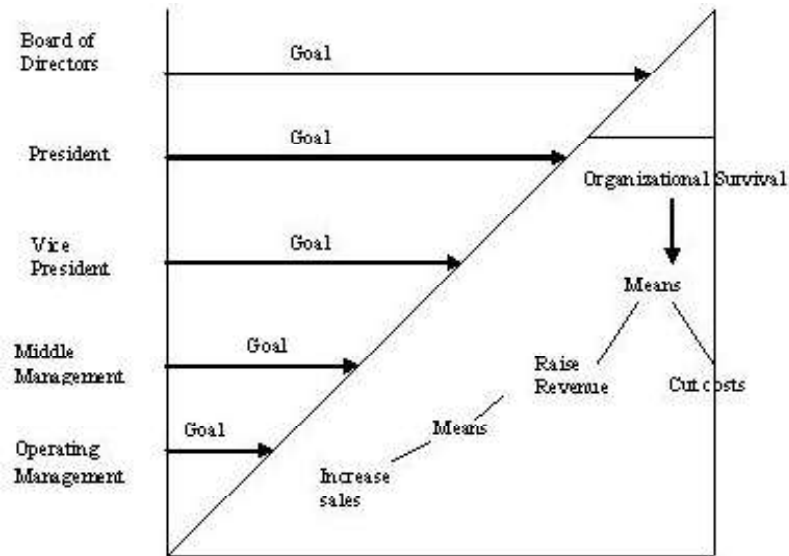
Fig 10.2: *Organizational Structure*

A number of authors stress the difficulties of identifying clear differences between personnel management and organizational structure, and maintain that the most obvious change is a 're-labelling process'. Torrington agrees that 'a change of label' is obvious, though one cannot be sure that the content differentiates to any extent. However, the new terminology may at least rid personnel management from its unfavourable welfare image and other negative connotations and thus, save the ailing function of managing personnel from marginalization. Accordingly, some Means end theory application academics maintain that new labels on old bottles may have their uses, even if it is only for marketing purposes.

Furthermore, a valuable contribution of means end theory application is to regard people as the key resource of organizations and lending the management

of personnel increased importance. Even textbooks on small business management pay considerably more attention to finance, marketing, and planning than personnel management. Also, researchers report that managers of small firms lack training in formal personnel management practices and they do not consider the use of generally accepted means end theory application practices as essential for improving productivity.

Every organization faces limited resources. Functional structuring allows an organization to redirect its resources, particularly people, from lateral activities to those with superior 'added value'. People whose energy is focused internally can shift to a more external focus on the client.

Means end goals is needed to be successful, and should be based on a relationship of deep trust, between own staff. This closeness, demands technological updating, ensures the ongoing satisfactory development of all HR infrastructure.

Means end goals allows the company to focus on its core business, in delegating operational tasks to a lower party. Means end goals implies there is an exclusive contact point for operational questions regarding the starting point, whereby numerous supervisors are involved who are dedicated to managing the relationship with suppliers and internal staff, planning, etc. These supervisors can now concentrate on increasing the business.

Means end goals helps in the situation analysis, self-evaluation and competitor analysis: both internal and external; both micro-environmental and macro-environmental. Concurrent with this assessment, objectives are set. These objectives should be parallel to a time-line; some are in the short-term and others on the long-term.

Means end goals helps in situation analysis, and helps in the strategic plan. The means end goals plan provides the details of how to achieve these objectives to ensure that business planning recognizes that the ultimate source of value is 'people'. This also helps to make sure that all those involved in strategic planning understand the HR implication of their proposals if they fail to take action. This also helps the company to match the objectives of the HR function to the corporate business objectives and to help bring about corporate culture and processes that enable people to do their jobs better. This also brings in a structure supporting to align the organization's competencies needs with the people who can satisfy those needs and to ensure organizational resources contribute to the development of people's competencies.

The means end goals helps in determining performance requirements of the division to achieve the organization's objectives and how employees can satisfy those requirements and to determine levels of employee commitment and ways for improving them.

Thus, both the method of structuring have their own advantages measuring the effectiveness of the organizational HR strategy and to figure out the strengths,

weaknesses, opportunities and threats (both internal and external) of the entity in question.

Implementation is the important step between the decision to change and the regular use of it at the organization. In this stage, two more resistance groups can be seen. The first of them is related to political and cultural deadlocks to change. It consists of: (a) implementation climate and relation among change values and organizational values, considering a strong implementation climate if the values' relation is negative will bring in resistance and opposition to change; (b) departmental politics or resistance of those departments that will have problems with the change implementation , (c) incommensurable beliefs, or strong and definitive disagreement among groups about the nature of the problem and its resultant alternative solutions; (d) deep rooted values and emotional loyalty; and (e) forgetfulness of the social dimension in changes.

Many a times change is deliberate, which means that a change comes from a conscious reasoning along with conscious actions. By far in this type of change one could call it a planned change. Many a times a change unfolds in the apparently spontaneous or unplanned way. Here one could call this change as an emergent change. Any type of change could be emergent and not planned in the following ways.

Here the major drivers in the change was the need of change so that the company could excel. Performances one of the major drivers in this change which is evident. The senior staff had failed to brings in additional business .They were very dependent on one customer, nobody was going out for selling, and they were re-cycling business which was the only growing area. Here the restrainers would be the staff changes which have been made. Here the staff might not take up to the new structure change of the company as it has been working with a old way of functions.

When we look at the various types of change one could see a number of ways in which change can be categorized most are related to the extent of the change and whether it is seen as organic (often characterised as bottom-up) or driven (top-down).

Ackerman (1997) has distinguished between three types of change which could be developmental, transformational and transitional. Thus the same could be explained as follows: Many a times change is deliberate, which means that a change comes from a conscious reasoning along with conscious actions. By far in this type of change one could call it a planned change. Many a times a change unfolds in apparently spontaneous or unplanned way. Here one could call this change as an emergent change. Any type of change could be emergent and not planned in the following ways:

Developmental change could be a planned one or a emergent one. This by far is the first order, and can also be called incremental. Here this type of change enhances and rectifies the existing aspects of the firm, which look at improvement of a skill or a business process.

Problems of Organizational Goals

We have already touched upon this topic in Unit 7 of the book.

Check Your Progress

1. What does the implicit favourite model describe?
2. What is the value of the means end theory application based on?

10.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The implicit favourite model describes non-programmed decisions. These decisions are novel or unique decisions made by a manager of an organization.

2. The value of the means end theory application is based on the management's philosophy, the company's values and the company's vision and goals.

10.5 SUMMARY

- The implicit favourite model describes non-programmed decisions. These decisions are novel or unique decisions made by a manager of an organization.

- The implicit favourite model was formulated by Soelberg (1967) and it emerged as one of the best models which observed the job selection process when it came to the case of business students.

- The Means–End Chain (MEC) could be defined as a hierarchy of goals which is represented by the potential identities which relate to the actions which are necessary for the person when he/she she has to reach his/her goal.

- The goals as means-end analysis can be grouped into three categories namely, action goals (which talk of the act itself), outcome goals which have an immediate effect of the actions and consequences which denotes the indirect effects resultant of the outcomes.

- The value of the means end theory application is based on the management's philosophy, the company's values and the company's vision and goals. This would also involve the organizational culture along with its social environment.

- Means end theory application includes planning involving formulating policies for future development of the enterprise, program to choose adequate number of persons who can work efficiently and accomplish the business objectives, provide training to the workers in the enterprise, and so on.

- The means end goals helps in determining performance requirements of the division to achieve the organization's objectives and how employees can satisfy those requirements and to determine levels of employee commitment and ways for improving them.

10.6 KEY WORDS

- **Organizational Structure:** It defines how activities such as task allocation, coordination and supervision are directed toward the achievement of organizational aims.

- **Personnel Management:** It is defined as an administrative specialization that focuses on hiring and developing employees to become more valuable to the company.

10.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short-note on the implicit favourite model.
2. How does means end goals help in situational analysis?

Long Answer Questions

1. Discuss the means end theory in detail.
2. Describe the application of means end goal theory in organizations.

10.8 FURTHER READINGS

Watt, David. 2004. *Sports Management and Administration*. London: Routledge.

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UNIT 11 OFFICIAL AND OPERATIVE GOALS

Structure

11.0 Introduction
11.1 Objectives
11.2 Setting Up of a System of Goals Programming
11.3 Official and Operative Goals
11.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
11.5 Summary
11.6 Key Words
11.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
11.8 Further Readings

11.0 INTRODUCTION

Organizational goals are formed in an effort to accomplish a preferred condition of revenue and achievement. Common organizational goals are originated in the mission/vision proclamation of the company, but particulars of such goals are defined in the business plan.

For effective goal setting, there has to be an understanding of the entire process of setting the goals. To structure the goal setting programme, the main point is that it has to be consistent with the principles of both sports as well as organizational psychology.

The goals so developed should also be in line with the knowledge attained by the professional practice of sports.

Effectiveness of the goals depends on the relation between the situations and the individuals. There has to be an understanding of this relation before setting the goals. The individual situations are the type of sports, the type of support system and personal characteristics such as the personality, experience as well as the background.

In this unit, you will learn about two important types of organizational goals: official and operative goals.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the recommendations for setting up of goals programming
- Explain official goals
- Discuss operative goals

11.2 SETTING UP OF A SYSTEM OF GOALS PROGRAMMING

There are some recommendations for setting up of a system of goals programming. These recommendations are as follows:

1. Identification of goals

2. Setting of moderately difficult and challenging goals

3. Setting of specific goals

Let us discuss these recommendations in detail.

1. Identification of goals

Goal identification is the key to setting goals. The starting point of the entire process is to specify very precisely what is to be achieved. Several questions pertaining to the skill set and attitude can be considered, such as follows:

- As an official, what are the greatest strengths and weaknesses?

- As an official, whether one is well versed with rules and regulations?

- What is the official's physical condition?

- Does the official prepare mentally before each game?

- What aspects of officiating are most interesting to the person?

- How does the official communicate with other officials, players and coaches?

- Does the official keep calm in situations of pressure?

Answering such questions are not easy to find but thinking about these questions clarifies officiating as well as target specific goals.

2. Setting of moderately difficult and challenging goals

It is always better to set moderately difficult goals than setting moderate or very difficult goals. Effective goals should only be that difficult that they seem to be challenging enough but realistic to achieve. Very difficult to achieve goals can be frustrating and may lower the self-confidence which in turn may adversely affect the performance of the any one not just the sports person.

Again, setting too easy goals do not serve the purpose because such goals do not pose any challenge and most of the times are achievable with a little effort only. This leads to a lower level performance and being satisfied with only lower levels of satisfaction.

3. Setting of specific goals

While going through the process of goal setting one must consider setting specific goals. General goals are unable to produce high performance levels, but specific goals definitely lead to higher levels of the task performance. The performance

specific goals should not be vague and at the same time should be measurable. Setting of vague goals should be avoided at all costs. Few examples of vague goals and how that can be changed to the specific goals are stated below:

- **Vague goal:** I want to understand all the rules of the game.

  Specific goal: every day I will read and understand one rule.

- **Vague goal:** I wish to improve the level of my fitness.

  Specific goal: I will run for 3 kilometers per day.

- **Vague goal:** I want to improve my patience level.

  Specific goal: Before I respond to anybody shouting at me I will count 1 to 10.

Setting of goals is one of the most important skills set which any athlete has to learn in order to achieve optimal performance. Goal setting lets them to know their present status and decide where they want to be in future.

Systematic goal setting is focused on establishing process and performance goals. It does focus on the outcome of the competition. The process of establishing systematic goals can be learnt from a mental skill trainer or a sports psychologist.

There are some other broad categories of goals like:

1. Subjective goals
2. Objective goals

Subjective goals do not relate to specific performance in sport but are related with trying to be the best.

Objective goals are based on performance.

Specific objective goals focus on improving technical and tactical skills.

Effective difference can be identified among outcome, performance and process goals.

Outcome goals: These focus on specific result or outcome of a competition; it's about winning or losing a competition.

Performance goals: These are related to improvement of the performance of the person. Various statistics may be used to analyse the performance.

Along with outcome goals and performance goals a very important goal mentioned above is the process goal. Process goals are also small goals or rather focus areas which demand attention while performance goals are being strived for. These are basically milestones in the path of performance goals.

Any sports person should focus on setting the process and performance goals instead of outcome goals. The process and performance goals are controllable goals.

Whatsoever goals are laid down they should be specific, attainable and measurable and must have a specific time frame.

11.3 OFFICIAL AND OPERATIVE GOALS

You have already learnt about some of the basic types of classification of goals. In this section, you will study two specific types of organizational goals: official and operative.

(I) Official Goals

Official goals are typically found in a company's mission or vision proclamation and corresponds the wide-ranging function of the organization. Such kinds of goals are normally qualitative, which means they are biased and difficult to quantify.

Genesis of official goals

Official goals are delegates of the common duty of the organization as set up in the constitution, annual reports and public statements. They can moreover be originated in press releases from chief. Official goals, or task declarations as they are regularly called, are a lot biased and generally not quantifiable. They converse the values of the organization and provide it authenticity with stakeholders. They explain the causes for the organization's organism and serve as the cause for employees and members to recognize with the organization.

(II) Operative Goals

Operative goals are the real, solid steps an organization aims to acquire to realize its function. An organization's operative goals regularly do not equivalent its official goals; for instance, whilst a non-profit volunteer organization's key official goal may be neighborhood service, restricted funding might mean that its operative goal of fund raising will take preference.

Operative goals explain the steps the organization will take to accomplish its purpose. These goals are not specifically the same as official goals. Official goals are what the organization would prefer to attain, whereas operative goals are what the organization wants to accomplish to become successful. Operative goals also apt to be considered quantitatively, which means they are based on metrics.

These are time and again short-term goals that organizations try to discover to realize in the course of its operating policies and accomplishments and are measured quantitatively. Their accomplishment is based on metrics. Organizations are capable to delineate precise steps they require to take to attain operative goals.

Organizations furthermore set operational goals to decide what business processes can facilitate to take in operative goals. They consist of explicit, day-to-day operational tasks desired to run an organization and that help drive scalability and organizational development.

Operational goals define the organizational practices essential to accomplish operative goals. These kinds of goals help establish the path of the next three kinds of goals. Every goal constructs on the preceding goal, with the focal point becoming more and more defined as more specific goals begins to create.

Genesis of operative goals

Whereas official goals demonstrate what a sport organization articulates it needs to attain, operative goals delegate the ends required in the course of the operating policies of the organization. They notify what the organization essentially is attempting to do, irrespective of what the official goals state are the objectives. An indication of the operative goals of an organization, which are generally not clearly affirmed, may time and again be acquired by probing the way resources are apportioned.

Check Your Progress

1. State the second step of the setting up of a system of organizational goals.

2. Name the types of goals which are controllable.

3. What is another name for official goals?

11.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Setting of moderately difficult and challenging goals is the second step of the setting up of a system of organizational goals.

2. The process and performance goals are controllable goals.

3. Another name for official goals is task declarations.

11.5 SUMMARY

- Organizational goals are formed in an effort to accomplish a preferred condition of revenue and achievement. Common organizational goals are originated in the mission/vision proclamation of the company, but particulars of such goals are defined in the business plan.

- Effectiveness of the goals depends on the relation between the situations and the individuals. There has to be an understanding of this relation before setting the goals. The individual situations are the type of sports, the type of support system and personal characteristics such as the personality, experience as well as the background.

- There are some recommendations for setting up of a system of goals programming. These recommendations are as follows:

    (i) Identification of goals

NOTES

(ii) Setting of moderately difficult and challenging goals

(iii) Setting of specific goals

- Goal identification is the key to setting goals. The starting point of the entire process is to specify very precisely what is to be achieved.

- It is always better to set moderately difficult goals than setting moderate or very difficult goals. Effective goals should only be that difficult that they seem to be challenging enough but realistic to achieve. Very difficult to achieve goals can be frustrating and may lower the self-confidence which in turn may adversely affect the performance of the any one not just the sports person.

- While going through the process of goal setting one must consider setting specific goals. General goals are unable to produce high performance levels, but specific goals definitely lead to higher levels of the task performance. The performance specific goals should not be vague and at the same time should be measurable.

- There are some broad categories of goals like:

  i. Subjective goals

  ii. Objective goals

- Effective difference can be identified among outcome, performance and process goals.

- Outcome goals: These focus on specific result or outcome of a competition; it's about winning or losing a competition.

- Performance goals: These are related to improvement of the performance of the person. Various statistics may be used to analyse the performance.

- Effective difference can be identified among outcome, performance and process goals. Outcome goals focus on specific result or outcome of a competition; it's about winning or losing a competition. Performance goals are related to improvement of the performance of the person. Various statistics may be used to analyse the performance.

- Official goals are typically found in a company's mission or vision proclamation and corresponds the wide-ranging function of the organization. Such kinds of goals are normally qualitative, which means they are biased and difficult to quantify.

- Official goals are delegates of the common duty of the organization as set up in the constitution, annual reports and public statements. They can moreover be originated in press releases from chief. Official goals, or task declarations as they are regularly called, are a lot biased and generally not quantifiable.

- Operative goals are the real, solid steps an organization aims to acquire to realize its function. An organization's operative goals regularly do not equivalent its official goals; for instance, whilst a non-profit volunteer organization's key official goal may be neighborhood service, restricted funding might mean that its operative goal of fund raising will take preference.

- Operative goals explain the steps the organization will take to accomplish its purpose. These goals are not specifically the same as official goals. Official goals are what the organization would prefer to attain, whereas operative goals are what the organization wants to accomplish to become successful. Operative goals also apt to be considered quantitatively, which means they are based on metrics.

- Operative goals delegate the ends required in the course of the operating policies of the organization.

11.6 KEY WORDS

- **Organizational Goals:** These are goals formed in an effort to accomplish a preferred condition of revenue and achievement

- **Official Goals:** These are delegates of the common duty of the organization as set up in the constitution, annual reports and public statements

- **Operative Goals:** These explain the steps the organization will take to accomplish its purpose

11.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Give examples of vague and specific goals.
2. Which type of goal should be the focus of any sports person?
3. Discuss subjective and objective goals.
4. Which type of goals are normally qualitative? State its genesis.
5. Differentiate between official and operative goals.

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the setting up of a system of goals programming.
2. Describe the meaning and genesis of official and operative goals.

11.8 FURTHER READINGS

Watt, David. 2004. *Sports Management and Administration*. London: Routledge.

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BLOCK - IV
DIRECTIONAL PLANNING AND GOALS
AND ORGANISATION

UNIT 12 EDUCATIONAL AND ATHLETIC GOALS AND CONSTRAINTS

Structure

12.0 Introduction
12.1 Objectives
12.2 Educational and Athletic Objective
        12.2.1 Goals and Constraints
12.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
12.4 Summary
12.5 Key Words
12.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
12.7 Further Readings

12.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the basics of organizational goals. This included a discussion on the procedure of setting up of a goal programme, and the different sub-divisions of goals. In this section, as a continual of the topic, you will study specifically the concept of educational and athletic goals of a sports organization as well as the concept of goals and constraints.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the educational objectives in sports organization
- Describe the athletic objectives in a sports organization
- Explain the concept of goals and constraints

12.2 EDUCATIONAL AND ATHLETIC OBJECTIVE

In this section, you will first study about the educational objectives and then the athletic objectives.

The main educational objective is to promote sport education and guide as to how such knowledge can be implemented in the social, professional, physical and leisure activities.

Sport education and related activities are aimed at building up an all-inclusive attitude of the individuals having healthy public state of affairs, ethical behaviour, understanding of responsibilities, a self-determining initiative, forbearing person capable of successfully socializing and, furthermore, to exercise diverse structure of sport education and practices in day to day life so as to look after their own health and encourage valuable professional activities.

To achieve the sport objectives programmes for development of the sports management's teaching potential by means of extending methodological support of educational, pedagogic, health and fitness activities, practical implementation of information technology in process of planning and forming of learning activities, research activities at the development of innovative educational technology should be structured.

To be considered as educational experience, sport activities should have precise and consequential objectives, these objectives can be:

1. Advancement of physical fitness and skills

2. Improvement in mental alertness

3. Development of ethical qualities

4. Increase in constructive social abilities

5. Enhancement in emotional maturity

All objectives and ideology in sport activities must be first and foremost concerned with the welfare and educational development of the participants. The ideology to be achieved from the sport development programmes must be to provide participants with the opportunity to:

- Build up physical ability to their utmost potential

- Participate in competitive activities, whilst endorsing good health, safety and physical fitness

- Demonstrate good behaviour as a way for learning excellent sportsmanship

- Be trained to properly experience, both, success and failure in an educational atmosphere

- Be trained from experience that consequences follow the violation of a rule.

- Experience working as a team member, exercising self-discipline and self-sacrifice so as to attain teams' objectives.

- Gain knowledge of how to be a good teammate, making positive contributions, in spite of the role in the team or activity.

- Experience a sense of self-worth and to develop self-confidence.
- Experience in problem solving and decision making.
- Participate in structured activities with other participants whose backgrounds may be different from their own.
- Learn to build up trust and accept the responsibility that comes with earning trust from others.

Athletic Objectives

In order to help the athletes in achieving the best possible performance, establishing of objectives is one of the primary skills taught to the athletes. The process of establishing the objectives assists the athletes in realizing as to where they presently exist and what their ultimate goals are. The process of establishing the objectives can very well be taught either by a sport psychologist or by a mental skills training consultant. These professionals can guide them through setting systematic goals that are more focused on the process of achieving objectives instead of eyeing on the result of the competition.

The athletic objectives can be discriminated into two forms:

1. Individual objectives
2. Target oriented or specific objectives

Individual objectives are not related to a specific performance in sport and are simply concerned to participating and attempting the individual best.

On the other hand, target oriented objectives are based on the performance and success of the athlete. Where the target is to become more successful and perform as the best in the competition. For instance, if an athlete finishes off in an athletic event or specific sport by two second slower in comparison to the other athlete, than the target would be to resolve as to what should be done to enhance the performance and become more successful in such athletic event or specific sport, when participating the next time. This target oriented or specific objective would then provide the required assistance to the athlete in focusing on the instant task of improving the technical and tactical skills.

Athletic objectives can further be classified as:

1. Result based objective
2. Performance based objective
3. Process based objective

Result based objective are concerned with winning or losing or any other specific result in a competition. These objectives are different from performance-based objective and process-based objective. Performance based objective are concerned with various statistics that can assist an athlete in improving in whatever he or she may be trying to attain. For instance, a tennis player may analyse his game and realizes that his servicing speed is quite low and is proving to be a disadvantage against the opponents. Hence, performance-based objective for the

instant practice session would be to work on and increase the speed and accuracy of the service. Moreover, process-based objective is a very important kind of objective in addition to result-based objective and performance-based objective. Process based objective is associated to performance-based objective and is concerned with as to what should be the focal point of the athlete at the time of performing a sport skill. It is thought that the more an athlete focuses on process-based objective, the less he would be anxious about how he performs and then hopefully he would perform better.

12.2.1 Goals and Constraints

You have already learnt about the types of constraints in sports and their identification. Goals set for the sports organizations are not end all. Even though, there might be set procedures and plans in place, there are certain constraints which restrict or hinder the achievement of these goals. Constraints for a sports organization can be in the form of general interest in the particular sport, financial constraints which might not only de-incentivize the athlete but also the support staff from joining and continuing with the sports organization, legislation related constraints which might hinder the sportsperson, as well as the kind of facilities that are provided to the athlete, rules of the game and many others. This is to say that the constraints in sports can be individual, environmental or task oriented.

Individual constraints are related to the specific individuals like mental skills (e.g. concentration, confidence, emotional control or motivation), personality factors (e.g. is a risk-taker, or likes to play safe), the strength, speed, aerobic capacity, and flexibility), and decision-making skills (e.g. recognising patterns of play, anticipating by reading the movements of opponents). Environment constraints refer to the external or nature factors affecting the game performance. The task constraints are related to the particular physical activities, its rules and regulations. Coaches have a massive role to play in this field since the can manipulate these constraints in the favour of the sportsman in question and develop strategies suitable for the particular sport at a particular time. So, in this sense, it can be said that constraints are not always negative factors but rather guiding factors or boundaries defining the broad contours of the activities.

In sports education, one can observe that the actual advantage of association with sport appears among aspirants, who have practiced proper types of regulations. For instance, research demonstrates that martial arts taught with a philosophy of esteem, patience, responsibility and nobility were associated to reduce misbehaviour in comparison to martial arts taught with a focal point on free infighting and self-confidence.

If we look at training in sports, factors like hard work influence the way to control training, the procedure of training both professionals and volunteers who are probable to lead such programmes. Coaches and physical educators have the prospective to provide strong guidance if they wholly stimulate this characteristic of their work with aspirants.

Optimistic public interface among peers also associates strongly with sporting and educational conclusions and, as such, peer educators and heads also necessitate quality training and support.

There is increasing interest between the relevant sport and growth actions in the association between sport and approach towards school among aspirants. A number of studies have shown that once sports are introduced, pupil attendance increases. But the dissimilarity among leisure and competitive sport and physical activity has to be drawn to recognize the degree to which sport acts as a magnet or a repellent to school.

Evidence among those at risk of being excluded from school demonstrates that an increase in the accessibility of sports activities would make the prospects of attending school more appealing. In this logic, sports activities in schools, act as an opportunity, if presented in suitable ways, to show aspirants towards attending school.

In contrast, research has demonstrated that extreme and exhaustive preparation for competitive sport can act as an impediment to fulfilling educational and academic pursuits among young athletes who compete in higher level sports competitions.

Cases in which grown-ups, including sports coaches and even parents, force young athletes to abandon their studies to focus almost full-time on their sport pursuits are prevalent in competitive sport.

Thereby, you can observe that the goals and constraints in sports are interrelated in the sense, that constraints can be explained as the expression of goals. The stating of the goals is basically the setting of constraints.

Newell has distinguished between physical environment and task constraints. While the former relates to the environment or natural constraints which restricts actions, the latter is concerned with the restraints in the specific activity including limitations set by rules of the sport for equipment, duration, boundaries and actions.

In the field of sports, coaches and teachers play a great role in the management of these constraints to achieve the best performance. Key information constraints can be manipulated for achievement of specific objectives through practice sessions.

Official and Operative Goals : Genesis

Official and operative goals and their genesis have been discussed in Unit 11.

Check Your Progress

1. Who helps in teaching the process of establishing objectives?

2. Which objectives are concerned with various statistics that can assist an athlete in improving in whatever he or she may be trying to attain?

12.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The process of establishing the objectives can very well be taught either by a sport psychologist or by a mental skills training consultant. These professionals can guide them through setting systematic goals that are more focused on the process of achieving objectives instead of eyeing on the result of the competition.

2. Performance based objective are concerned with various statistics that can assist an athlete in improving in whatever he or she may be trying to attain.

12.4 SUMMARY

- The main educational objective is to promote sport education and guide as to how such knowledge can be implemented in the social, professional, physical and leisure activities.

- Sport education and related activities are aimed at building up an all-inclusive attitude of the individuals having healthy public state of affairs, ethical behaviour, understanding of responsibilities, a self-determining initiative, forbearing person capable of successfully socializing and, furthermore, to exercise diverse structure of sport education and practices in day to day life so as to look after their own health and encourage valuable professional activities.

- All objectives and ideology in sport activities must be first and foremost concerned with the welfare and educational development of the participants.

- In order to help the athletes in achieving the best possible performance, establishing of objectives is one of the primary skills taught to the athletes. The process of establishing the objectives assists the athletes in realizing as to where they presently exist and what their ultimate goals are. The process of establishing the objectives can very well be taught either by a sport psychologist or by a mental skills training consultant.

- The athletic objectives can be discriminated into two forms:

  1. Individual objectives

  2. Target oriented or specific objectives

- Athletic objectives can further be classified as:

  1. Result based objective

  2. Performance based objective

  3. Process based objective

- Goals set for the sports organizations are not end all. Even though, there might be set procedures and plans in place, there are certain constraints which restrict or hinder the achievement of these goals. Constraints for a sports organization can be in the form of general interest in the particular sport, financial constraints which might not only de-incentivize the athlete but also the support staff from joining and continuing with the sports organization, legislation related constraints which might hinder the sportsperson, as well as the kind of facilities that are provided to the athlete, rules of the game and many others.

- Goals and constraints in sports are interrelated in the sense, that constraints can be explained as the expression of goals. The stating of the goals is basically the setting of constraints.

- Newell has distinguished between physical environment and task constraints. While the former relates to the environment or natural constraints which restricts actions, the latter is concerned with the restraints in the specific activity including limitations set by rules of the sport for equipment, duration, boundaries and actions.

- In the field of sports, coaches and teachers play a great role in the management of these constraints to achieve the best performance. Key information constraints can be manipulated for achievement of specific objectives.

12.5 KEY WORDS

- **Educational Objectives:** These are set to promote sport education and guide as to how such knowledge can be implemented in the social, professional, physical and leisure activities

- **Athletic Objectives:** These refer to the objectives which help the athletes in achieving the best possible performance

- **Result Based Objective**: These are objectives concerned with winning or losing or any other specific result in a competition

12.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What are the objectives of sports education?
2. Enumerate some of the precise and consequential objectives of sports activities.
3. Write a short note on goals and constraints in sports.

Long Answer Questions

1. What are the opportunities which are to be provided to the participants as a part of the ideology to be achieved from the sport development programmes?

2. Describe the different types of athletic objectives.

12.7 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 13   PLANNING AND FORECAST

Structure

13.0   INTRODUCTION

Planning, as we have learnt before, is the backbone of any organization, including sports organizations. In the sports organization, planning assumes a significant importance as the goals here are to be set in accordance with the human or athlete factor in mind. The goals of the athlete must be in tune with the organizational goals. This too, requires a careful consideration of the numerous constraints that might be present in the environment as well as the task itself. A crucial component of planning is related to forecasting. Forecasting relates to making projections about the future course of actions. This is extremely important for a sports organization to remain in touch with the future possibilities and be ready with plans to deal with different demands of the situations. In this unit, you will learn about certain techniques of planning and forecasting.

13.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the concept of information and planning
- Describe the idea of forecasting and the rolling forecast
- Explain the nominal group techniques
- Recall the concepts of alternative generation, directional planning and official goals

13.2 INFORMATION AND PLANNING

Information is a prerequisite of planning. The generation of timely, accurate and cost effective information is much required for sound planning.

There are five dimensions of planning:

1. Management level
2. Type of plan
3. Scope of plan
4. Time frame of the plan
5. Repetitiveness of the plan

Let us see what each of these dimensions represent:

1. Management level: Each level of management i.e., upper, middle and lower develop different types of plans.
2. Type of plan: plans can be strategic or operational plans.
3. Scope of plan: scope of plan can be broad or narrow. Broad plans are for the entire organization while the narrow plan is only for the functional department or a specific part of the department.
4. Time frame of the plan: plans can be long term or short term in the time frame.
5. Repetitiveness of the plan: there can be a single use plan or a standing plan.

Planning skills of the different levels of management are different. Top level management uses single use strategic plans which have broad scope and are long term in nature.

While middle and lower level use operational plan with narrow scope, short range and standing plans.

Standing plans are related to policies, procedures and rules used in situations which arise repeatedly. Such plans save time and act as a guide for future decision making. With the use of standing plans, the objectives of the organization can be met easily.

Policies, procedures and rules, all three can be termed as standing plans. The only difference between three is their scope- general guidelines are provided by policies, procedures describe a sequence of activities and rules are for specific actions. The similarity between the three is that they govern the behaviour in the recurring situations.

Single use plans focus on situations which are non-repetitive in nature such as programs and budgets. They are developed for the specific purposes and are not used again.

A programme means a description of a set of activities aimed at achieving a specific objective over a fixed time frame (long or short).

The allocation of funds to operate a department is called budget. Budgets are important tools of planning as well as control.

Contingency plans are for something that is beyond control. They act as alternative plan in case of contingency. To develop an effective contingency plan, one must know:

1. What can go wrong?
2. How can it be prevented?
3. How can the effect be minimized?

Planners have to be cautious about poor planning, because poor planning never yields results. The indicators of poor planning are:

1. Unachieved objectives
2. Crisis situation
3. Resources not being used
4. Resources not available for use
5. Duplication of tasks

13.3 FORECASTING

Forecasting is often confused with planning and goal setting. To understand it clearly, we must study each one of them separately.

Forecasting is all about future. It predicts future outcomes with help of the entire available information, historical data and knowledge about any future event which might impact the accuracy of the forecast.

Goals are something which are to be achieved in a given situation and framework and are linked with forecast and planning whereas planning is the response to the forecast and the desired goals. Planning enlists the steps to match the forecast with the goals.

Forecasting should be an essential part of decision making. Forecasts can long term, medium term and short term.

- **Short term forecast**

Short term forecasts are required for the scheduling purposes. It is required for scheduling of personnel or production or transportation or even demand at times.

- **Medium term forecast**

Medium term forecasts are required for estimation of future resource requirement such as raw material, hiring of personnel or buying equipment and machinery.

● **Long term Forecast**

Long term forecasts are required for strategic planning. Such decisions are based on the environmental factors, market opportunities and resources.

A sound and accurate forecasting system needs to be evolved. Such a system must have the expertise of people who are capable of identifying problems related to forecasting and can develop methods specific to each problem.

13.3.1 The Rolling Forecast

An add or drop course for foreseeing the prospect over a pre-decided period of time is called the rolling forecast. It is generally used in predicting long term weather conditions, financial planning, project management and supply chain management.

For instance, if operating expenses of an organization are required to be anticipated in advance, the rolling forecast would set the time period of twelve months. After passing of the first month, it would drop that month from the commencement of the forecast and would an additional month to the end of the time period of twelve month. The first in first out (FIFO) process of the rolling forecast make certain that the forecast would always cover the identical period, because routine revision are required in a rolling forecast window. Sometimes, it is referred to as a continuous forecast or an uninterrupted forecast. It can also be distinguished with static forecasts and recursive forecasts. In static forecast a countdown process is used. A static forecast predicts yearly operating expenses of an organization, though it would also specifically cover twelve months, but when these twelve months are passed the forecast is also discarded and a wholly fresh forecast is formed for the next period of twelve months. Conversely, in recursive forecast there is no concluding time, it keeps on adding more time to the initial forecast period, whereas, the starting time remains the same.

Check Your Progress

1. Which kind of plan does top level management make?
2. Give examples of medium term forecasts.
3. Where is a rolling forecast generally used?

13.4 NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUES

Nominal group technique (NGT) is a prearranged deviation of a small-group conversation to arrive at agreement. NGT collects information by requesting individuals to react to questions posed by a representative and then inquiring participant to prioritize the thoughts or ideas of all group members. The procedure avoids the dominance of the conversation by a single person; persuade all group members to contribute, and fallout in a set of prioritized resolutions or proposals that represent the group's preferences.

How to prepare for NGT

Let us discuss how to prepare for nominal group techniques.

Meeting room

Arrange a room adequate to hold five to nine participants. Systematize the tables in a U-shape, with a flip chart at the open end of the U.

Supplies

Every U-shaped table system requires a flip chart; a large felt-tip pen; masking tape, paper, pencil, and 3" x 5" index cards for all the members.

Opening proclamation

Such proclamation explains member tasks and group objectives, and should comprise: a warm welcome, a report of the significance of the task, a disclosure of the significance of each member's involvement, and an indication of how the output of the group will be utilized.

The Four Step course to Conduct NGT

1. **Generating Ideas:** The mediator puts the question or problem to the group in writing and reads the question to the group. The mediator instructs everybody to note down ideas in concise expressions or statements and to work mutely and separately. Every individual mutely creates ideas and writes them down.

2. **Recording Ideas:** Group members involves in a round-robin feedback session to quickly record every idea (without having debate at this moment). The mediator writes an idea from a group member on a flip chart that is visible to the whole group, and proceeds to ask for another idea from the next group member, and so on. There is no requirement to replicate ideas; nevertheless, if group members believe that an idea provides a dissimilar emphasis or variation, feel free to incorporate it. Continue until all members' ideas have been acknowledged.

3. **Discussing Ideas:** Each acknowledged idea is then discussed to establish transparency and magnitude. For every idea, the mediator requests, 'Are there any questions or comments group members would like to make about the item?'. This stride grants an occasion for members to communicate their understanding of the logic and the comparative significance of the item. The originator of the idea need not feel grateful to explain or clarify the item; any member of the group can play such role.

4. **Voting on Ideas:** Persons vote confidentially to prioritize the ideas. The votes are compared to recognize the ideas that are rated highest by the group as a whole. The mediator ascertains what decisive factors are used to prioritize the ideas. To initiate, each group member chooses the five most significant items from the group list and writes one idea on each index card.

Subsequently, every member ranks the five ideas selected, with the most significant receiving a rank of 5, and the least significant receiving a rank of five, and the least significant receiving a rank of one.

After members grade their answers in order of precedence, the mediator makes a tally sheet on the flip chart by means of figures on the left-hand side of the chart, which communicate to the ideas as of the round-robin. The mediator gathers every card from the participants and requests a group member to read the idea number and number of points allocated to each member, whilst the mediator records and then appends the scores on the tally sheet. The ideas which are the most exceedingly ranked by the group are the most preferential group actions or ideas in reply to the question posed by the mediator.

When to Use NGT

NGT is an excellent process to utilize to increase group consent, for instance, when a variety of inhabitants (program staff, stakeholders, community residents, etc.) are engaged in building a logic model and the list of outputs for a precise element is too long and, therefore, has to be prioritized. In such a case, the questions to be considered would be: 'Which of the outputs listed are most important to achieving our goal and are easier to measure? Which of our outputs are less important to achieving our goal and are more difficult for us to measure?'

Limitation of NGT

- It necessitates foundation.
- It is strictly controlled and provides itself just to a solitary function, that is to say, single topic meeting.
- It curtails conversation and, therefore, does not consent to the complete expansion of ideas and, as a result, can be a less motivating group process in comparison to other techniques.

Benefits of NGT

- It produces a better figure of ideas in comparison to conventional group conversations.
- It stabilizes the authority of individuals by means of restraining the influence of judgment makers.
- It reduces rivalry and stress to be conventional, founded on the standing inside the group.
- It provides confidence to the participants to deal with the problems in the course of productive crisis resolving.
- It permits the group to categorize ideas independently.

- It characteristically grants better logic of conclusion in comparison to the one acquired by the way of group discussion.

13.5 ALTERNATIVE GENERATION AND DIRECTIONAL PLANNING

In this section, you will learn about the concept of alternative generation, directional planning and official goals.

Alternative Generation

You have already learnt the concept in preceding units. To deal with the diverse goals built up for particular projects a series of alternatives are formed, which is called alternative generation. It is fundamentally a formation of alternative resolution to counter with different events which may occur as the project progresses.

It is imperative to take note that with the absence of good alternatives extraordinary resolutions can never be reached out. In an effort to achieve the objectives different kinds of tasks or resolutions may be required because there is no solitary solution to the problems.

Directional Planning

You have already learnt the concept in the preceding units. In an effort to move the employees into the expected direction, an extensive direction is provided, which is termed as directional planning. Directional planning is a characteristic of human service organizations. Plans calling for expanding services or retrenching are examples of directional planning. Illustration, entrepreneur strategy to make bigger the child care services from creche to kindergarten sections or for half day programmes to full day programs and appoint additional staff retrenching due to reduced administering strength or increased dropout rates with the entrepreneur decides to remove some existing staff members are all examples of directional planning.

Directional plans identify general guidelines. They provide focus but do not lock managers into specific objectives or specific courses of action.

Directional Planning and Official Goals

You have learnt the concept of official goals in the previous unit. To recapitulate the concept, official goals refer to the specific or stated goals of the organization. As mentioned, these are very clearly stated and specific goals unlike the directional planning which does not have goals but is rather a general or broad overview of the targets that need to be achieved. Official goals present a rather present-oriented thrust that is being put forth by the organization. This then changes with the changes in other related factors like the environment, personnel or administration change.

The shift in focus of the official goals are then rigidly visible. But the official goals still very much remain within the broad contours of the directional planning. Official goals necessitate the presence of specific and detailed information to be valuable. Here in comes the benefit of directional planning, which is helpful in situations where minute details are absent, and a course of direction is needed.

Check Your Progress

4. What does the NGT procedure avoids?

5. Which type of plans provide focus but do not lock managers into specific objectives or specific courses of action?

13.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Top level management uses single use strategic plans which have broad scope and are long term in nature.

2. Future resource requirement such as raw material, hiring of personnel or buying equipment and machinery are made through medium term forecasts.

3. A rolling forecast is generally used in predicting long term weather conditions, financial planning, project management and supply chain management.

4. NGT procedure avoids the dominance of the conversation by a single person; persuade all group members to contribute, and fallout in a set of prioritized resolutions or proposals that represent the group's preferences.

5. Directional planning provides focus but do not lock managers into specific objectives or specific courses of action.

13.7 SUMMARY

- Information is a prerequisite of planning. The generation of timely, accurate and cost effective information is much required for sound planning.

- There are five dimensions of planning:
    - (i) Management level
    - (ii) Type of plan
    - (iii) Scope of plan
    - (iv) Time frame of the plan
    - (v) Repetitiveness of the plan

- Planners have to be cautious about poor planning, because poor planning never yields results. The indicators of poor planning are:
    - (i) Unachieved objectives

(ii) Crisis situation

(iii) Resources not being used

(iv) Resources not available for use

(v) Duplication of tasks

- Forecasting is all about future. It predicts future outcomes with help of the entire available information, historical data and knowledge about any future event which might impact the accuracy of the forecast.

- Goals are something which are to be achieved in a given situation and framework and are linked with forecast and planning whereas planning is the response to the forecast and the desired goals. Planning enlists the steps to match the forecast with the goals.

- Forecasting should be an essential part of decision making. Forecasts can long term, medium term and short term.

- An add or drop course for foreseeing the prospect over a pre-decided period of time is called the rolling forecast. It is generally used in predicting long term weather conditions, financial planning, project management and supply chain management.

- The first in first out (FIFO) process of the rolling forecast make certain that the forecast would always cover the identical period, because routine revision are required in a rolling forecast window. Sometimes, it is referred to as a continuous forecast or an uninterrupted forecast. It can also be distinguished with static forecasts and recursive forecasts. In static forecast a countdown process is used.

- Nominal group technique (NGT) is a prearranged deviation of a small-group conversation to arrive at agreement. NGT collects information by requesting individuals to react to questions posed by a representative and then inquiring participant to prioritize the thoughts or ideas of all group members. The procedure avoids the dominance of the conversation by a single person; persuade all group members to contribute, and fallout in a set of prioritized resolutions or proposals that represent the group's preferences.

- The Four Step course to Conduct NGT include: generating ideas, recording ideas, discussing ideas and voting on ideas.

- NGT is an excellent process to utilize to increase group consent, for instance, when a variety of inhabitants (program staff, stakeholders, community residents, etc.) are engaged in building a logic model and the list of outputs for a precise element is too long and, therefore, has to be prioritized.

- To deal with the diverse goals built up for particular projects a series of alternatives are formed, which is called alternative generation. It is fundamentally a formation of alternative resolution to counter with different events which may occur as the project progresses.

- In an effort to move the employees into the expected direction, an extensive direction is provided, which is termed as directional planning. Directional planning is a characteristic of human service organizations.

13.8 KEY WORDS

- **Forecasting:** It refers to the activity of future outcomes with help of the entire available information, historical data and knowledge about any future event which might impact the accuracy of the forecast

- **Rolling Forecast:** It refers to an add or drop course for foreseeing the prospect over a pre-decided period of time

- **Flip Chart:** It refers to a large pad of paper bound so that each page can be turned over at the top to reveal the next, used on a stand at presentations

- **Nominal Group Technique (NGT):** It is a prearranged deviation of a small-group conversation to arrive at agreement

13.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the five dimensions of planning.

2. What are the indicators of poor planning?

3. Differentiate between forecasting and planning and goal setting.

4. Briefly discuss the types of forecast.

5. When is NGT used?

6. Write short notes on alternative generation and directional planning.

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the benefits and limitations of NGT.

2. Describe the four step course to conduct NGT.

13.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 14 PLANNING AND SPORT ORGANIZATIONS

Structure

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14.2 Planning
14.3 Sport Organizations
    14.3.1 Private Sector Organizations
    14.3.2 Public Sector Organizations
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14.0 INTRODUCTION

Planning is the primary function of management. It is essential because planning sets the basis for organizational structure and evaluation. It is important to establish a sound planning foundation. Such an approach depends on the organization's view of sports and its role in the community. This view or philosophy can often be ascertained by examining the overall goals and purposes of the organization. You have studied the concept of planning in preceding units from different angles. In this unit, you will learn about strategic planning in sports organizations.

A sports organization is a part and parcel of the sports industry and has a social entity of its own. It is an activity system which is consciously structured, and goal directed. It has identifiable boundaries and works within the framework. In this unit, you will also study the categorization of private, public and third sector organizations.

14.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the concept of planning
- Describe the strategic planning activities in the organizations
- Explain the private, public and third sector sports organizations

14.2 PLANNING

In the present day dynamic and competitive environment, organizations are constantly facing the issue of a suitable strategy so that they would timely choose the best business model and would avoid strategy collapse. In today's world of business and services competition is very high. Therefore, in order to function effectively and profitably, organizations have to find ways that would enable them to achieve their goals and to compete in the market successfully.

When choosing the most appropriate strategy, one of the most important steps is the application of planning activities. Ability to prepare and implement effective development strategies is becoming the essential factor of organization success allowing expansion and exploitation of strategic advantages and creation of innovative decisions.

Executives of sport organizations can compete in the market more successfully and achieve better activity results in a shorter time period with fewer expenses when the process of organization management includes application of strategic planning activities: determination of vision and mission, creation of specific and real goals, constant environmental analysis, consideration of strengths and weaknesses of the organization, formation of concrete activity strategies and detailed plans for their realization, permanent control and evaluation of the implementation process, as well as revision of strategies.

There is probably no organization that would not apply strategic planning activities in the management process at least partially. Some organizations are successful in the implementation of the strategy, while others are not. Small and medium businesses without professional management have distinctive characteristics – specific barriers for strategic planning activities are lack of time and experience, insufficient knowledge of about activities of strategic planning, unwillingness to share strategic plans and ideas with employees and with the others, indefinite environment, the size of business, type of industry, internal barriers for implementation, cycles of business lifetime and the level of development. Despite the strategic activity barriers small and medium business without an appropriately chosen strategy is vulnerable as it does not accumulate the necessary resources and does not ensure application of competitive advantages. Most often sport organizations employ relatively small staff and the executive has to care not only of the organization strategy, therefore there is lack of strategic activity motivation and the mentioned barriers of strategic activity emerge. Finally, the implementation of strategic planning activities is insufficient.

Strategic Planning Activities for an Organization

The amount of the decisions and the activities, which come from these decisions and serve to formulate and perform the activities that lead to the right relation in sports and the sports organization and its environment through obtaining the organization's purposes refers to strategic management in sports. Its general purpose is to improve the compatibility of the sport organization using the chances provided by the environment and by internal potential as it avoids dangers from external environment and as it removes internal weaknesses and disadvantages. Strategy, politics and purpose are confirmed for the means of the establishing of a system in sports and for the functioning of the organization itself.

The beginning of every sports-working performance is a definition of a vision that is the direction for the future of each sport organizations. In order to realize the vision of a sport organization it is necessary that every single organizational part of it and all subsystems to have clear defined activities. The next step would be the defining of the individual activities in the subsystems and organizational parts in the sport system, which contain mission purposes.

Management by vision can help sports and the sport organization in the following five ways: (1) increasing the number of the sport performances and sport organization, (2) promoting the changes in sports and sport organization, (3) securing the ground for strategic development of the sports, (4) mobilizing the athletes as individuals and providing for the talents in sports, (5) to guarantee continuance in decision making.

Sport organization cannot exist without two keys motivation facts – profit and vision. Vision is the generator for actions in sports and profit is the result of the competitive advantage performed by the sport organization and the sport as a whole in the process of working. Vision motivates the realization of the over average performances and the profit is the award for the obtained performances in the framework of the sport organization and the sports as a whole.

Mission is a certain complex of purposes and assignments that has support in the community values, and more precisely in sports results, followed by the profitability and the overall growth of the sport organization. Main element of the mission is grounded on the belief that the sport results and the provided sport-working services are to response to the needs of the consumers of the sport events, auditorium and fans, employees, owners and managers, media and the community as a whole.

Defining the mission of sports and the sport organization helps to confirm the main zone of interest of the sport-working system, the attainability of the intended activities and their prior values. After defining the mission, a strategy is to be made followed by the working policies of the sport organization.

The appearance of the working process which is to define the strategic management is in all views a strategic planning. It is the general mean, mechanism and method for realizing the strategic management. Nevertheless, to a greater extent of cases these two concepts are equal, it should be stressed that the strategic management is a wider and more complex topic that is initially related to managing, while the strategic planning refers only to one of the managing functions. The two concepts are inevitably connected, complement one another and there is an interactivity between them because of which they cannot exist and function.

Strategic planning is the condition for the further organizational planning. The following assignments are included in the framework of the strategic planning process: (1) defining the mission, (2) situation management SWOT analyses, (3) establishing purposes and directions in terms of the operative tactics, (4) developing strategies in consent to the operative tactics, and (5) monitoring of the plan.

Planning should be viewed as a continuous process, because the organizational, strategic, tactic and operative plans should be documents to which the organization's management constantly returns to, revises them and changes them in order to make them consistent to the eventual changes that appear or in cases when the purposes are met. Nevertheless, the strategic plans are made for four year and the operative plans – for one year, they are subject to evolution and evaluation as to relevance to the organization. Yearly revision of the operative plan may point out that certain modifications in the strategic priorities are needed as to the framework of the strategy plan because this provides an opportunity to the organization to react to changes, and the four-year cycle is too long, i.e. various changes are possible in the internal and external environment. Good plans may be dynamic, so the yearly revision of the operative plans should have an effect on the formulation of the strategy on yearly bases, not on four year grounds so that the strategic priorities should stay adequate and actual.

Developing a strategy and commencing certain planning actions are the consistent part of the successful management in sport organization. Strategies are plans working on the widest possible scales that intend to provide interaction with the environment of the organization and for obtaining the long term purposes. Organizational strategic plan consists of formulating, choosing and announcing the strategy of the organization in a very wide context together with its mission and purposes.

The following are three strategic planning activities:

a. The review of the main strategic principles of an organization;

b. Comparison of expected and actual results,

c. Implementation of correction activities to ensure the accuracy of activities according to the plan.

A slightly more detailed list of strategic planning activities is:

a. An independent variable;

b. The definition of a mission;

c. External and internal analysis;

d. Strategy implementation;

e. Strategy control and evaluation.

The Richardson model (Stewart, 2002) is the most comprehensive and includes even more activities; it covers eight levels of strategic planning:

1. Mission of an organization,

2. Objectives of an organization,

3. External analysis of an organization,

4. Internal analysis of an organization,

5. Creation of alternative strategies,

6. Choice of organization strategy,

7. Implementation of organization strategy,

8. Control.

The advantage of this model in comparison to the earlier two models lies in the fact that later Richardson's model identifies four outlines of growth:

a) sales/income,

b) base of customers/ clients,

c) new organizational premises/activity bases,

d) employees;

During activities of strategic planning, employees of organization are continually learning and gathering knowledge about industry, realized strategies, their abilities, and economical situation. These activities of strategic planning should be able to improve the competitive situation and success of a company. The previously discussed activities in principle disclose the process of strategic planning. Still it has to be noted that it would be impossible to identify the type of strategy applied by the company according to the performed activities. In this respect business strategy typologies would be more appropriate. Each strategy type defines the relationship between the organization expenses and the scope of activities depending on the leadership direction. Strategy types and respective explanations can be distinguished:

- Defender strategy: Companies which supported the defender strategy did not introduce innovations and followed the strategy of cost reduction.

- Innovator / researcher strategy: Companies supporting this strategy followed the riskier strategy type that would increase profit by employing different opportunities stimulating the growth of income.

- Analyser strategy: Companies which supported this strategy based their activity on the analysis of mistakes and developed further action accordingly.

- Reactor strategy: Companies following this strategy made changes only when alterations in the environment were too significant to continue the development of activity in the same mode.

The differences of these strategic management peculiarities give an opportunity to evaluate the significance of the strategy for the results of an organization. Different researchers signify various aspects of strategic planning activity significance for an organization and its results. The formation of strategic planning is decided by a number of factors and the way of the organization success in attaining positive business results and endless development opportunities is grounded by constant strategy improvement. Strategic planning is considered to be the most important component of business success, reflecting the abilities of executives to create vision maintain adaptability and prognosticate the future in the unstable business environment. Strategic planning also helps to create a rational management system based on the principles of balanced development. The research shows that the attention of leaders to the implementation of strategic decisions decides profit growth and increases customer satisfaction. When combined with innovations such strategic decisions influence the competitive superiority of an organization.

Implementation of innovations would enable a successful application of a mixed strategic model, oriented towards a conscious decision of executives to connect differentiation price and expenditure control. The choice and application of strategic planning activity tools can increase the opportunities for small and medium business' survival in the competitive business environment and contribute to its growth. Though leaders of small and medium business are striving for success and development, without strategy and tactics they remain vulnerable in connection to the necessary resources and productivity.

The environment influences organizations and they change and choose the environment by using organizational strategy in decision making. In comparison with other companies, activity results of small and medium companies improved when an official business plan was started to be used. The attention for strategic management in small and medium business organizations is necessary in order to improve and develop successfully in the growing markets. The ability to determine what resources will be necessary and who will supply these resources for the desired development is a very important management skill deciding the strategy of

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an organization. Knowledge about indispensable resources influences the strategic plan change and implementation. When an innovative leader has ideas and needs that cannot be implemented with the help of own means, a strategic partnership is a perspective decision.

The strategic decision of an executive to adopt innovations depends on the evaluation of a few influencing factors: a) the need of innovation, b) the relative value of innovation and c) the threats caused by innovation. On the basis of numerous researches, it could be stated that strategic planning is inseparable from successful development of an organization and there are numbers of factors deciding its formation. When solving the issue of selection of strategy creation means, various strategy creation concepts have to be taken into account.

Different researchers classify strategy formation concepts differently by choosing diverse classification objects: Strategic concepts have been classified into four theories according to orientation to subjective or objective understanding and orientation to the external and internal. Strategic schools have been classified into three main groups according to usage options: 1) normative (telling what to do), 2) descriptive (explaining why a certain strategy was adopted) and 3) having normative and descriptive features. Strategic schools have been classified into five groups according to strategy creation imperative: 1. ability to model a situation, 2. ability to disclose the need of changes in a company, 3. ability to prepare the strategy for change; 4. ability to apply reliable methods in the change period, 5. ability to implement the strategy, 6. the significance of entrepreneurial imperatives for strategic leadership.

Each distribution of strategic concepts is useful and does not contradict with the rest. Still, Mintzberg's, Ahlstrand's and Lampel's distribution (three main groups that are subdivided into ten strategic schools) is the most popular among researchers of the field. Normative strategy school group includes schools of design (projecting), planning and positioning. The school of design (projecting) gives exceptional attention to the evaluation of external and internal situation with the help of the classical SWOT analysis. Only proper evaluation of strengths and weaknesses, as well as opportunities and threats help to achieve positive results. This analysis is grounded on the ability to foresee the development of the situation and create the 'map' of future events from separate factors. In addition, SWOT analysis is a good diagnostic tool when the scenarios have already been created. This method is applied in all spheres with the exception financial strategic analysis. Appropriate evaluation of own strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats help to determine opportunities for the increase of an organization service attractiveness.

There are two main methodologies in the strategic management literature – deterministic and emergent. The process of strategic planning covers the organization's mission, vision, goals, creation of strategy, its implementation and

analysis, but the strategic management model in deterministic methodology is way more detailed. Unlike the emergent methodology model, it distinguishes closely connected stages of strategy creation and implementation, therefore emergent methodology is more flexible. More frequent strategy renewal prevails in the strategic management model of emergent methodology. Here, in a feedback relation, strategy creation and implementation process is connected with the stages of strategic analysis that are distinguished in the model of deterministic methodology.

The model of strategic planning forces the organization to constantly analyse industrial peculiarities which decides long-term organizational success. It could be emphasized that general principles and specificity of strategic management depend on the organization: Type of activity (production, services or idea provision); Sources of financing (commercial and noncommercial organizations); Property (state or privately owned¡ organizations); Size (small and large organizations); Diversification level (one or several activity fields in a sport and leisure club). It is difficult to relate a strategy with a strategic action. In order to coordinate these things, organizations have to rethink strategies and business models and change traditional ways of business development. To achieve this, strategic decisions have to be made having evaluated environmental factors that could influence the results usually measured by the outcomes of financial activity. Human resource management has also to be discussed in strategic planning as it is the main auxiliary element in the strategic management of an organization.

Human resource management works for attaining organizational goals in that it places appropriate people with appropriate skills in the right positions in an organization in the right time so that they would reach the set goals and accomplish tasks in the highest quality level. Senior managers most often agree that people and not money or equipment is the main driving force of an organization. The measurement of strategy success in the development of an organization is very complicated. It demands a manifold attitude towards the goals, activity and results of an organization that are connected with the development of each activity and individual staff members. Four presumptive strategy evaluation criteria could be distinguished: Strategy consistency; Compatibility; Reality; Superiority. For the strategic activities to be successful the quality of the available data is exceptionally impotent. The success of strategic planning also depends on cooperation with employees, attention to their opinion, discussions about suggestions, their evaluation etc.

These discussions result in a common stimulation of more effective development – accomplishment in all discussed strategic planning activities with the management surveillance and assessment. In scientific research the attention is shifted from strategic planning to new fields thereby emphasizing the positions of individuals participating in strategic activities. Thinking employees of an organization help the development of their organization. The employees have the closest relation

with customers and their qualities are essential for the quality and effectiveness of the organization's activity. Still, even in this case the activities of strategic planning have to be analysed, but the field of research has to include the aspect of managers' and other employees' participation in the analysis of strategic planning activities. This aspect could manifest itself in every strategic planning activity.

Organization management and creation would be shaped with the help of twelve future creation actions, which are: prognostication, floodlighting, projection, programming, planning, scenario making, project implementation, author supervision, expertise, monitoring, organization, management. Managers' mind activity as the basic force for organization development should be used in these actions. In order for the organization to function profitably and exploit its competitive advantage, strategy planning activities would have to be constantly accomplished; they have to be improved and changed, otherwise they would not correspond with the environmental conditions. When striving for the strategy compatibility with environmental conditions, strategic analysis covering the dynamics of company network and the development of business complexity and cooperation is of utmost importance.

Analysis showed that there are distinguished various strategic activities thus it is important to identify the main activities that could be distributed as follows: setting goals, strategic analysis, prognostication, strategy selection and strategy implementation. Executive involvement and documentation are signified in the top part of the model. They both can influence each other based on the previously discussed processes and are significant. Strategic consensus has positive influence on the implementation of the strategic process and frequent communication from top to bottom in the organizational structures reinforces strategic consensus and thinking through nurturing of common views and values. It has also been determined that senior managers who have been taught strategic planning and implementation are more likely to realize activity goals than those who do not have strategic planning knowledge.

Relying on the presented evidence, it could be concluded that in order to achieve excellent results strategy implementation plans have to be clearly defined with precise dates and specific duties for individuals – there have to be people responsible for the accomplishment of the task and for documentation. The strategy of an organization depends on the feedback and the user needs. The internal assessments, the encouragement of the organization's staff to keep up with the organization's activities and results and a discussion with them influences the leader of the organization to make the right strategic decisions and thus improve the organization's performance. The examined models usually focus on feedback, continuous correction of strategic planning activities, their improvement and evaluation; therefore, this model also includes feedback as a separate strategic planning activity

Objectives of planning

(i) Planning enables to become proactive rather than reactive to clarity in organizational purposes and direction.

(ii) It initiates and influences outcomes in favour of the organization.

(iii) It exerts more control over its destiny deciding where it wants to be in the future.

(iv) It adopts a systematic approach to change and reduce resistance to change.

(v) It improves financial performance and helps use resources effectively.

Check Your Progress

1. State the two key motivation factors without which a sports organization cannot exist.

2. List the assignments included in the framework of strategic planning process.

3. What are the factors on which the strategic decision of an executive to adopt innovations depend?

14.3 SPORT ORGANIZATIONS

There are five key elements in a sports organization, namely, social entity, involvement in the industry, goal directed focal point, structured activities and an identified boundary or framework.

1. **Social entity:** Each and every organization is a social entity. It is called a social entity because it is composed of people who interact with one another and perform the organizational functions.

2. **Involvement in the industry:** Sports organization is different from other organizations because of their direct involvement in the sports industry.

3. **Goal directed focus:** All the sports organizations are created with specific purpose only.

4. **Structured activity system:** Interactions in the sport organizations occur through a structured activity system such as marketing or human resource development etc.

5. **Identifiable boundary:** Each organization needs to have a demarcation between members and nonmembers.

14.3.1 Private Sector Organizations

In the sports industry, private sector organizations refer to those organizations that provide leisure activities which are open only to private members and is funded by private capital. These private organizations mean that they can be specialist

professional health club, sports club or any other local team supporting clubs that are specially established by the sponsorship of local and national business. The main advantage of having these private sports organizations is mainly economic as the funding of private sports club outreaches the economic resources available to the public sector sports organizations. Private sector sports organizations are more popular and productive than public sector sports industries as it had an elevated status and came from the setup of private school sporting institutions. Private sector sports organization have a few disadvantages and the inherent disadvantage of this sector for sports and leisure services is that it exclusively relies on private sector for funding. There is no guarantee for this source of funding to be constant for a fixed period of time. The benefactors of such private sports organizations are themselves subject to ups and downs of the free market economy which resulted in instabilities in their funding over a period of time in addition to this the leisure services catering to the private sector inevitably suffered from the lack of a spirit of community. It could only have association with local public authorities. Although the private sports sector appeared to be having all advantages on the face value, but the reality is that there is lack of stability and it is characterized in all aspects of the private sector economy and this hampered its growth and popularity.

The private sector organizations are composed of a number of commercial operators which are owned by individuals or companies

The main aim of these private operators is to generate profit by providing the services and products to their customers

The main activity area of these private sector players in the leisure and recreation industry is in the area of retail sales catering accommodation health and fitness etc. The source of funding for the private sector in this area depends upon the size of the business and its legal identity. It can be a small time sole trader or a large business most of the new business looks out for getting the funds from the banking institutions at lower rate of interest.

14.3.2 Public Sector Organizations

Public sector organizations make a positive contribution to the national moral as well as economy. These organizations have a spirit of community and equal opportunity for the personnel development and at the same time focus on social integration.

These public sector organizations promote sports in a large way so that the everyone somewhere or the other can participate in it. Like private sector institutions even public sector institutions have their own set of advantages and disadvantages. The most obvious advantage is that there is a rapid increase in funding of these organizations and the major disadvantage is the concern of the very nature of government.

Public sector sports organizations are subject to the same ups and downs which private institutions face. Even if we get best in the private sector in the public sector, the public sector services are provided for the public and are collectively paid for by the government.

Central as well as local government lay funds for the public sector organizations and this in turn affects the strategies and policies.

The difference between public sector and private sector lies in the fact that private sector views provision of leisure services as a product catering to the customer whereas public sector regards provision of leisure services as a social service to the community rather than a profit making venture. Facilities provided by the public sector includes leisure centre, swimming pools, library, fitness centres and several health clubs.

As a direct result, funding within the public sector has seen a sharp, unprecedented rise since the early 1990s with the government acting as the focal point behind this increase in official spending. An investment over the next five years by way of state sponsored assistance has been promised to further increase the organizational structures and performance levels of adult and child athletes who train and practice within the public sector. This money, bolstered by funding generated from institutions is delegated to local sports authorities and injected into the local community. This financial injection is far beyond any investment proposed by private capital; in fact, because of this large economic discrepancy, the private sector has increasingly sought to form a partnership with the public sector in order to be associated with the vast increase in interest in sport as witnessed in recent years.

Moreover, public sector sports services also get to reap the rewards of the government's efforts at placing the country on the international sporting map. Not only has the funding vastly increased, the facilities that have been and are being constructed are open to the public after the completion of the official competition. This has served to open up a city centre swimming pool, an athletics track and a football stadium for use within the public sector. Moreover, as the new facilities and funding increase, so the burgeoning association between national identity, local and central government and sport is further cemented. This has helped to push people into participating in public as opposed to private sports services, representing a significant turnaround from previous decades.

Like private sector sporting institutions, public sector services are similarly riddled with pros and cons. The most obvious advantage at the present time is the aforementioned increase in public authority funding and facilities open to the public sector, exacerbated by a media that constantly underlines the partnership taking place between local government and sport. This is, however, a double edged sword as the major disadvantage to public sector sports services concerns the

very nature of government. Thus, public sector sports are subject to the same ups and down and insecurities that beset the private sector.

14.3.3 Third Sector Organizations

The third sector organizations also known as voluntary organizations rely upon both the community as well as private enterprise for the funding therefore move around the boundaries that have traditionally separated public and private sectors. The examples of third sector organizations include non-governmental organizations, self-help groups, registered charities, co-operatives and other social enterprises. The fundamental principles which characterises third sector organizations are that they work independent of the government control, they are value-driven in the sense that they follow social goals over profit motives and that third sector organizations mostly reinject the excess that they earn for the future actions of the institution in pursuit of their goals.

Examples of third sector sports organizations include the likes of clubs for under-19 children in football or NGOs forming sports club for underprivileged kids or institutions working to empower girl children through specific sports like skating or organizations working for promotion of inclusion of LGBTQIA+ community children in mainstream sports, etc.

Broadly, the activities that form part of the third sector sports organizations are lobbying or advocacy, commissioning research or public campaigning. More specifically, third sector organizations may be involved in problem-solving of specific issues, representing certain sections of the society, providing legal advice to the needful, providing equipment or facilities for practice, etc.

Check Your Progress

4. State the main advantage of having private sports organizations.
5. What is the difference between private sector and public sector sports organizations?
6. Give some examples of third sector organizations.

14.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Sport organization cannot exist without two keys motivation facts – profit and vision.

2. The following assignments are included in the framework of the strategic planning process: (1) defining the mission, (2) situation management SWOT analyses, (3) establishing purposes and directions in terms of the operative

tactics, (4) developing strategies in consent to the operative tactics, and (5) monitoring of the plan.

3. The strategic decision of an executive to adopt innovations depends on the evaluation of a few influencing factors: a) the need of innovation, b) the relative value of innovation and c) the threats caused by innovation.

4. The main advantage of having private sports organizations is mainly economic as the funding of private sports club outreaches the economic resources available to the public sector sports organizations.

5. The difference between public sector and private sector lies in the fact that private sector views provision of leisure services as a product catering to the customer whereas public sector regards provision of leisure services as a social service to the community rather than a profit making venture.

6. The examples of third sector organizations include non-governmental organizations, self-help groups, registered charities, co-operatives and other social enterprises.

14.5 SUMMARY

- In the present day dynamic and competitive environment, organizations are constantly facing the issue of a suitable strategy so that they would timely choose the best business model and would avoid strategy collapse.

- In order to function effectively and profitably, organizations have to find ways that would enable them to achieve their goals and to compete in the market successfully.

- When choosing the most appropriate strategy, one of the most important steps is the application of planning activities. Ability to prepare and implement effective development strategies is becoming the essential factor of organization success allowing expansion and exploitation of strategic advantages and creation of innovative decisions.

- Executives of sport organizations can compete in the market more successfully and achieve better activity results in a shorter time period with fewer expenses when the process of organization management includes application of strategic planning activities: determination of vision and mission, creation of specific and real goals, constant environmental analysis, consideration of strengths and weaknesses of the organization, formation of concrete activity strategies and detailed plans for their realization, permanent control and evaluation of the implementation process, as well as revision of strategies.

- The beginning of every sports-working performance is a definition of a vision that is the direction for the future of each sport organizations. In order to realize the vision of a sport organization it is necessary that every single organizational part of it and all subsystems to have clear defined activities. The next step would be the defining of the individual activities in the subsystems and organizational parts in the sport system, which contain mission purposes.

- Management by vision can help sports and the sport organization in the following five ways: (1) increasing the number of the sport performances and sport organization, (2) promoting the changes in sports and sport organization, (3) securing the ground for strategic development of the sports, (4) mobilizing the athletes as individuals and providing for the talents in sports, (5) to guarantee continuance in decision making.

- Following are three strategic planning activities:
    a. The review of the main strategic principles of an organization;
    b. Comparison of expected and actual results,
    c. Implementation of correction activities to ensure the accuracy of activities according to the plan.

- A slightly more detailed list of strategic planning activities is:
    a. An independent variable;
    b. The definition of a mission;
    c. External and internal analysis;
    d. Strategy implementation;
    e. Strategy control and evaluation

- There are two main methodologies in the strategic management literature – deterministic and emergent.

- There are five key elements in a sports organization, namely, social entity, involvement in the industry, goal directed focal point, structured activities and an identified boundary or framework.

- In the sports industry, private sector organizations refer to those organizations that provide leisure activities which are open only to private members and is funded by private capital. These private organizations mean that they can be specialist professional health club, sports club or any other local team supporting clubs that are specially established by the sponsorship of local and national business.

- Public sector organizations make a positive contribution to the national moral as well as economy. These organizations have a spirit of community and equal opportunity for the personnel development and at the same time focus on social integration.

- The third sector organizations also known as voluntary organizations rely upon both the community as well as private enterprise for the funding therefore move around the boundaries that have traditionally separated public and private sectors. The examples of third sector organizations include non-governmental organizations, self-help groups, registered charities, co-operatives and other social enterprises.

14.6 KEY WORDS

- **Emergent Model:** It is a model of strategic planning which covers the organization's mission, vision, goals, creation of strategy and its implementation and analysis

- **Deterministic Model:** It is a model of strategic planning which distinguishes closely connected stages of strategy creation and implementation

- **Prognostication:** It refers to the action of prophesying future events

- **Third Sector Organizations:** These are voluntary organizations which rely upon both the community as well as private enterprise for the funding therefore move around the boundaries that have traditionally separated public and private sectors

14.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What are the barriers of strategic activity?
2. State the ways in which management by vision can help sports and the sport organization.
3. How are strategy formation concepts classified?
4. Mention the two main methodologies in the strategic management literature.
5. List the objectives of planning.
6. What are the five key elements in a sports organization?

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the strategic planning activities for an organization in detail.
2. Describe the private, public and third sector sporting organizations.

14.8 FURTHER READINGS

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