



MANAGEMENT THEORIES AND MODELS

SALMA SYEDA
DR. BIPASHA MAITY



ALEXIS PRESS
JERSEY CITY, USA

MANAGEMENT THEORIES AND MODELS

MANAGEMENT THEORIES AND MODELS

Salma Syeda
Dr. Bipasha Maity





ALEXIS PRESS

Published by: Alexis Press, LLC, Jersey City, USA
www.alexispress.us

© RESERVED

This book contains information obtained from highly regarded resources.
Copyright for individual contents remains with the authors.
A wide variety of references are listed. Reasonable efforts have been made
to publish reliable data and information, but the author and the publisher
cannot assume responsibility for the validity of
all materials or for the consequences of their use.

No part of this book may be reprinted, reproduced, transmitted,
or utilized in any form by any electronic, mechanical, or other means,
now known or hereinafter invented, including photocopying,
microfilming and recording, or any information storage or retrieval system,
without permission from the publishers.

For permission to photocopy or use material electronically
from this work please access alexispress.us

First Published 2022

A catalogue record for this publication is available from the British Library

Library of Congress Cataloguing in Publication Data

Includes bibliographical references and index.

Management Theories and Models by *Salma Syeda, Dr. Bipasha Maity*

ISBN 978-1-64532-992-3

CONTENTS

| | |
|--|----|
| Chapter 1. Workplace Management: Bridging Disciplines for Understanding | 1 |
| – Mrs. Salma Syeda | |
| Chapter 2. Real Estate Management: Model for the Maturity of Corporate | 9 |
| – Dr. Nishant Labhane | |
| Chapter 3. A Brief Overview about Systems Thinking Theory | 16 |
| – Ms. Swati Sharma | |
| Chapter 4. St. Gallen Model: Workplace Management and Organization | 23 |
| – Ms. Neha Saxena | |
| Chapter 5. Real Estate Management Levels: Procedures, and Organisational Structures | 30 |
| – Dr. Vijayarengam Gajapathy | |
| Chapter 6. An Overview: Uncovering the Socio-Technological Transition | 37 |
| – Mr. Venkatesh Ashokababu | |
| Chapter 7. A Brief Overview about Tempo of Built -Environment Changes | 44 |
| – Dr. Bipasha Maity | |
| Chapter 8. Model for Disaster Resilience of Place | 51 |
| – Dr. Vankadari Gupta | |
| Chapter 9. Strategy-As-Practice: Social Implications of Workplace Design | 58 |
| – Dr. Jayakrishna Herur | |
| Chapter 10. Understanding Multifaceted Decision-Making for Workplace Strategies | 65 |
| – Dr. Lakshmi Prasanna Pagadala | |
| Chapter 11. Alignment Theory for CRE and Workplace | 72 |
| – Dr. Akhila Udupa | |
| Chapter 12. A Brief Introduction about Corporate Real Estate Alignment | 79 |
| – Dr. Nalin Chirakkara | |
| Chapter 13. Workplace: Principal-Agent Perspectives and Techniques | 86 |
| – Dr. Pramod Pandey | |

CHAPTER 1

WORKPLACE MANAGEMENT: BRIDGING DISCIPLINES FOR UNDERSTANDING

Mrs. Salma Syeda, Assistant Professor,
Master in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-syeda.s@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

For a thorough knowledge of the topic of workplace management, a multidisciplinary approach is necessary. An overview of the significance of evaluating ideas to develop an interdisciplinary knowledge of workplace management is given in this abstract. It emphasises the advantages of combining ideas from many fields and the positive effects it has on improving workplace procedures and results. Traditional management practises often fail to handle the complexity and range of difficulties confronted by Organisations in today's quickly developing work settings. Organisations may get a better knowledge of workplace dynamics by adopting an interdisciplinary viewpoint, which can draw ideas from a variety of domains including psychology, sociology, organisational behaviour, economics, and more. An integrated perspective on workplace management is made possible by the evaluation of theories from multiple disciplines, taking into account a number of variables that affect organisational structure, communication patterns, leadership styles, and decision-making processes, as well as individual and group behaviour. It assists in identifying trends, relationships, and guiding ideas that support efficient workplace administration. When solving complicated workplace challenges, integrating ideas from other fields also encourages innovation and creativity. Organisations may explore fresh views and solutions that might not be obvious from a single discipline lens by bridging disciplinary boundaries. A more nuanced approach to workplace management is made possible by this multidisciplinary knowledge, which takes into account the particular conditions and dynamics of each Organisation.

KEYWORDS:

Discipline, Estate, Organizational, Management, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

Since the earliest structures devoted to carrying out activities connected to work began to arise, workplace administration has existed in some capacity. The focus on office layouts and the best way to perform work tasks wasn't paid much attention until the late 19th and early 20th centuries, during a boom in office building development, and was heavily inspired by scientific management founder Frederick Winslow Taylor.

As construction methods advanced and employee rights expanded, workplaces began to change and provide greater chances for customization. Dedicated managers for overseeing physical space began to emerge in the middle of the 20th century. The timely distribution of square meters remained their major concern, and they gave real estate consumers just a cursory thought. In the 1980s, a new facilities management (FM) regime emerged in research as a result of the necessity to arrange activities scattered over several sites. Corporate real estate management (CREM) study was developed as a result of Jaroff et al.s introduction of

corporate real estate as the fifth resource, whose strategic value is just emerging. While CREM first placed more of an emphasis on the financial management of real estate, FM initially focused on a more operational level of building management [1]–[4].

Organisational studies were expanding understanding about Organisations and human behaviour in organisational settings at the same time. Organisational scholars originally proposed the notion that group dynamics and job performance are related, and that the physical environment of the workplace has an impact on both formal and informal connections inside the company, in the first part of the 20th century. The scientific management method was criticized by studies on the social work environment, which is today seen as the inception of the human relations discipline. Physical space is considered a component of organisational space in organisational studies, but is often just seen as the context for organisational connections that may be observed and researched. The number of research on the interaction between employees and the physical workplace, however, began to increase from the 1990s forward, indicating a desire to match workplace design to employee demands as well. Despite the fact that workplace management is a hot topic, academics and professionals don't all agree on the same concept[5]–[8].

Workplace management is described as the management of all resources needed to design and maintain appropriate, effective, and economical workplace experiences that align to strategic business objectives by the International FM Association (IFMA). encourage individuals to perform at their highest level each and every day, no matter where they are. Similar to how Redlin et al. describe workplace strategy, it is the alignment of the organization's workplace with the business strategy in order to optimize the effectiveness of its people and achieve its strategic business goals. It considers a company's many aspects, including its physical and virtual work environments, culture, operational procedures, technology, and other resources. Workplace management has traditionally been seen as a responsibility of the departments of facility management (FM), corporate real estate management (CREM), or human resource management (HRM). Facilities management (FM) is now formally described as the integration of processes within an Organisation to maintain and develop the agreed services which support and improve the effectiveness of its primary activities in a European Committee for Standardization (CEN).

Corporate real estate management (CREM) has no official definition, but it is typically understood to be the management of a corporation's real estate portfolio by matching the services and portfolio to the needs of the core business with the ultimate goal of increasing the corporations value.

Although there is no one definition for human resource management (HRM), it may be described as the practises and policies that affect workers behaviour, attitudes, and performance.

One of these three departments in most firms is in charge of workplace management. But as Redlin et al. point out, creating a workplace that is efficient for the Organisation and healthy for the workers actually requires coordination across HRM, FM, CREM, as well as finance, marketing, IT, business unit executives, employee advocates, and the C-suite. Therefore, it seems that everyone agrees that workplace management is a cooperative job aimed at bringing the workplace into alignment with the company and the people who use it. The areas of economics, organisational management, architecture, engineering sciences, medical sciences, and psychology all study various facets of workplace. These several research fields offer various management strategies to the workplace, focusing on either people, the environment, or the Organisation. Each of these disciplines focuses on a different facet of how workplace management works and how its many components interact with one another. Academics from these various backgrounds also often work in various universities and departments, and they frequently present their workplace-related research at various

conferences and publish in certain discipline publications. Due to this fragmentation, a great deal of information is lost between disciplines, and many ideas are not included in an overarching theoretical framework or employed in actual workplace management[4], [9], [10].

DISCUSSION

In general, academic disciplines other than workplace management are not thought to exist. Workplace management requires input from many different disciplines, as shown in both this introduction and the first chapter of the first book in this series as a result, it can be described as a complex problem that must be viewed as a whole rather than the sum of its parts. Complex real-world issues may be hampered by fragmented information and need expertise from several areas. specialized reasoning for a certain field. Managing workplaces inside organisations may sometimes be seen as a wicked issue. Wicked issues are difficult to identify and are impacted by a variety of factors. Politics and social conditions that evolve throughout time. Workplace management procedures obviously fall within the four categories of wicked challenges that Kreuter et al. identified:

1. The problems nature is regarded differently based on the viewpoints and prejudices of people who have an interest in it,
2. Multiple stakeholders are involved which disagree about the problem and the optimal solution,
3. It is unclear when the problem is actually solved,
4. What functions in one setting does not always function in another, comparable setting.

A transdisciplinary approach has been shown to be successful in several sectors that deal with complicated real-world challenges. The first volume in this series provides a thorough explanation of the term transdisciplinary. Here is a summary of its main points: To grasp the complex world, one must walk across the disciplines, between the disciplines, and beyond and outside all disciplines. Two key characteristics of transdisciplinary may be identified. It is a new way of seeing the world, to start with. It implies that similar patterns rather than distinct concepts are sought for, leading to a greater comprehension of the world and the complexity of it. The relationship between science and society is a second topic covered by transdisciplinary. It emphasizes demand-driven research on issues facing the actual world. Interdisciplinary research differs from transdisciplinary research in that the knowledge gained can only be really shared with practice when there is a shared process of making sense of it all. Additionally, the focus of this book series and its works is a transdisciplinary one.

Even if there are several additional publications and periodicals devoted to workplace management and design, very few of them engage in a theoretical debate spanning numerous ideas from other fields. Furthermore, there isn't a comprehensive, multidisciplinary framework for workplace management that connects these ideas. This second volume in the series is specifically intended to fill this research gap. This book offers insights into the application of 18 ideas from several academic domains to managing the complex working environment made up of organisations, structures, and workers. Each chapter discusses a single theory or a group of related ideas that is or may be applied to practice and research in the workplace. It discusses the fundamental presumptions of the theory and the research methodology. Additionally, it offers insights into how each theory's expertise might help workplace managers in real-world situations. The last chapter of this book begins the process of integrating these presumptions from 18 theories into a transdisciplinary framework in order to develop a comprehensive theory of workplace management.

This framework was established using data from empirical concept-mapping research that included the authors of this book as respondents. Discipline-specific, multidisciplinary, or interdisciplinary research should not be seen as competing with transdisciplinary research, but rather as a complimentary strategy. According to Jahn et al. (2012), a transdisciplinary

approach advocates for mutual learning between academics, practice, and other stakeholders in order to forge new links between disparate groups and produce new forms of communication and knowledge. Our desire to provide an overarching framework for workplace management that incorporates the many ideas discussed in the various chapters of this book was what inspired us to write the concluding chapter, in particular. The next parts of this introduction chapter will first describe the many disciplines covered in this book and then explain the reasoning for the chapter sequence. Then a quick to avoid terminology misunderstandings across disciplines, a discussion on terminologies will come next. The chapter structure for the other chapters of the book will then be discussed, along with the 35 co-authors of the various chapters.

Selecting theories

The goal of this book is to shed light on the complexity of workplace management and to motivate academics and professionals to seek outside their specialised domains in search of other ideas and concepts that can be used to create a more all-encompassing approach to workplace management. Despite the fact that management science is often seen as being multidisciplinary, workplace management has long been dispersed across many academic fields, particularly the physical vs the psychological environment. Additionally, from a managerial perspective, space design had long since lost its appeal. It is a challenging effort to balance the interests of many stakeholders, but workplace management scholars and practitioners attempt to identify the best methods to manage an organizations resource via the lens of the (physical) work environment. The separation between real and virtual surroundings is becoming hazier, which adds another aspect of time and space that has to be controlled, making the situation even more complicated. Additionally, the significance of human wants and conduct has increased significantly.

Mathematical, social, psychological, and natural disciplines were initially influential on the development of management science. The ideas in this book also cover a range of management-related topics, including service management, performance management, and decision-making. Many of the ideas may be attributed to numerous disciplines, while others originate from more specialised subjects, such building science or ICT. This list of ideas was not intended to be complete due to the multidisciplinary nature of workplace research. The editors are unable to review every prospective contribution because of the editor's inability to control the issue of workplace management and its indefinite bounds. As a result, the selection of ideas was unstructured and unrestricted. The editors asked their networks and online communities such as LinkedIn for hypotheses and writers to go with them. As a consequence, the book offers a fascinating collection of hypotheses from several pertinent domains and sub-fields, including:

1. Management
 - a) Process management.
 - b) Decision-making in management.
 - c) Innovation management.
 - d) Service management.
 - e) Operations management.
- 2 Business
 - a) Human relations.
 - b) Marketing.
 - c) Economics.
- 3 Others
 - a) Systems-thinking.
 - b) Information science.
 - c) Building science.

There is a logical reading sequence in the book, despite the disorganized distribution of the chapter numbers in this list suggesting otherwise. On purpose, the chapters were not grouped by disciplines but rather by the logical flow of their material, starting with the organisational viewpoint and moving on to managing people and/or buildings. The Corporate Real Estate Management (CREM) Maturity model is presented in the books opening pages, along with an explanation of how real estate has evolved to play a more strategic role as a source of competitive advantage. Many people consider this paradigm to be the birth of the CRE and workplace management industries. The model that is provided serves as a wonderful introduction to the chapters that follow, which explore various topics linked to organisational management as a means of bringing people and resources together to achieve the objectives of diverse stakeholders.

The systems-thinking theory chapter that follows presents a philosophical perspective on organisations as comprehensive systems made up of several interrelated system-components and features. The chapter lays emphasis on the need of comprehending the connections between the elements for sound decision-making and effective workplace management. The St. Gallen Management Model, which is discussed in the next chapter, may be thought of as a systems thinking approach that has been incorporated into a framework that takes into account the links between organisations, surroundings, and management. It is a helpful tool for analysing the complexity of organisational environments and for breaking down management tasks into operational, normative, and strategic components. The consideration of various system levels is continued in the chapter on socio-technical systems theory, which also introduces the concept of time in connection to change. It clarifies how corporations affect their built environment at various rates. The resilience chapter then goes into further detail, focusing on systems that go through transitions, underlining the necessity to comprehend the risks and devise countermeasures. An integral part of a resilient Organisation is a longitudinal perspective of vulnerability. Finally, the chapter on strategy as practises asserts that organisational strategy is a social phenomenon that is greatly impacted by human relationships. As a result, not only may workplace solutions be impacted by organisational strategy, but so can organisational strategy.

As one of the fundamental components of management, decision-making is the subject of the following group of chapters. In order to assist decision-makers cope with the complexity of the process, a chapter on Multiple Perspective Strategic Decision Making presents a systemic approach of decision-making. The iterative technique that has been explained may also be useful for creating workplace goals. The importance of organisational strategy and corporate real estate alignment is also shown by effective strategy execution. The chapter on alignment presents models and model elements for real estate-related activities and overarching organisational strategy alignment. The interactions between the various organisational units may have an impact on how well they are aligned. The principal-agent theory chapter then discusses the key agency difficulties that may emerge from the interaction between corporate real estate units and business real estate units. The branding chapter focuses on this issue by highlighting the need for improved communication of how workplace choices may assist core business operations in order to build credibility and establish a respected position both inside the company and with customers. The debate on alignment is concluded in the chapter on the Value Adding Management model, which also introduces the notion that although amenities like offices and meeting spaces may benefit businesses, various values may be prioritized differently depending on the company.

The next chapters go over how changing the physical work environment may enhance workplaces. The section on the Toyota Production System covers the following: problems that CRE managers encounter while addressing building utilization. It encourages less wasteful production and resource overuse, as well as greater system, work, and personnel

alignment. The radical innovation chapter then goes into more detail on how technology fits into the whole workplace and how to combine physical and digital worlds. The many innovation typologies that have been developed suggest that technology may change workplaces in a variety of ways. The last group of chapters discuss issues pertaining to a workplaces end user. They put a strong emphasis on the human aspect and the role of workers as both service providers and users of the workplace. According to the usability chapter, a work environments primary goal should be to facilitate user behaviour and results. The writers stress that user experience is more crucial than a buildings architectural or technological excellence. This is further elaborated in the user-centric design thinking chapter, which explains how workplace management choices may be made better by knowing user's requirements and preferences and taking their comments into account. The hospitality chapter further indicates that the social milieu that surrounds the physical environment and amenities also contributes to the user experience.

Therefore, workplace management should be concerned with giving workers a welcoming working environment. Similar to this, the service management chapter underlines the link between organisational practises and human conduct, arguing that experiences are influenced by both individual views and service staff behaviour. Last but not least, the chapter on organisational socialization describes how to socialize those personnel that service providers have hired outside to assist with FM service tasks. This enables them to blend in, adopt appropriate behavioral patterns, and so provide the client organizations workers and employees' greater service. Despite the books established rhythm, it is not required to read the whole thing from start to finish. You might choose a new or intriguing hypothesis to read about and go from there. One might alternatively begin by reading the last chapter describing the overall structure connecting the ideas before moving on to particular theories later. The meanings of various terminology used in this book are provided in the next section. If you are already acquainted with them, which introduces the writers and the format of the next chapters.

Relevant terminologies

The ideas, models, and frameworks that are used in workplace research are introduced in this book. Although there is no universally accepted definition of a theory in the academic community, often academics define a theory as a means of describing a certain area and explaining how it functions. A theory ought to be able to aid in foretelling or exploring the reasons why certain factors result in particular outcomes. Theory is described as a statement of concepts and their interrelationships that shows how and/or why a phenomenon occurs, taking into account workplace management research at various depths and in various ways. A theory may be classified at the meta-, grand-, mid-range, and micro levels depending on its degree of abstraction, generalizability, and function. Grand theories, on the other hand, depict broader theoretical concepts, whilst metatheories express more of a global perspective on the nature of knowledge. The mid-range theories are what social scientists often consider to be real theories rather than a functioning theory.

Micro-theories describe a specific occurrence within a constrained context and often have limited potential for generalisations. Several academicians contend that They should be referred to as models, for instance, claims that models are theories with a more constrained scope of explanation that are more descriptive than explanatory. Framework is a phrase that is connected. Frameworks don't provide answers; instead, they categories phenomena to characterize them. This is what this book last chapter creates as the foundation for a comprehensive philosophy of workplace management. Several words that are used often in the workplace and in management will be mentioned in the following chapters. Even though some of them have formal definitions, their breadth and points of emphasis might sometimes vary among disciplines, nations, and/or historical periods. This part presents a quick review

of the most important concepts and their interpretations without attempting to choose the best meaning for each phrase in order to set the stage for the next chapters. The terminology used by the writers of the various chapters will vary depending on their individual academic background and expertise.

The phrases workplace and workspace are both used initially. It is crucial to note how differently, interchangeably, and as definitions of various scale levels of the workplace, two words are utilised. The distinctions may be seen in how people define a space and a location, where the physical component of each occurs, and where the borders. Total workplace and organisational space are supplementary terminology used in the area of organisational management to describe built settings and the items and social practises inside them. It is a system of social and physical elements which is experienced by users and providing the context in which they live their work lives. Since the editors did not wish to impose terminology definitions on the authors who come from all the aforementioned disciplines all these words are used differently across the various parts of the book. Also used are broader phrases like work environment or workstation. The terms used in the chapters of this book include both FM and CREM.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, developing an interdisciplinary perspective of workplace management requires critically evaluating ideas from several disciplines. Organisations may get a thorough grasp of the intricate dynamics that define the workplace by embracing ideas from psychology, sociology, organisational behaviour, economics, and other subjects. A more comprehensive and sophisticated approach to workplace management is made possible by the integration of ideas from several disciplines.

It recognises the interconnection of numerous elements and their effects on organisational performance and employee wellbeing, including human behaviour, group dynamics, organisational culture, and external influences.

Organisations may find patterns, trends, and underlying ideas that support efficient workplace management by evaluating theories.

This multidisciplinary knowledge offers a wider viewpoint and helps in developing plans and solutions that take into account the particular difficulties and setting of each organisation. A multidisciplinary approach to workplace management also fosters creativity and innovation. It promotes businesses to experiment with novel concepts, question accepted wisdom, and adjust to changing conditions.

Organisations may take use of different viewpoints and find creative solutions to challenging workplace problems by bridging disciplinary barriers. Furthermore, evidence-based practises are supported by an interdisciplinary knowledge of workplace management.

Organisations may adopt effective strategies and make informed choices by critically analysing ideas and empirical evidence from diverse fields. This improves workplace management programmes efficacy and efficiency. Collaboration and integration across disciplines are essential for gaining the full benefits of an interdisciplinary knowledge of workplace management. Organisations should promote information sharing between experts from many disciplines, develop cross-functional cooperation, and build a culture of interdisciplinary research. Organisations may use the potential of multidisciplinary methods in tackling workplace difficulties by dismantling silos and embracing multiple viewpoints. The evaluation of ideas from many disciplines is, thus, a useful strategy for developing an interdisciplinary knowledge of workplace management. Organisations may use it to foster innovation, negotiate the intricacies of the contemporary workplace, and make choices using solid data. Organisations may create settings that enhance productivity, employee well-being, and long-term organisational success by adopting multidisciplinary viewpoints.

REFERENCES:

- [1] J. E. Booth, A. Shantz, T. M. Glomb, M. K. Duffy, and E. E. Stillwell, "Bad bosses and self-verification: The moderating role of core self-evaluations with trust in workplace management," *Hum. Resour. Manage.*, 2020, doi: 10.1002/hrm.21982.
- [2] H. O. Falola, O. O. Ogueyungbo, and O. O. Ojebola, "Influence of Workplace management initiatives on talent engagement in the Nigerian pharmaceutical industry," *F1000Research*, 2020, doi: 10.12688/f1000research.23851.2.
- [3] H. O. Falola, O. O. Ogueyungbo, and O. O. Ojebola, "Workplace management initiatives and talent engagement in the Nigerian pharmaceutical industry," *F1000Research*, 2020, doi: 10.12688/f1000research.23851.1.
- [4] M. Palvalin, T. van der Voordt, and T. Jylhä, "The impact of workplaces and self-management practices on the productivity of knowledge workers," *J. Facil. Manag.*, 2017, doi: 10.1108/JFM-03-2017-0010.
- [5] S. M. Clancy, M. Stroo, A. Schoenfisch, T. Dabrera, and T. Østbye, "Barriers to Engagement in a Workplace Weight Management Program: A Qualitative Study," *Am. J. Heal. Promot.*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/0890117117696373.
- [6] J. A. Caldwell, J. L. Caldwell, L. A. Thompson, and H. R. Lieberman, "Fatigue and its management in the workplace," *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*. 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.neubiorev.2018.10.024.
- [7] O. Longe, "Impact of Workplace Conflict Management on Organizational Performance: A Case of Nigerian Manufacturing Firm," *J. Manag. Strateg.*, 2015, doi: 10.5430/jms.v6n2p83.
- [8] L. Y. Lin, C. W. Juan, and C. Chu, "The needs and potential solutions for improvement of workplace violence management in emergency departments in Taiwanese hospitals," *J. Acute Med.*, 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.jacme.2013.11.001.
- [9] F. D. Dick, R. A. Graveling, W. Munro, and K. Walker-Bone, "Workplace management of upper limb disorders: A systematic review," *Occupational Medicine*. 2011. doi: 10.1093/occmed/kqq174.
- [10] J. Oakman, W. Macdonald, T. Bartram, T. Keegel, and N. Kinsman, "Workplace risk management practices to prevent musculoskeletal and mental health disorders: What are the gaps?," *Saf. Sci.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.ssci.2017.09.004.

CHAPTER 2

REAL ESTATE MANAGEMENT: MODEL FOR THE MATURITY OF CORPORATE

Dr. Nishant Labhane, Assistant Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-nishantbhimrao@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

In order to maximize their real estate assets, support company goals, and foster a productive work environment, Organisations must practice effective corporate real estate management. This abstract offers a framework to evaluate and enhance the efficacy of real estate management practices inside an Organisations by presenting a model for the maturity of corporate real estate management. The approach is founded on the idea of maturity levels, which stand for various degrees of complexity and growth in corporate real estate management. It describes a progression from a fundamental level of maturity to an elevated degree of excellence, with certain requirements and traits for each stage. The model includes a number of aspects of corporate real estate management, such as sustainability, financial performance, portfolio management, lease administration, space management, and space management. It takes into consideration how real estate is incorporated into overall company strategy and how real estate choices are in line with organizational objectives. Organisations may identify areas for improvement and create objectives for improving their real estate management practices by comparing their present status to the maturity model. The model gives Organisations a road map for creating plans, putting best practices into action, and tracking progress towards reaching greater degrees of maturity.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Corporate, Estate, Model, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

The Corporate Real Estate 2000 project was launched in 1991 by a group from the Industrial Development Research Foundation (IDRF), the research division of the International Development Research Council IDRC (now CoreNet Global). Michael Joroff was the project's leader. Its goals were to put current experiences in a framework that would encourage more learning, discussion, and change in the field, as well as to understand how changes in the business environment affect the need for services by corporate real estate professionals and their suppliers and partners in the industry[1]–[4]. Making the benefits of corporate real estate management evident to higher levels of corporate management was one of the primary obstacles. Dewulf et al. (2000) defined corporate real estate management as the management of a corporation's real estate portfolio by aligning the portfolio and services to the needs of the core business, in order to obtain maximum added value for the business and to optimally contribute to the overall performance of the corporation. They identified added value as a key issue in their definition of corporate real estate management. According to this definition, management refers to the strategic, tactical, and operational management of all real estate assets and associated facilities services. The real estate portfolio includes all of a corporation's buildings and physical workplace(s). Facilities management (FM) and workplace management are hence intimately tied to CREM. Due to the real estate market meltdown in the early 1990s, there was a feeling of urgency that led to a change in

perspective on the function that real estate plays for businesses. Corporate leaders, in particular finance officers, were aware that their companies had more real estate than necessary for their operations, that many of these assets were built for obsolete purposes and procedures, and that many of these assets were located in the inappropriate places for the requirements of the company[5]–[8].

Particularly with the many firms that had bought real estate because of the promised return on investment, calls for reform emerged. A five-stage CREM maturity model was one of the findings provided in 1993 by the CRE 2000 Phase One Research Team (see Figure.1). Similar to prior maturity models created in the early 1970s to organize and manage information and Total Quality Management. This model offers a framework for understanding, developing, and implementing a strategy for change. It does this by using information technology (IT) in a better and more integrated manner. The capacity of an Organisation to consistently increase its effectiveness and efficiency is referred to as maturity. In addition to capital, people, technology, and information, the model considers corporate real estate as a fifth resource of a firm, outlining a route for the growth of CREM. As a result, Joroff et al. would also want to help corporate real estate managers realize that their industry is the business of the business, not real estate.

In addition to the five-stage CRE evolutionary model, the 1993 IDRF report covers topics like designing the CRE unit, providing management with information they can use to make decisions, and integrated workplace strategies to bring together the workforce and support corporate goals. Surprisingly, this research already covered a lot of contemporary topics, including activity-based working, teleworking, retaining a feeling of community, cost savings, productivity, flexibility, contentment, and the added value of CRE. As a result, the IDRF report was clearly in the lead. The CRE 2000 study assisted in a paradigm change in how business executives see the value of the real estate they own or rent, as well as the idea of workplace. When individuals like Franklin Becker and Frank Duffy aggressively investigated where and how people worked in the late 1980s, the mindset regarding today's workplace had already begun to take shape. Their investigation shed light on the significance of alignment between workplace management and design. In turn, this led to a greater understanding of workplace tactics and associated management policies to support certain work practises determined by the nature of the job, who is participating, the instruments utilised, and the culture of both the Organisation and the individual work groups[9]–[12].

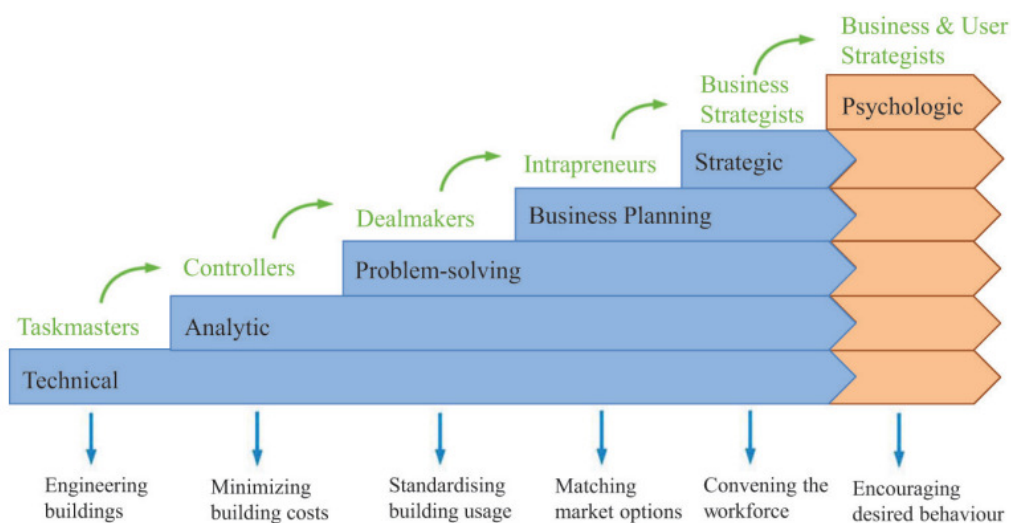


Figure 1: Five-stage real estate evolutionary model of Jor off et al[Library Open].

Phase 2 of the CRE 2000 project was announced, and it would include, among other things, validating and adapting the five-stage model, examining the necessary skills, and creating recommendations on how financial real estate strategies might better complement the life-

cycle position of business units. Instead, it was followed by studies of the workplace and the application of fresh ideas, with an emphasis on data management, working environments, financial and service models, and just-in-time real estate management. The CRE 2010 project used a portion of it. The integration of CRE with IT, HR, and other support activities was a major focus in this study and other CoreNet Global research initiatives [13]–[15].

DISCUSSION

The IDRf report describes a situation in which Organisations are changing into strategically linked business units, in which every function is becoming more concerned with the bottom line, and in which the needs for corporate real estate professionals are significantly increasing. One of the team members, Michael Bell, recognized twelve transitions in this process of change:

1. shifting from a real estate focus to a business focus.
2. Shifting from a transactional to a process focus.
3. Shifting from control to service orientation.
4. Shifting from reactive to proactive.
5. Shifting from decentralized to centralized.
6. Shifting from in-house expertise to collaboration.
7. Inviting service providers to join the team.
8. Shifting from automate to automation, i.e., using information technology. and
9. Shifting from relationships based on people.

According to Jaroff et al. in accordance with these concepts, the traditional role of a corporate real estate manager (Stage 1) has changed to a more strategic role, with a cumulative integration of reducing real estate costs and cost efficiency (Stage 2, controller), standardizing building usage (Stage 3, dealmaker), and matching real estate with business plans of the company. The fifth step entails taking deliberate, proactive action in collaboration with other disciplines, strategically aligning the accommodation with the organization's vision, purpose, and objectives, and involving various stakeholders. Each step builds on the ones before it, and they are cumulative. Table .1 provides a summary of the five phases' key characteristics. In the quest to increase value via real estate, each more challenging level introduces a new position. The first three steps are mostly accomplished via project-level work pertaining to corporate internal requirements. Stage four addresses demand throughout the whole portfolio, paying attention to trends.

Table 1: Main characteristics of the five stages according to Joroff et al.

| | | |
|---|---------------------|---|
| 1 | Taskmaster | Supplies the corporation's need for physical space as requested |
| 2 | Controller | Satisfies senior management's need to better understand and minimise real estate costs |
| 3 | Dealmaker | Solves real estate problems in ways that create financial value for the business units |
| 4 | Intrapreneur | Operates like an internal real estate company, proposing real estate alternatives to the business units that match those of the firm's competitors |
| 5 | Business strategist | Anticipates business trends, monitors and measures their impacts, contributes to the values of the corporation as a whole by focusing on the company's mission rather than focusing only on real estate |

influencing the operational units. The fifth stage, which involves several stakeholders outside of the corporation's more conventional boundaries, focuses on overall firm competitiveness. The advantages received by stakeholders also vary from short to long term, with a rising user orientation and a need for continual learning and change, as the organisational stages go from taskmaster to strategist. The real estate division gets nearer to senior company management with each step. Each step is goal-oriented, connected to a specific goal, and intricately entwined with the real estate finance and information systems. Process, and hence people, are driving the phases more and more. Joroff et al. have covered all five phases in great

detail. According to Lambert et al. who conducted a study of 82 CRE departments and associated business units, each subsequent level comprises additional activities and services (See Table .2). The shift from one stage to the next is not always clear-cut. Additionally, the five phases are not exclusive of one another. In an interview on May 6, 2020, Joroff noted that although the five phases cannot be directly related to the changes observed by Michael Bell, they are nevertheless highly helpful in team conversations on how to manage CRE. In this way, the five phases may have comparable themes on a different level, resulting in some stage-to-stage overlap in terms of traits. In this interview, Joroff also made the case that, given what is known today, he would think about adding a stage called a service aligner between the deal maker and the intrapreneur as well as a stage called a business driver, who not only supports adding value through real estate but also generates business value.

Table 2: Representing the Cumulative increase of activities and services.

| 1. <i>Taskmaster</i> | 2. <i>Controller</i> | 3. <i>Deal maker</i> | 4. <i>Intrapreneur</i> | 5. <i>Business strategist</i> |
|---|--|--|--|---|
| Renovation Planning and management of equipment Maintenance of indoor environment Maintenance schedules Building codes | Maintenance of portfolio Space use Satisfaction Taxation of value of assets Building cost analysis | Acquisition space Lease contracts Lease negotiation Sale, subletting Purchase Space standards Management of large projects Project management tools | Extension and intension Strategic CRE plan Market trends and prices Sale and lease back contracts Pricing methods Benchmark portfolio performance Benchmark CRE unit performance Operating as a profit centre | Joint BU meetings Participation in BUs and corporate strategy planning Impact analysis of capital market Impact analysis of changing legislation Impact analysis of economic and demographic trends City planning Masterplans Match BUs and providers |

Extension with a Sixth Stage

Organisations and their corporate real estate are now undergoing further significant transformations. Due to three concurrent trends, workplace managers must react more forcefully to the requirements and preferences of users, especially knowledge workers. First off, knowledge workers today live with IT-enabled time and location independence, as was predicted in the 1990s activity-based working quickly seem to have become the new standard globally as part of the move towards workplaces as integrated ecological systems, as previously mentioned by Joroff and Becker. Workers are increasingly empowered, permitted, or encouraged to use a variety of workspaces, including open and enclosed workstations, phone booths, lounge areas, project rooms, client or partner offices, home offices, coworking spaces, and mobile workspaces. Individual employees and teams are finding and implementing their own preferred working methods in tandem with the rising variety of options. This trend could be accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic.

Second, the role of organisational behaviour in carrying out company strategy has increased. Desired results heavily rely on workplace behaviours such as how employees cooperate, learn, focus, and rest, especially for knowledge-based firms. As a result, we regularly see corporate programmes that concentrate on behavioural change, which is closely related to workplace reform. For instance, practise and research are paying more attention to the possibility of nudging desirable behaviour via workplace design. The promotion of healthy behaviours at work such as exercise, relaxation, social interaction, and nutrition is a

significant issue that is receiving more attention in relation to sick days, burnout, and long-term employability. In reality, health insurance firms, in particular Medibank in Australia and VGZ in the Netherlands, are pioneers in establishing healthy workplaces and encouraging healthy behaviour.

Thirdly, knowledge workers are becoming more empowered to voice and adhere to their preferences with respect to workplaces and working methods as a result of the worldwide war for talent. Employers may no longer compel workers to labour in unpleasant settings or in unattractive places in this situation. Instead of being a goal, convening the workforce has become necessary. This is shown, among other things, by Leesman's explosive expansion, which has allowed them to assess the workplace satisfaction of more than 550,000 employees across approximately 4,000 buildings. Enhancing the workplace experience has emerged as a major CREM issue. It should be highlighted that the user-centered approach seems to be moving away from a goal-oriented emphasis on particular user requirements and behaviours that are crucial for organisational performance and towards a focus on maximising user happiness. The Real Estate and Workplace Services team at Google changed its motto from *We create environments that make Googlers excel* to *We create environments that make Google excel*, according to Van Eersel, and his team at Netflix has the goal of delivering workplace experiences to move Netflix forward.

In light of these advancements, Boomeranger et al. expanded the CREM maturity model by adding a sixth stage (Figure .1). The sixth stage adds a user-centred approach, while the fifth stage concentrated on adding value in connection to company strategy. A CRE manager, who is both a business & user strategist, develops workplaces that encourage work practises and behavioural change in accordance with both company objectives and individual employee requirements and preferences. To examine, support, and motivate employees varied and shifting needs and behaviour, psychological knowledge is necessary in addition to the abilities required in stages 1 through 5. A person-environment fit strategy has been used in workplace research as a result. A recent change in the related field of facility management (FM) is consistent with the addition of a sixth stage in CREM. The current definition of FM, according to ISO 41011, is an organisational function which integrates people, place, and process within the built environment with the purpose of improving the quality of life of people and the productivity of the core business. This definition reflects the need to take into account both the needs of the business and the end user.

The earlier EN15221-1 definition solely focused on services which support and improve the effectiveness of its primary activities, while quality of life is people-oriented. Jaroff welcomed this expansion of the original model in an online interview on May 6, 2020, while also highlighting that a user-centred focus should be part of all prior models. Phases are also. Workplace strategists who function as company and work practise promoters need to create and sustain agile workplaces and IT supports by working together with business unit executives and the employees themselves to discover and co-develop productive work practises. It is anticipated that the cooperation between CREM, FM, HRM, and IT will be further expanded in the sixth stage as a result of an earlier suggestion to include Corporate Infrastructure Resource Management (CIRM) as a sixth stage to the CREM maturity model. Other academic fields, such as occupational therapists, neurologists, data scientists, and artists, could also become involved as a result of this.

Applicability to Workplace Studies

Despite the fact that the CRE framework was primarily created with CRE portfolios in mind, the basic concepts are also quite transferable to the workplace. Workplace design and management may take on a variety of forms, from a taskmaster, or caretaker, viewpoint that reacts to the need for space and technological upkeep, to a strategic approach. The latter takes into account the requirements and preferences of all parties involved and allows for a flexible

and intelligent workforce that includes younger generations with evolving work habits and time-space preferences. In addition to focusing on the company, clients and users, and society at large, a strategic approach also emphasises value addition. Moesker conducted additional literature research and expert interviews to further operationalise each stage regarding different levels of communication and information, competencies, governance, stakeholder involvement, and added value. This allowed health care organisations to use the five-stage framework to professionalise their CREM function. The use of sensors and other devices to gather and analyse workplace data such as the occupancy rate would be added in the sixth stage, along with psychological knowledge and skills, shared responsibility between management and end users, end-user involvement in design and management processes, and adding value through improved employee satisfaction, health and wellbeing, creativity and innovation, and productivity.

CONCLUSION

Organisations may evaluate and enhance their real estate management practises using the model for the maturity of corporate real estate management. Organisations may improve their strategic decision-making, maximise their real estate assets, and synchronise them with their corporate objectives by moving through the maturity stages. The model emphasises the significance of taking into account various real estate management factors, such as strategy and planning, portfolio management, lease administration, space management, facility management, sustainability, and financial performance. It emphasises how crucial it is for businesses to maintain and develop their skills in corporate real estate management. Organisations may determine their present maturity level and establish targets for development by utilising the maturity model. The model offers organisations a road map for creating plans, putting best practises into action, and tracking their progress towards reaching greater degrees of maturity. The strategy must be implemented with a dedication to ongoing development and a wholistic view of real estate management. Standardised procedures must be established, technology and data analytics must be used, cooperation amongst stakeholders must be encouraged, and personnel training and development must be funded. The maturity model has a wide range of advantages. Organisations may boost operational efficiency, reduce risks, optimise costs, promote transparency and accountability in real estate management, as well as improve decision-making processes. Organisations may respond to shifting market circumstances and improve overall organisational performance by matching their real estate assets with business requirements. Organisations may examine, plan, and improve their real estate management practises using the model for the maturity of corporate real estate management, which offers a systematic and all-encompassing approach. By using this methodology, businesses may maximise the value of their real estate assets, create strategic value, and achieve a competitive advantage.

REFERENCES:

- [1] B. Marona and A. van den Beemt-Tjeerdsma, "Impact of public management approaches on municipal real estate management in Poland and The Netherlands," *Sustain.*, 2018, doi: 10.3390/su10114291.
- [2] E. Ziemba, K. Śmietana, T. Ramian, and K. Kania, "The Concept of a Sustainable Approach to Corporate Real Estate Management," *Real Estate Manag. Valuat.*, 2015, doi: 10.1515/remav-2015-0039.
- [3] E. Maslesa and P. A. Jensen, "Drivers for IWMS implementation in real estate management," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2019, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-08-2018-0025.
- [4] M. Gross and R. Żróbek, "Good governance in some public real estate management systems," *Land use policy*, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.landusepol.2015.08.017.
- [5] V. Del Giudice and P. De Paola, "Real estate economics, management and investments: New perspectives and frontiers," *Buildings*. 2018. doi: 10.3390/buildings8030040.

- [6] R. Grover, M. Soloviev, and V. Zakharchenko, "Corporate real estate management during the transition in Russia," *J. East Eur. Manag. Stud.*, 2007, doi: 10.5771/0949-6181-2007-3-205.
- [7] F. Shafie, W. Z. W. Yusoff, and S. M. D. Al-Edrus, "A framework study of Islamic Real Estate management for property inheritance in Malaysia," *J. Eng. Appl. Sci.*, 2017, doi: 10.3923/jeasci.2017.1710.1714.
- [8] A. Mittal, B. Sharma, and P. Ranjan, "Real Estate Management System based on Blockchain," in *7th IEEE Uttar Pradesh Section International Conference on Electrical, Electronics and Computer Engineering, UPCON 2020*, 2020. doi: 10.1109/UPCON50219.2020.9376540.
- [9] E. Klumbyte and R. Apanaviciene, "Real estate strategic management model for Lithuanian municipalities," *Int. J. Strateg. Prop. Manag.*, 2014, doi: 10.3846/1648715X.2014.942407.
- [10] J. Freybote and K. M. Gibler, "Trust in corporate real estate management outsourcing relationships," *J. Prop. Res.*, 2011, doi: 10.1080/09599916.2011.592207.
- [11] S. Hartmann, P. Linneman, A. Pfnür, and B. Siperstein, "Realizing the value of Corporate Real Estate Management," *Whart. Real Estate Rev.*, 2009.
- [12] I. Puķīte and S. Geipele, "Determining Customer Satisfaction in the Real Estate Management Sector in Riga," *Balt. J. Real Estate Econ. Constr. Manag.*, 2017, doi: 10.1515/bjreecm-2017-0017.
- [13] C. Kühni and B. Christmann, "Corporate real estate management at Aventis," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2004, doi: 10.1108/14630010410812388.
- [14] A. J. Omar, M. L. Mohd Diah, and A. md Yassin, "Exploring financial performance for Corporate Real Estate Management (CREM) in Malaysia," *Soc. Sci.*, 2016.
- [15] T. Ginevičius, A. Kaklauskas, P. Kazokaitis, and J. Alchimovienė, "Recommender System for Real Estate Management," *Veršlas Teor. ir Prakt.*, 2011, doi: 10.3846/btp.2011.26.

CHAPTER 3

A BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUT SYSTEMS THINKING THEORY

Ms. Swati Sharma, Assistant Professor,
Master in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-swatisharma@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The Theory of Systems Thinking offers a useful framework for choosing actions that will enhance the workplace over time. The foundations and ideas of systems thinking are examined in this abstract, which also emphasizes how it may be used in organizational decision-making. Systems thinking acknowledges that businesses are complex systems made up of interdependent parts that interact with one another. It places more emphasis on comprehending the whole system than just concentrating on certain components. Organizations may identify and solve the root causes of workplace challenges by adopting a comprehensive approach using Systems Thinking, which also helps them to make better informed and efficient choices. Systems thinking encourages the study of several linked aspects, such as organizational culture, procedures, communication, and employee well-being, in the context of enhancing the workplace. It pushes businesses to examine the connections and feedback loops between these variables in order to fully comprehend their effects on the workplace. The awareness of unexpected effects is one of the fundamental tenants of systems thinking. It emphasizes how important it is to consider and evaluate how actions and interventions could affect the overall system. This aids businesses in avoiding quick fixes that can have unanticipated negative impacts and implementing sustainable solutions that take the long view.

KEYWORDS:

Components, Decision, Systems, Thinking theory, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

Since its inception in the 17th century, the concept of systems has been studied in practically all academic fields, including physics, biology, and chemistry. Later, it was used to explain phenomena in fields like ecology, engineering, economics, anthropology, geography, sociology, cybernetics, and more. Both a meta-discipline and a meta-language have developed. Check land has written the primary work on systems-thinking using the concept of systems. The concept of systems thinking refers to intentionally ordered thought processes. A worldview known as systems-thinking enables the comprehension of comprehensive systems and has links between its constituent parts, known as system-components. This encompasses both human and non-human system components, comprising physical, natural, social, economic, cultural, and cognitive qualities that are established in the form of larger, connected interactions between the systems users and its non-human technologies or structures. These system-components may be used to solve issues across many disciplines and contribute to features like drivers, results, and feedbacks. Systems thinkings central principle is that of the adaptive whole. A system functions as a whole with its own emergent characteristics, layered structure, and communication and control mechanisms Systems-thinking is based on a number of ideas, each of which may be considered a discipline in and of itself[1]–[4].

1. The Big Picture approach calls for broadening ones vision in order to come up with a more effective solution for instance, during stressful situations, one tends to concentrate on the most immediate, urgent issue and only sees the impacts of changes elsewhere in the system. As a result, taking a step back to consider the wider picture and delve into the problems origin would likely lead to the discovery of a more practical solution.
2. The Long-Term, Short-Term principle contends that the best way to strike a balance in any decision is to look for a course of action that incorporates both short-term such as a week, quarter, or year and long-term such as strategic changes impacting better overall performance of the business options.
3. The Dynamic, Complex, and Interdependent philosophy emphasises that life is messy, things change constantly, and everything is interconnected. In essence, this emphasises how dynamic, intricate, and interrelated the world is. The concept also asserts that linear thinking, simplicity, and structure all have their own limits and that systems should be considered in terms of their interactions with one another as well as with their surrounding environment.
4. The Measurable vs. Non-measurable Data concept encourages companies to value both quantitative measurable, such as sales statistics and expenses and qualitative non-measurable, such as morale and attitude) data and challenges the propensity to see only what can be measured.
5. The We Are Part of the System principle emphasises how decision-makers frequently contribute to their problems for instance, a current problem may be the result of unintended consequences of a decision made or a solution implemented in the past, including decisions made based on certain types of mental assumptions, values, and beliefs.

Systems-thinking is well suited to serve as a vocabulary for talking about intricate systemic problems. Most significantly, it underlines the need for experts to approach the project as a whole as opposed to focusing on their own, more comfortable, isolated system components. Managers and engineers, who come from separate professions with distinct language, duties, and responsibilities, are fundamentally brought together by this. However, because they are familiar with the terminology of their respective fields and come from diverse and compartmentalized backgrounds, the professionals involved in the project may prevent others from viewing it as a system, which may prevent them from engineering or transforming the system for better performance. This exemplifies the basic set of obstacles that must be overcome in order to comprehend and implement systems-thinking in a challenging interdisciplinary project. Prior research on decision-making, which was framed within the context of Complex Adaptive Systems (CAS), greatly advanced our knowledge of the dynamics of decision-making at the organizational level.

According to Choi et al., the primary characteristics of CAS include interaction between the system-components and their environment, as well as adaptive capabilities and responsiveness to feedback. The ability of CAS systems to display traits like self-organization, emergence, and adaptability highlights the strategic value of the CAS framework, which is especially useful for understanding complex issues in the context of Organisations. These characteristics are crucial for examining current connections in general, since the results may guide decision-makers in how to approach a challenge. Socio-technical systems have received a lot of attention in the literature on sustainable transformations. The macro, mesa, and micro-operational levels of the socio-technical system correspond to the three analytical notions of landscape, regimes, and niches, respectively. The socio-technical systems multi-level perspective) offers a framework for analysing institutional system innovations and changes, thereby realizing the potential of transition. To enable successful

transition, institutional innovations and changes in fundamental principles, rules, and procedures occurring at both the inter-organizational and organisational levels must be in context with the individual level. Therefore, including governance in relational and dynamic changes happening at all three levels may considerably aid in the creation of successful, long-lasting transitions[5]–[8].

The developing philosophy of sustainability, which is also significant, mandates that businesses build their workplace plans on the ideas of resource efficiency and resilience, using precious Human resources must be managed and conserved efficiently if an Organisation is to become resilient. In order to move towards a full and effective participation of various organisational system-components in decision-making processes, the theory of sustainability also takes into account the balance between various contextual themes and processes, such as economic activities, ecological constraints, social behaviour and influences, organisational behaviour and growth, cultural influences, and the political environment. This calls for a comprehensive strategy, so systems-thinking that is skilled at evaluating interconnectivity and many mutual interactions between system-components may be practical. However, ideas for using systems thinking in the workplace and evaluations of employee performance are not easily accessible. The Integrated Complex Adaptive and Socio-technical Framing (Figure.1), supported by sustainability science, system innovations, and system-transformations, can therefore be adopted to assess both responses at individual and collective levels, and how these collaboratively impact on sustainable transformation. This is because both CAS and socio-technical systems can contribute to strategic and dynamic decision-making[9]–[11].

DISCUSSION

Each employee has a designated workstation in a setting that is more like a traditional workplace. Traditional workplace practises are unsustainable because they have an adverse effect on people's quality of life or have a cumulative negative environmental impact on the manufacturing process. For instance, energy usage and resource consumption at work increase emissions of greenhouse gases, dangerous air pollutants, chemicals, ozone-depleting substances, and radioactive substances. In turn, they have negative effects on health, including considerably higher temperatures, greater levels of humidity, poor indoor air quality, inadequate lighting, and inadequate ventilation. In order to make work and workplace practises sustainable, technological innovations, inventions, and digital innovations must be adopted. Examples of such innovations include technological software, project management systems, and various communication devices and channels. For instance, technologies like broadband and laptops enable working from anywhere and eliminate the requirement for each individual to have a permanent workstation. Desk ratios are often used in agile workplace ideas, which allow the team to work on-site in the office or off-site even from home. As a result, the organizations environmental impact and sustainability are affected, and most crucially, energy use per employee is decreased.

There have been several requests over the last three decades to increase resource efficiency and sustainability in the built environment's development activities, notably in workplaces. Resource efficiency and sustainability policies are advocated on a variety of scales, including the global, national, regional, and municipal levels as well as the regional level in Europe. This will help the ecosystem function better while maintaining economic development. Increased resource utilization is still a new issue, however.

Resource utilization must be reduced completely. Its vital to remember, however, that just increasing resource efficiency is insufficient. Despite improvements in material efficiency, the worlds use of materials and the associated effects of extraction, processing, and disposal are on the rise. Consumption must be sustainable as a result. This ought to be principally by

human action with attempts to improve at the organisational and social levels, combined with ecological consistency and reaching sufficiency in performance levels.

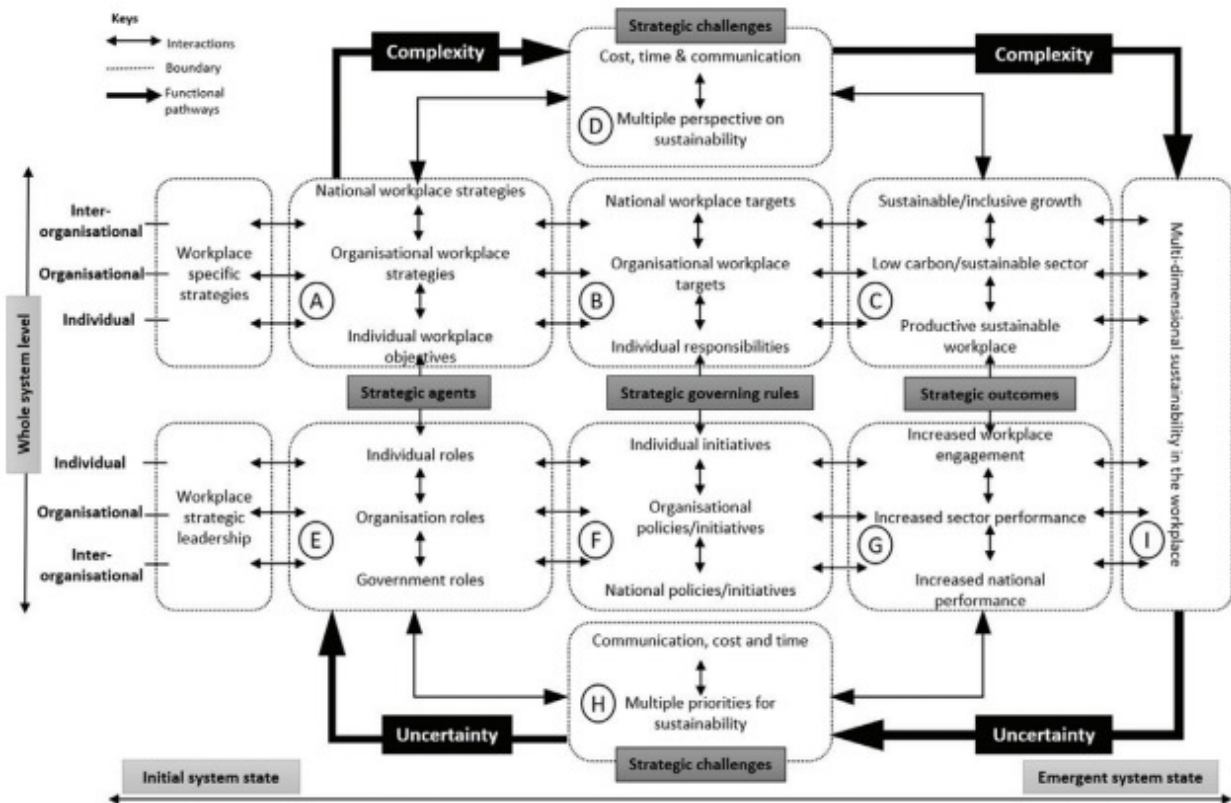


Figure 1: Integrated complex adaptive and socio-technical framing[Library Open].

The driving, decision-making, and assessment processes are the three primary components of the integrated complex adaptive and socio-technical framework (see Figure .1). Boxes A, B, C, and D depict non-human system components, Boxes E, F, G, and H depict human system components, and Box I depict the outcomes of interconnected human and non-human system components. The driving is done by the strategic systems-agents (Boxes A and E), the decision-making is done on the basis of the strategic governing rules (Boxes B and F), and the evaluation is done by other strategic processes like interactions double-headed arrows, feedbacks (Boxes D and H), and inputs and outputs single headed arrow). The strategic outcomes of these mechanisms rely on the efficient coordination of all of them while having each system component operational in them. This is due to the interdependence of these mechanisms. For instance, under the effect or pressure of strategic governing norms, strategic systems-agents would behave and contribute to the strategic outputs/objectives.

Positive strategic outputs might increase the systems overall capacity to accomplish its goals (system-objectives) and lessen uncertainty in its functional pathways. Similar to positive strategic outputs, negative strategic outputs might undermine the systems overall capacity to attain system-objectives and raise system uncertainty. In the form of challenges, these uncertainties are communicated to or fed back to the strategic system agent. The complexity of the functional pathways is increased by these difficulties. For the system to achieve the required goals in this case, governing rules may need to be evaluated and changed. Therefore, repeated trips to these processes might improve abilities to cope with difficulties and expand understanding of the systems complexity. This paradigm primarily incorporates systems-thinking traits and emphasises the necessity for multi-level system components to cooperate over an extended period of time in order to provide multidimensional sustainability.

In particular, they relate to enhancing organisational productivity energy efficiency, and sustainability at all three levels. The goals of organisational performance are associated with the best practises at inter-organizational level international level or sectoral association level, such as enabling competitiveness and market, attracting talent, and conveying brand value. A variety of strategic governing principles are shown in Boxes B and F, which outline strategic interventions and their goals. Strategic systems agents are given instructions by strategic governing rules on how to operate in order to deliver on productivity (performance), energy efficiency, and sustainability. As opposed to the typical top-down form of governing-rules, emerging governing-rules might be both top-down and bottom-up. For instance, agile workplace practises at the corporate and individual levels can include working from home. This is related to repurposing the time and resources used for travel and space occupancy to adopt more productivity, social, and well-being measures, which is particularly helpful for individuals juggling various responsibilities at home and at work. Without requiring firms to invest in more areas, it may improve wellbeing and draw in young talent at the individual level.

The consequences of the interactions between the governing rules and the systems agents are shown in boxes C and G. Changes in organisational performance levels, such as productivity, health and well-being, energy usage, and energy security, make the results clear. The strategic problems in Boxes D and H limit the achievement of strategic results; for instance, the most significant strategic barrier may be cost. Other strategic difficulties could relate to prioritization, funding/grants, and communication. Uncertainties are brought on by these obstacles at every level. Through dialogue, education, and training, they must be addressed and ultimately ingrained into the culture. A strategic workplace leader plays a crucial role. Senior managements strategic leadership increases the likelihood that workplace initiatives will be successful nevertheless, senior coworkers may sometimes be averse to such change. To ensure that employees have a welcoming workplace environment, efforts should be made to adopt the principles of workplace strategies, organisational productivity, employee health and well-being, energy efficiency, and sustainability.

Systems-thinking theory was used by Lavandera et al. to study workplace practises in Hong Kong. This exploratory study looked at the organisational motivations for and personal preferences for an agile workplace. The research evaluated individual and group results of the agile workplace as well as workplace competency. It was discovered that some of the main forces for the adoption of agile workplace techniques at the corporate level were the changing nature of work, productivity, and employee wellbeing. On the other hand, it was discovered that preferences at the individual level were favorably correlated with the degree of exposure to agile workplaces. This introduction research highlighted the need for additional study to examine these subjects in more depth while offering an early assessment of workplace practises, habits, and trends in Asian locations like Hong Kong.

Limitations

A number of systems-thinking implications, such as understanding a holistic system or adaptive whole and having links between system-components, are favorable for sustained transformative processes. The characteristics of systems thinking, such as drivers, outputs, and feedbacks, are relevant to issues in many fields and have the power to alter theoretical frameworks for long-lasting changes. Systems-thinking can reveal a number of advantages for sustainable workplace transformations, such as understanding multiple stakeholder perspectives, gaining a deeper understanding of mutual influences and interactions, impacting desired outcomes like productivity and energy efficiency, and providing a way to achieve multidimensional sustainability by coordinating different levels: individual, organisational, and inter-organizational levels that are interconnected. However, the application of systems-thinking in the workplace setting now only provides an examination and observations of

workplace methods and adjustments, missing out on the benefits mentioned previously. This is due to systems-thinking's inability to comprehend the language and conversation in the workplace. These difficulties highlight the limited perspective the top management team or managers have for their workplace or business.

There is a need to go beyond the immediate concerns of the internal environment and the external environment for systems-thinking to have a wider influence. A common language should be created among the stakeholders, and the ideas of systems-thinking should be communicated via various channels so that everyone interested in the transformation may readily participate and contribute to its discussion. Employees should conceptualize this notion and make it workable at the same time, via their corporate policies or workplace goals. This might be accomplished by transforming the company into a learning Organisation and researching the relationships between practice, learning, and transformation. external advice, career-related professional development initiatives, or it could be beneficial to employ masters' programmes that support the ideas behind systems thinking or other comparable approaches to improve comprehension and implementation. Future research may concentrate on offering a thorough knowledge of each new strategic advantage related to people management practises and organisational design, such as promoting a high-performance culture, offering flexibility, quick decision-making, and execution of strategic objectives.

CONCLUSION

The Theory of Systems Thinking offers a potent method for making choices that will sustainably enhance the workplace. Organisations may address workplace challenges at their underlying causes and effect long-lasting positive change by adopting a holistic view and taking into account the interconnection of diverse elements. Instead, then concentrating on specific issues or isolated sections, systems thinking places an emphasis on comprehending the whole system.

With a better knowledge of how various components interact, organisations are able to discover the connections, feedback loops, and interdependencies within the workplace system. Systems thinking enables organisations to have a long-term perspective and think about the larger repercussions of their actions by recognising the possibility of unintended consequences. This aids in avoiding hasty fixes or solutions that could resolve one issue but lead to the development of additional ones. Instead, businesses may conduct sustainable initiatives that take into account employee welfare, business objectives, and a wider social and environmental context.

Additionally, Systems Thinking emphasises teamwork and involvement since it understands that many viewpoints and areas of expertise are crucial for comprehending complicated issues and coming up with workable solutions. Participating stakeholders from all levels and departments encourages a feeling of ownership and group accountability, which makes it easier to execute workplace reforms. Systems thinking also encourages ongoing learning and adaptability. Monitoring the results of choices, getting feedback, and using this data to improve strategy and tactics are all options open to organisations. This iterative method enables continuous development, guaranteeing that the workplace stays in line with the objectives of the organisation and its changing demands. Organisations may design workplaces that are not just effective and productive, but also sustainable and friendly to workers well-being by using the systems thinking concepts. Organisations may solve workplace difficulties in a complete and integrated way according to the Theory of Systems Thinking's useful framework for decision-making. Organisations may embrace systems thinking to make informed choices, put sustainable interventions into place, encourage cooperation, and constantly enhance the working environment. This strategy produces beneficial results for both the organisation and the people, promoting long-term success and a more sustainable workplace.

REFERENCES:

- [1] R. L. Flood, "Liberating Systems Theory: Toward Critical Systems Thinking," *Hum. Relations*, 1990, doi: 10.1177/001872679004300104.
- [2] R. Goede, "The descriptive properties of prescriptive theories: an application of systems thinking in data warehousing," *J. Transdiscipl. Res. South. Africa*, 2012, doi: 10.4102/td.v8i2.233.
- [3] P. Checkland, "Systems Theory and Management Thinking," *Am. Behav. Sci.*, 1994, doi: 10.1177/0002764294038001007.
- [4] S. H. Young and S.-F. Wang, "Measuring the Learning of Systems Thinking: Theory and Method," *Proceedings of the 1996 International System Dynamics Conference*. 1996.
- [5] T. T. Irijanto, M. A. S. Zaidi, A. G. Ismail, and Noraziah Che Arshad, "Al Ghazali's Thoughts of Economic Growth Theory, A Contribution with System Thinking," *Sci. J. PPI-UKM*, 2015.
- [6] D. J. Carr-Chellman and A. Carr-Chellman, "Integrating Systems: the History of Systems from von Bertalanffy to Profound Learning," *TechTrends*, 2020, doi: 10.1007/s11528-020-00540-1.
- [7] R. Renger, J. Foltysova, J. Renger, and W. Booze, "Defining Systems to Evaluate System Efficiency and Effectiveness," *Eval. J. Australas.*, 2017, doi: 10.1177/1035719X1701700302.
- [8] J. Barton, M. Emery, R. L. Flood, J. W. Selsky, and E. Wolstenholme, "A maturing of systems thinking? Evidence from three perspectives," *Systemic Practice and Action Research*. 2004. doi: 10.1023/B:SPAA.0000013419.99623.f0.
- [9] M. van der Bijl-Brouwer and B. Malcolm, "Systemic Design Principles in Social Innovation: A Study of Expert Practices and Design Rationales," *She Ji*, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.sheji.2020.06.001.
- [10] D. H. Peters, "The application of systems thinking in health: Why use systems thinking?," *Health Research Policy and Systems*. 2014. doi: 10.1186/1478-4505-12-51.
- [11] L. O. Cezarino, M. F. R. Alves, A. C. F. Caldana, and L. B. Liboni, "Dynamic Capabilities for Sustainability: Revealing the Systemic Key Factors," *Syst. Pract. Action Res.*, 2019, doi: 10.1007/s11213-018-9453-z.

CHAPTER 4

ST. GALLEN MODEL:WORKPLACE MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

Ms. Neha Saxena, Assistant Professor,
Masters in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-nehasinha@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

A systemic-constructivist strategy that offers a thorough framework for workplace management and Organisation is the Management Model of St. Gallen. The main ideas and principles of the St. Gallen Management Model are examined in this abstract along with how it may be used to promote organisational performance and flexibility.

The St. Gallen Management Model places a strong emphasis on the interaction between an organizations external environment and itself, acknowledging that businesses are open systems that engage with a variety of stakeholders and are impacted by shifting market forces.

It encourages an all-encompassing perspective of organisations, seeing their goals, plans, organisational structure, operational procedures, and workforce as linked factors that affect how well they operate. The idea of organisational identity, which includes the organizations purpose, values, and culture, is essential to the St. Gallen Management Model.

It emphasises how crucial it is to match organisational identity with its surroundings, constituents, and strategic objectives. An Organisation may develop a strong sense of purpose and direction, driving decision-making and forming its connections with workers, clients, and other stakeholders, by recognizing and fostering its identity. The approach also highlights the significance of knowledge generation and organisational learning. It urges businesses to adopt a constructivist mindset in order to acknowledge how knowledge is socially formed and how it develops via communication and interaction. This encourages an environment of constant learning, innovation, and adaptation, allowing businesses to efficiently adjust to shifting market dynamics and changing client wants.

KEYWORDS:

Environment, Management, Organisations, Processes, Value.

INTRODUCTION

The Hans Ulrich and Walter Krieg (1972) writings, which established an integrated management theory, serve as the foundation for the St. Gallen Management Model (SGMM). Knut Bleicher, Ulrichs replacement at the University of St. Gallen, continued to improve the model throughout the next decades. The original version of the book, titled *Das Konzept Integrities Management the Concept of Integrated Management Visions, Missions, and Programmes*, was released in 1991. Since then, the idea and the book have become staples of management literature in German-speaking nations. Now, 30 years later, the 10th edition will be released. The concepts focus has been on the holistic understanding and integrative treatment of complex management challenges in their unique and differentiated contexts. The St. Gallen method is a systems-oriented framework for the primary responsibilities of managers and their total corporate responsibility, as opposed to discrete business administration sub-disciplines, such as production, marketing, and accounting. Unfortunately, up until recently, the overwhelming majority of German-speaking scholars papers in the

social and economic sciences were only available in that language, which significantly hampered the widespread diffusion of many concepts and conclusions[1]–[4].

This is true for the majority of publications from German-speaking nations and the SGMM that deal with integrative management-related concerns. A ground-breaking English-language essay by Bleicher did, however, make it into the global scholarly community. It has been and continues to be used as the foundation for writings on governance, ethics, and business principles, as well as stakeholder management, competitive advantage, innovation management, supply chain management, change management, sustainability management, and performance management. Higher efficiency, better performance, better protection of people and the environment, and especially increased capability to deliver consistent and improved services and products, thereby increasing value to customers and all other stakeholders are some advantages of well-defined management systems, according to ISO (ISO, 2020). The MSS may function as one cohesive management system since they all adhere to the same High-Level Structure[5]–[8].

DISCUSSION

The issue of whether humans will be able to manage the forces at play in the 1990s is raised by the expanding complexity of the business environment and the faster rate of change in systems, technologies, and markets, according to Bleicher, who expressed this in the abstract. The issue is pertinent to our institutions as well as to our social and natural environments. System controllability seems to be reaching its limit. Thus, a paradigm shift in organisational management that seeks novel solutions to management issues in challenging times seems to be under way. He wanted to discuss how, in view of a rapidly changing environment, the ability of systems for survival and development can be ensured and enhanced. This was the goal of his essay and the concepts that formed the basis of the SGMM. The SGMM, a systemic-constructionist approach to integrative management, focuses on providing a comprehensive picture of complex organisations, their surroundings, stakeholders, value creation, processes, management, and the interaction of all aspects. Purposeful growth may be started and carried out based on this and by facilitating a cooperative interchange of viewpoints. As a consequence, a bigger and better outcome will be obtained in place of only improving individual cause-and-effect relationships[9]–[12].

The SGMM doesn't provide any detailed instructions on what to do. As a framework, it prefers to model an applied or projected business idea with its core processes in order to provide the desired results. It is important to emphasize that normative, strategic, operational, and dynamic factors are all taken into account. The end product, the particular model, is a condensed illustration of the activities, roles, and interactions involved in value generation. These aid in generating money, securing competitive advantage, and enhancing consumer value. A model like this makes it easier to describe, analyse, and create anything holistically, particularly if it includes, as the SGMM recommends, all important contexts and expectations political and legal, economic, socio-cultural, technical, and ecological.

They are included because doing so makes complexity apparent, which is a need for managing it. Together with the SGMM dimensions, an integrated model ensures that all factors critical to success are considered in full, with clearly defined, structured components. Additionally, a clear and visual explanation of the value-generating components and how they interact paves the way for collaborative thought, design, and creation of organization-specific management practises. Enabling collaboration is another key to successfully managing complexity because of the multifaceted nature of management and its manifold prerequisites. Complexity is the result of many interconnected and dynamic factors. Topics call for a mix of generalists and experts. Both of them often speak in separate disciplinary tongues, as do the many other stakeholders that must be taken into account. Communication

and cooperation amongst all of these players are considerably facilitated by shared terminologies and comprehension of organisational, procedural, and managerial factors.

Essentials of the Model

The SGMM is a reference framework for system-oriented management that tackles the ongoing design and growth of connections between the following:

1. An Organisation business, public, governmental, pluralistic, NPO/NGO.
2. Its unique, dynamic environment, which Registers & Grand describe as the space of possibilities and expectations specifically relevant to an Organisation.
3. The managerial emphasis is on the consequent value generation.

According to the system-oriented perspective, every Organisation is seen as a complex system that adds unique value to a particular setting. According to Registers & Grand, the Organisation is a system, a separate entity that delimits itself from an environment and consists of diverse elements. Depending on the perspective, the Organisation is simultaneously a social, economic, technological, legal, and human structure. It comprises relevant components, such as acts, choices, and connections, as well as resources, pricing, and incentives, as well as rights, duties, and rules, to mention just a few. Due to their intricate connections and interdependence with one another and with their surroundings and context, these components interact in ways that are difficult to completely comprehend.

Therefore, they cannot be foreseen but can only be modified by structuring forces and by various development modes. Accordingly, the SGMM is made up of the following components, which Rüegg-Stürm and Grand refer to as model categories and which deal with the fundamental job and design sectors of management practice.

1. Environmental Spheres.
2. Stakeholders.
3. Interaction Issues.
4. Processes.
5. Structuring Forces.
6. Development Modes.

While categories 4-6 provide an inside perspective, categories 1-3 primarily deal with the social, economic, and ecological outside of the Organisation. Environmental Spheres relate to the organisational environments that are pertinent to the organization and serve as its primary points of reference for the production of organisational value. Although societal conditions are the most complete, it is nevertheless important to regularly monitor and assess changes in nature, technology, and the economy as well as how they affect these areas (Figure 1). While it was formerly widely believed that an organization could little affect its surroundings, increasing numbers of instances such as Apple, Facebook, and Google demonstrate that companies and the appropriate environmental spheres are co-evolving.

Management must take into account this reflective exchange. Stakeholders are people, groups, or Organisations that have an impact on or influence organizations.

Any organization's goal is to create value for at least some of its stakeholders. A concept called management as a social function substitutes ownership-only leadership, according to Ulrich et al.

It is referred to as From Ownership Management to Stakeholder Management who noted an essential shift at an early stage. The needs, interests, and preferences of stakeholders a collection of objectives rather than a simple goal hierarchy is frequently extremely diverse and even at odds with one another. As a result, the perceived value creation for different stakeholder groups varies greatly, and management must establish normatively acceptable rules and techniques for prioritization.

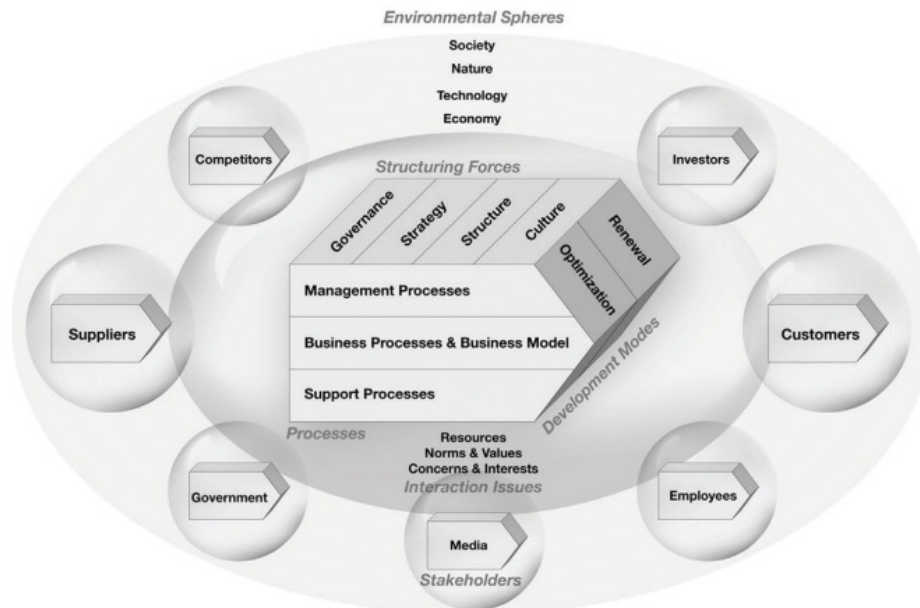


Figure1: The New St. Gallen Management Model [Library Open.]

The pertinent points and subjects of communication between an Organisation and its stakeholders are known as Interaction Issues. At first sight, conversations seem to be mostly about resources/tradeable items and their distribution, but often the most crucial problems are concerns, interests, and values that need to be clarified and adjusted. These are known as thematic points of reference. Instead of being considered interaction issues in the initial iteration of the SGMM, norms and values were referred to as the Integrating Power in the Management Philosophy. The way that a company's leaders think and act is referred to as its management philosophy. Those are impacted by the fundamental beliefs, attitudes, and values of the CEOs that come from them from moral or religious beliefs, or from earlier experiences. In order to adapt an Organisation to a dynamic environment, Bleicher believed that balancing a comforting managerial stance against innovation openness. The SGMM is centred on several Processes, their roles, and how they connect to one another. This is also what most people know about the SGMM. A particular Organisation is distinguished by its own system of processes, with processes being the organizations standard operating procedures that direct daily operations.

Owning and exploiting efficient processes of all sorts and at all levels is crucial to an organization's success. According to the concept, business processes, support processes, and management processes may be distinguished (Figure .2). The business processes are at the center because they are those that are most closely related to the market, customers, clients, and the development of organisational value. As a result, they are sometimes referred to as the primary activities or core processes. These include finding new customers and keeping them, branding, manufacturing and delivery, and innovation/R&D. Business processes can only be carried out effectively, efficiently, and value-creatingly with the support of infrastructure e.g., ICT, real estate, and facilities and support processes often referred to as secondary processes, such as procurement, HR, and legal advice. Value creation often calls for specialization and the division of labour, which necessitates collaboration, cooperation, and communication in order to accomplish predetermined goals. Thus, management procedures that analyses, plan, align, and organize the Organisation and its processes are necessary for both business and support operations. Normative, Strategic, and operational management levels are distinctions made in management processes due to their vastly diverse functions. The normative level provides direction; the strategic level spots potential and grows the company, its employees, and

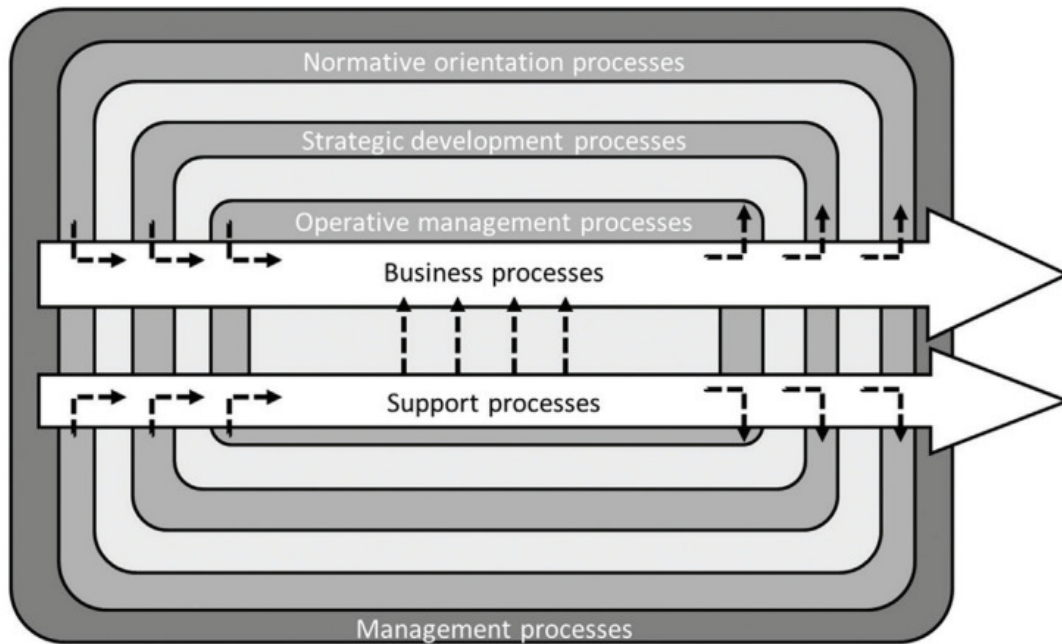


Figure 2: Representing the Process categories and architecture [Library Open].

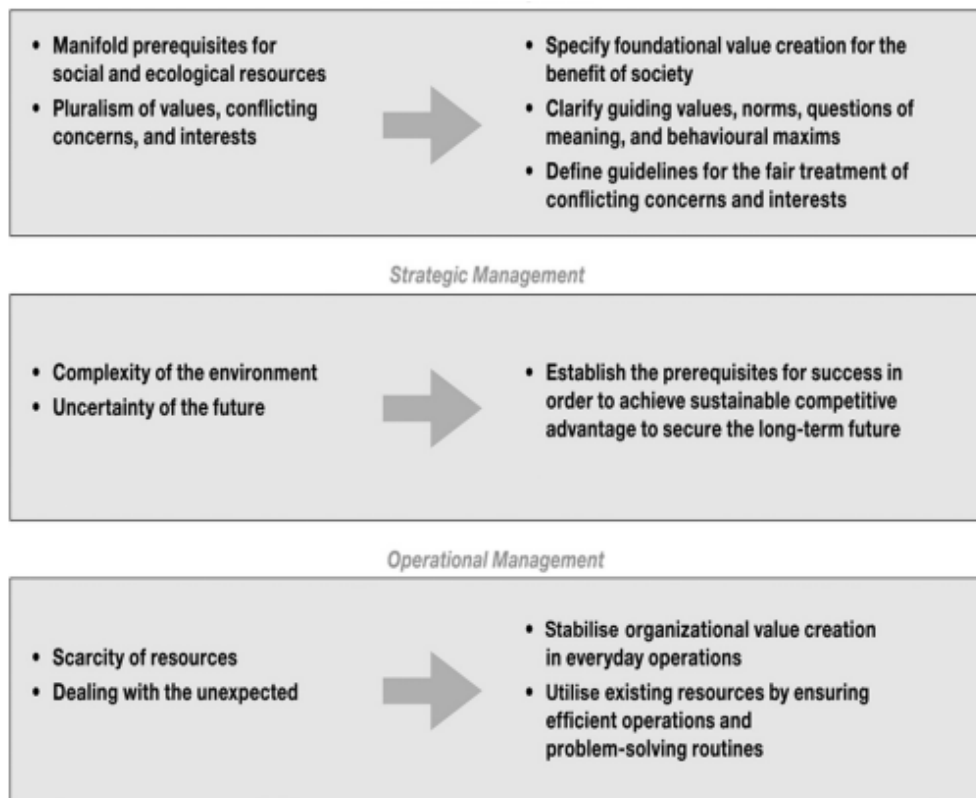


Figure 3: Representing the strategic and operational management [Library Open].

And procedures; the operational level oversees each person and procedure on a daily basis, taking care of their financial and quality concerns. (Figure. 3). Normative management addresses general business objectives and defines the constitutive values, principles, standards, and rules that shape an organization’s identity and establish the creative framework for business actions. As a result, it denotes the direction. To both internal and external stakeholders, all organisational operations and member conduct must be justified and legitimized in this manner. Developing and directing the organization to attain strategic

advantage and the organizations overall objectives while following to established standards, principles, and regulations is the responsibility of strategic management. This will be accomplished by initiatives and projects pertaining to the basic design and purpose of organisational structures and management systems, as well as through staff behaviour and problem-solving skills influenced by learning and corporate culture. The actual execution of normative and strategic duties as well as individual people management are the realms of operational management. In order to improve performance, finances, and information, operational management must put the activities demanded by the two superordinate dimensions into practice.

CONCLUSION

A useful systemic-constructivist approach to workplace management and organisation is offered by the St. Gallen Management Model. This model highlights how different organisational components are interrelated and emphasises how crucial it is to take the external environment into account when making decisions. The role of organisational identity and culture in influencing the workplace is highlighted by the St. Gallen Management Model. Organisations may establish a unified and purpose-driven work environment that encourages employee engagement and productivity by coordinating their organisational values, purpose, and strategy. The approach also highlights the significance of knowledge generation and organisational learning. It acknowledges that knowledge is not fixed but rather develops via conversation and engagement within the organisation. Organisations are better able to respond to changing conditions and enhance their overall performance by developing a culture of continual learning and innovation. Additionally highlighting the value of adaptable organisational structures and procedures is the St. Gallen Management Model. In order to satisfy the changing needs of the business environment, it promotes the use of agile and adaptable practises by organisations. Organisations may improve efficiency, cooperation, and overall effectiveness by matching structure and procedures with strategic goals. The St. Gallen Management Model also emphasises cooperation and stakeholder involvement. It acknowledges the value of including a range of viewpoints and knowledge in decision-making processes. Organisations may take advantage of collective knowledge and make better choices by encouraging cooperation and developing solid connections with stakeholders. Overall, the Management Model of St. Gallen provides a thorough framework for organising and managing the workplace. Organisations may develop productive and sustainable work environments that enhance employee wellbeing, organisational performance, and adaptation to changing conditions by using a systemic-constructivist approach. Organisations may boost organisational performance, enhance workplace practises, and achieve long-term success in today's complicated business environment by putting the ideas and concepts of the St. Gallen Management Model into practise.

REFERENCES:

- [1] K. Klimek, "The implementation of 'the st. Gallen model for destination management (sgdm)' in the polish carpathians: A case study of six bieszczady communes," *Turyzm/Tourism*, 2019, doi: 10.18778/0867-5856.29.2.06.
- [2] O. Gassmann, K. Frankenberger, and M. Csik, "Revolutionizing the Business Model - St. Gallen Business Model Navigator," *Manag. Fuzzy Front End Innov.*, 2014.
- [3] M. Grabowska, "Business Models of High-Growth Enterprises in the St. Gallen Business Model Navigator Conception," *Education Excellence And Innovation Management: A 2025 Vision To Sustain Economic Development During Global Challenges*. 2020.
- [4] A. Kämpf-Dern, "St. Gallen Management Model," in *A Handbook of Management Theories and Models for Office Environments and Services*, 2021. doi: 10.1201/9781003128786-4.

- [5] P. Beritelli, G. Crescini, S. Reinhold, and V. Schanderl, "How Flow-Based Destination Management Blends Theory and Method for Practical Impact," in *Tourism, Hospitality and Event Management*, 2019. doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-16981-7_17.
- [6] B. R. Bodenmann and K. W. Axhausen, "Destination choice for relocating firms: A discrete choice model for the St. Gallen region, Switzerland," *Pap. Reg. Sci.*, 2012, doi: 10.1111/j.1435-5957.2011.00389.x.
- [7] V. C. Nguyen *et al.*, "Application of St Gallen Categories in Predicting Survival for Patients With Breast Cancer in Vietnam," *Cancer Control*, 2019, doi: 10.1177/1073274819862794.
- [8] V. Hoyer and K. Stanoevska-Slabeva, "Towards a reference model for grassroots enterprise mashup environments," in *17th European Conference on Information Systems, ECIS 2009*, 2009.
- [9] C. Schroth and B. Schmid, "A modular reference architecture framework for electronic cross-organizational interoperation," in *Lecture Notes in Computer Science (including subseries Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence and Lecture Notes in Bioinformatics)*, 2008. doi: 10.1007/978-3-540-85204-9_26.
- [10] O. Gassmann, K. Frankenberger, M. Csik, O. Gassmann, K. Frankenberger, and M. Csik, *Geschäftsmodelle entwickeln- 55 innovative Konzepte mit dem St. Galler Business Model Navigator*. 2013.
- [11] M. Schwaninger, "System theory and cybernetics," *Kybernetes*, 2001, doi: 10.1108/eum0000000006551.
- [12] J. Rüegg-Stürm, *The new St. Gallen management model: Basic categories of an approach to integrated management*. 2004. doi: 10.1057/9780230505162.

CHAPTER 5

REAL ESTATE MANAGEMENT LEVELS: PROCEDURES, AND ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURES

Dr. Vijayarangam Gajapathy, Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-vgajapathy@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

To guarantee effective and economical use of real estate assets, managing real estate requires a variety of management tiers, tailored processes, unique perspectives, and organisational structures. The main elements of management levels, practises, views, and organisational structures in real estate are explored. Strategic, tactical, and operational management levels are all included in real estate. The top management establishes the overall real estate objectives and harmonises them with the organisational strategic objectives at the strategic level. Middle management is in charge of converting the strategic goals into workable plans and policies at the tactical level. The operational level is concerned with carrying out routine tasks including facility management, leasing, and property upkeep. To guarantee successful management, procedures in real estate include a wide range of processes and practises. These involve purchasing real estate, negotiating leases, maintaining facilities, designing spaces, managing finances, and implementing sustainability programmes. Standardizing processes may improve resource allocation, decision-making, and operational efficiency. The administration of business real estate requires a variety of perspectives. These opinions could come from executives, financial, operational, legal, and facilities teams, among other stakeholders. Every stakeholder contributes special knowledge and interests that have an impact on how decisions are made. The inclusion of many points of view promotes teamwork, allows for thorough problem-solving, and aids in the making of informed decisions.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Corporate, Estate, Organisational, Structures.

INTRODUCTION

Since they are relatively new fields, real estate and facilities management have long lacked appropriate terms. Therefore, in the works of Kampf-Dern and Pfnür and Kämpf-Dern, key concepts from the SGMM were converted into real estate and its administration. This is notably true for the dimension processes, which distinguishes between operational, strategic, and normative real estate management processes. It also holds true for the management levels. In addition, the stakeholders and environmental spheres components of real estate were discussed. Parts of these terminological definitions that were required as a basis for further real estate management and workplace research are shown in Figure. 1. The St. Gallen management concept states that although management procedures with varied functional functions have been distinguished, they have also been modified to reflect the terminology used in real estate. Real estate investment management, or REIM, is the standard management level. Real estate portfolio management REPM and real estate asset management REAM are the two components of the strategic management level for real estate portfolios and individual assets, respectively. Property Management PrM for investment real estate and Operative Real[1]–[4].

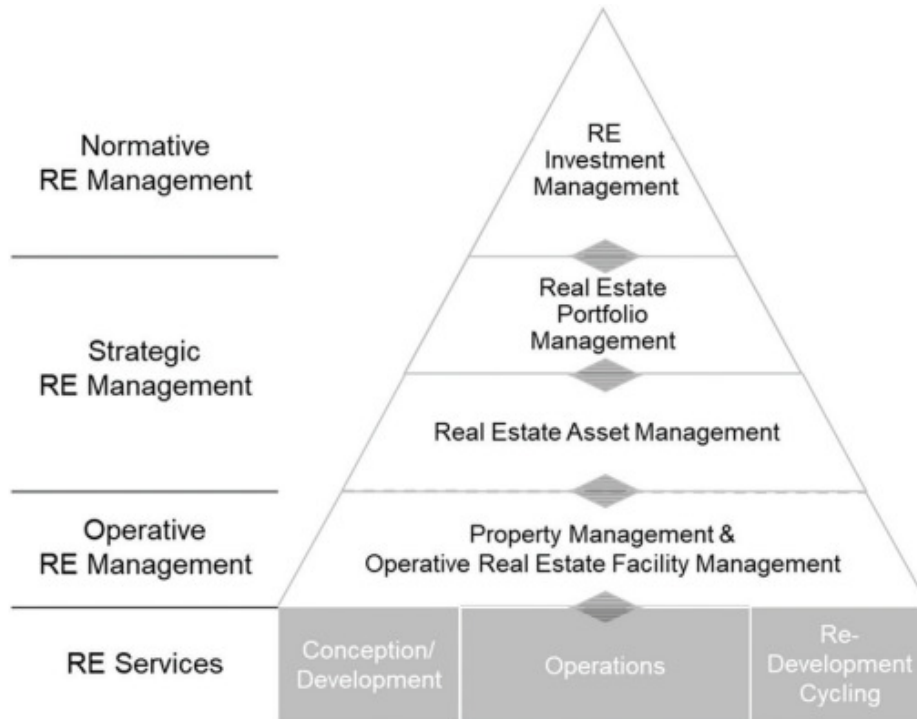


Figure 1: Real estate management and core processes [Library Open].

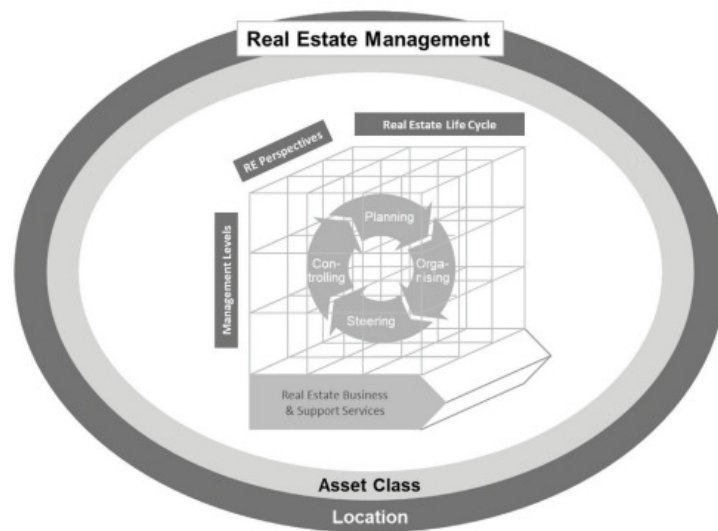


Figure 2: Representing the Real estate management basic concept [Library Open].

Estate Facility Management OREFM for corporations and the general public are both at the operational management level. Real estate management procedures plan, arrange, direct, and control real estate business and real estate support processes referred to as real estate services or RES below across the whole real estate life cycle. Additional information and the conversion of the current RE management and service standards to the SGMM model dimensions are not presented here. Adds more categories Perspectives investor, user, producer, which represent the majority of pertinent stakeholders and include their interests and aims, were introduced to the basic organization in place of development modes. Shown in Figure. 2. Asset classifications such as whether the real estate belongs to Office or Logistics and location have a direct influence on environmental spheres in real estate. The bulk of real estate research could be found inside this real estate adapted, integrated management concept because of these thorough representations ability to zoom in and out, which offered clarity to the communication of real estate management responsibilities[5]–[8].

DISCUSSION

Larger businesses with a portfolio of locations must decide how to organize their CREM&FM operations and associated organisational divisions. In essence, the economic model for their infrastructure supply is the main issue that has to be addressed. The CREM-Map, which is discussed in the article Best Practises? Large portions of the SGMM are transferred to the CREM&FM world. The alignment of the CREM entity with the corporate entity, as well as the alignment with business objectives and context, were the main points of emphasis in this case. The study also described and looked at the structural forces that are connected to CREM, such as corporate governance, goals, strategy, and culture, in addition to CREM objectives, strategy, and structure. Another area of inquiry focused on the alignment of structuring forces with CREM processes inter- versus intra-system fit. The SGMM provided the framework for systematic interviews with multinational corporations to find the best CREM practises, but unsurprisingly, neither the best models nor the best practises could be found. Instead, certain principles became clear, and it was discovered that the configurational fit, or the alignment of the components with the management philosophy, was crucial for the creation of perceived value[9]–[12].

Performance-Oriented Workplace Environments

A framework for joint reflection on holistic models for value generation. When it comes to the interactions and interdependencies of Organisations and their environment, including their stakeholders, the SGMM is a comprehensive, multidisciplinary, systems-oriented approach. The development of the office ecology model into a performance-oriented office environments framework was motivated by managements emphasis on value creation. The framework encourages collaborative reflections and the creation of cohesive, effective workplace settings as well as how to include change-related factors or development modes. Stakeholders who build and develop their workplaces are both actors Management, User Representatives, and various support roles and the model's central focus. The Leadership/Management Subsystem is composed of Management Processes and Structuring Forces. Work processes/activities are used to depict business processes. They are expected to be made possible and supported by the Physical Workspace, Workspace Technology, and Workspace Services, all of which are thoroughly detailed in this conceptual paper, along with a survey of the literature on workspace-related topics. The objective is to provide a summary of current theories and guidelines for creating and implementing workspaces. According to the SGMMs Development Modes and Corporate Culture sections, social elements of management are just as crucial to a companys success as its strategy and organisational design. The specified performance metrics will only be attained if the change process is planned and carried out with the same level of professionalism as the workplace design. This study also illustrates and addresses this.

Finding commonalities in context-configurational design and efficient performance-improving procedures/actions. Current research takes a totally different approach to identifying workplace context-configurational design patterns. It makes an effort to collect and evaluate huge data using the SIM-OFFICE gamified survey app. A system approach enables the analysis of different categories with strong links rather than discrete cause-and-effect structures. The categories include both soft and hard workplace-related issues. In order to conduct additional study, the research searches for configurational clusters of personality, task, value, and workplace factors. From the performance-oriented office ecology model, the following clusters are subtracted: personality, job design, leadership, physical workplace, workspace technology, and workspace services. The underlying presumption is that there are configurational patterns of personality characteristics and job design, with particular preference structures for the latter four category variables, which, when satisfied, lead to greater performance metrics. Shown in Figure 4.

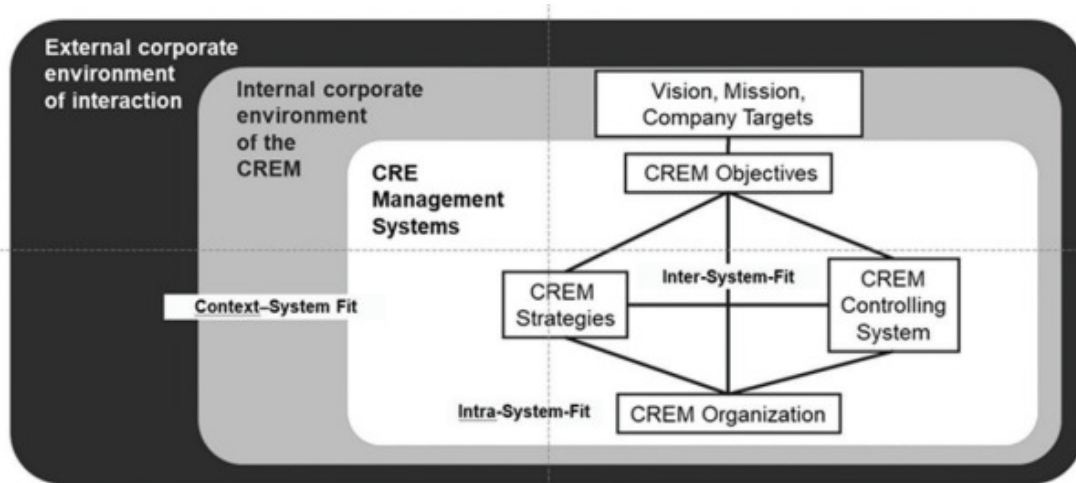


Figure 3: Representing the CREM Map [Library Open].

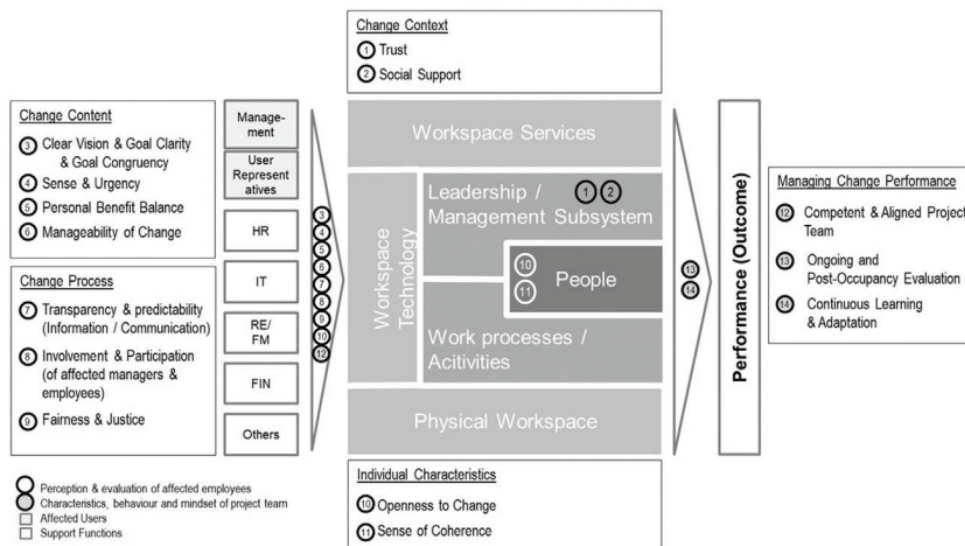


Figure 4: Representing the performance-oriented office ecology model [Library Open].

Collaboration and Sharing with Various Academic Fields

Only via the use of transdisciplinary knowledge and appropriate cooperation with researchers from management, real estate, architecture and engineering, ICT, and sociology/psychology were the aforementioned study examples made feasible and are still made possible. Bleicher states that Stakeholder management necessitates a higher frequency of border-crossing relationships to other systems that have thus far been kept separate. Cross-border co-operation in networks. This is supported by using the SGMM as an integrated management paradigm to address workplace concerns. It is also evident in the flourishing growth of Organisations like the TWR Network that support and foster cross-border collaborations.

Limitations

Systematic approaches to a complex subject like workplace management need a lot of preliminary research and a wide range of techniques, and they then only provide sophisticated, context-dependent solutions. In any event, they need large datasets and are excessively descriptive before being able to recognize patterns that result in fact-based insights and reliable conclusions. These samples must also be acquired, which costs a lot of money, takes time, and is less precise. Therefore, businesses use consultants to address their unique and particular rather to funding management research projects that develop broad ideas and promote the field but do not immediately pay back,

difficulties with conventional wisdom and information from consultants' expertise. Furthermore, generalisations in this area of system analysis will always be challenging to make, both inside the Organisation and relating environmental sectors as well as stakeholders, owing to the context dependence and interaction. As a result, simple fixes like best practises or best models cannot be created, which makes these sorts of methods less alluring. But pattern recognition is both doable and incredibly powerful. For this, a workspace-specific SGMM may serve as a solid foundation.

Theory Relevance to Practice

The SGMMs benefit and point of distinction is that it views an Organisation as a whole, in its context, and with regard to social relationships. It takes into account the surrounding environment, including stakeholders outside the Organisation and their reflexive interdependencies and interactions, in addition to isolated components of the Organisation or the particular unit. The model's ability to zoom in and out, altering the emphasis while maintaining an integrated, comprehensive, and multidisciplinary perspective, is highly useful in a globalized, networked, and quickly-moving world. The following limitations list the models' limitations: It is too extensive, requiring a substantial quantity of paperwork and requirements in addition to a great deal of management general knowledge to comprehend and follow up on the many components. Even if everyone, practitioners as well as academics, would prefer a simple over a systemic approach, this is important since complex concerns cannot be handled with simple responses. Despite these drawbacks, the SGMM has had a much higher influence on business than on science, making it less appealing for practitioners to apply it to workplace research. Almost a thousand corporate managers have received training using this approach, and they use the key components in their everyday work. So, learning the approach may also be highly beneficial for workplace managers who often lack business training. Additionally, the SGMM might solve the following research gaps in workspace management that would be interesting for practice:

1. Review and further refinement of a management vocabulary tailored to workplaces.
2. Workplace stakeholder groups interests, conventions, and values, as well as the resultant management philosophies and value generating measures.
3. The organisational structure of workplace entities in various contexts business size, industry, and culture, as well as the competency standards.
4. Aligning corporate strategy and culture with workplace strategy development processes
5. Including workplace-related issues in company sustainability and innovation management procedures.
6. Process maps for the management, support, and core processes in the workplace.
7. Increasing the quality and effectiveness of essential workplace operations such workspace design and facility service supply via the use of modern technologies and digitalization.
8. The involvement of larger stakeholder groups in workplace management procedures.

Last but not least, despite the models' origins dating back more than three decades, they could not be more modern. Particularly after the COVID-19 outbreak, the VUCA10 atmosphere has permeated the workplace. As a result, it is no longer feasible to manage organisational infrastructure, such as the workplace, as if it were strong, dependable, and stable. Professional workplace management is now required in order to handle complexity and assist the production of organisational value via proper workplace provision and operation. Practitioners have a lot of potential when they comprehend and use the SGMM in its fourth iteration and use insights from its general usage to interview questions. This may be exacerbated when businesses and academics work together to expand the SGMMs use

beyond just defining and Organising workplaces to recognizing trends and making fact-based suggestions as opposed to just experience-based and reasonable ones.

CONCLUSION

Careful consideration of management levels, practises, perspectives, and organisational structures is necessary for successful management of corporate real estate. Organisations may maximise the use of their real estate assets and contribute to overall success by comprehending and applying these components. A complete approach to real estate management is ensured by the strategic, tactical, and operational levels of management in business real estate. While tactical management transforms these objectives into workable plans and procedures, strategic management establishes the overarching objectives and connects them with organisational aims.

Operational management is concerned with carrying out regular tasks to properly maintain and manage real estate assets. By developing standardised processes for real estate acquisition, lease negotiations, facility maintenance, financial administration, and other tasks, procedures play a critical role in corporate real estate management.

These protocols guarantee uniformity, effectiveness, and efficiency in all real estate activities. It is important to take into account a variety of views and experience while managing business real estate. Stakeholders from many departments, including the executive, financial, operational, legal, and facilities teams, each provide their own unique perspectives and ideas. Organisations may make wise choices that reflect the interests and goals of all engaged stakeholders by embracing these points of view. Depending on the organizations size and complexity, many organisational structures may be found in corporate real estate. Centralised structures provide control and consistency by concentrating corporate decision-making power. Decentralised structures provide for local autonomy and flexibility by delegating decision-making to specific business units or regions. To maximise the advantages of each paradigm, hybrid structures include components from both centralised and decentralised techniques. Its critical to choose the right organisational structure for real estate management to enhance collaboration, communication, and productivity. It takes a thorough grasp of management levels, practises, opinions, and organisational structures to manage corporate real estate effectively. Organisations may maximise the use of real estate assets, enhance decision-making, and promote overall success in their real estate management initiatives by coordinating these factors and putting best practises into practise.

REFERENCES:

- [1] R. Tong, N. Zhang, X. Wang, and H. Zhao, "Impact of safety management system on safety performance: the mediating role of safety responsibility," *Eng. Constr. Archit. Manag.*, 2020, doi: 10.1108/ECAM-03-2020-0197.
- [2] M. Siejka, "The Role Of Spatial Information Systems In Decision-Making Processes Regarding Investment Site Selection," *Real Estate Manag. Valuat.*, 2017, doi: 10.1515/remav-2017-0023.
- [3] S. Mosallaeipour, S. M. Shavarani, C. Steens, and A. Eros, "A robust expert decision support system for making real estate location decisions, a case of investor-developer-user organization in industry 4.0 era," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2020, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-03-2019-0019.
- [4] P. S. W. Fong and P. Dettwiler, "Entrepreneurial firms and their knowledge creation: A study of real estate management," *Facilities*, 2009, doi: 10.1108/02632770910956120.
- [5] P. Tuan Anh, "Key Factors Affecting Earning Management Of Real Estate Listed Firms In Vietnam," *Int. J. Entrep.*, 2020.
- [6] D. Broekhuizen, M. Arkesteijn, P. De Jong, and F. Van Nieuwamerongen, "Conversion strategies for dutch primary schools: Practice and refinement," *J. Archit. Urban.*, 2020, doi: 10.3846/jau.2020.11448.

- [7] M. M. Spanner and J. Wein, "Carbon risk real estate monitor: making decarbonisation in the real estate sector measurable," *J. Eur. Real Estate Res.*, 2020, doi: 10.1108/JERER-05-2020-0031.
- [8] T. Ntene, S. Azasu, and A. Owusu-Ansah, "Corporate real estate and corporate strategy alignment in South Africa," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2020, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-05-2019-0025.
- [9] L. Too, M. Harvey, and E. Too, "Globalisation and corporate real estate strategies," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2010, doi: 10.1108/14630011011094676.
- [10] I. C. Osmond, O. S. Adesiyun, A. M. Olusola, and D. O. Daniel, "Towards an Effective Real Estate Agency Education: A Stride to Efficiency in Nigeria," *Procedia - Soc. Behav. Sci.*, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.360.
- [11] H. M. Teicher, "Practices and pitfalls of competitive resilience: Urban adaptation as real estate firms turn climate risk to competitive advantage," *Urban Clim.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.uclim.2018.04.008.
- [12] E. M. E. Abdullah, A. A. Rahman, and R. A. Rahim, "Adoption of financial technology (Fintech) in mutual fund/ unit trust investment among Malaysians: Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT)," *Int. J. Eng. Technol.*, 2018, doi: 10.14419/ijet.v7i2.29.13140.

CHAPTER 6

AN OVERVIEW: UNCOVERING THE SOCIO-TECHNOLOGICAL TRANSITION

Mr. Venkatesh Ashokababu, Assistant Professor,
Masters in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-ashokababu@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

An organisational environment with various levels and a change-focused perspective is provided by the Theory of Socio-Technical Transition. It acknowledges that office space is a dynamic system affected by social and technical elements rather than just being a static physical object. The main ideas and applications of the Theory of Socio-Technical Transition are examined in this abstract. The approach emphasises how social and technical parts of an Organisation are intertwined. It acknowledges that interactions between people, groups, technology, and a larger socio-cultural milieu define organisational space. This viewpoint emphasises how crucial it is to comprehend the social dynamics and technical foundation that affect the creation, use, and adaptability of organisational space. The idea acknowledges that people's behaviour, choices, and interactions with technology have an influence on the spatial arrangement of the Organisation at the individual level. When creating and managing organisational space, it emphasises the need of taking human factors such as work habits, communication preferences, and demands for collaboration into account. The idea places a strong emphasis on how technology shapes organisational space. The physical design, equipment, and systems used inside an Organisation are impacted by technological developments and improvements. Technology integration may facilitate innovative working methods, improve communication and teamwork, and boost organisational effectiveness. The Theory of Socio-Technical Transition also emphasises the significance of adjustment and change in the organisational setting. It acknowledges that businesses are dynamic entities that change over time in response to both internal and external forces. The idea places a strong emphasis on the need for organisations to embrace change, ease transitions, and foster an atmosphere that encourages creativity and adaptability in the use of space.

KEYWORDS:

Organisational, Level, Technical, Theory, Social.

INTRODUCTION

The theory of socio-technical transitions STT, which is seen as an expansion of the socio-technical system theory will be introduced in this section. Applying STS to organisations is based on two fundamental presumptions. First of all, organisations are systems in which modifications to one component result in modifications to a different component. Second, organisations are susceptible to environmental effects because they are in an interrelationship with their surroundings, affecting and being affected in a constant state of flux. Similar ideas are supported by the STT theory, which goes further in examining how socio-technical systems drastically change from one system to another, addressing shifting social needs like housing. The sociology of technology, institutional theory, evolutionary economics, niche management, and technological transitions serve as the STT's theoretical. In the STT,

technology lacks power on its own; instead, human agency, social structures, and organisations are necessary for it to serve its purpose. Thus, technological changes also affect infrastructure, industrial networks, infrastructure regulation, user practises, and symbolic meaning. The multi-level perspective MLP, The three levels are structures that differently influence local practises, where actors interact, according to Geels and Schot According to Geels, the levels are layered inside one another see Figure.1. The highest level, known as the landscape level, operates at the macroscale and generates an external environment made up of profound structural trends and diverse elements like macroeconomic or profound cultural patterns. As a result, it alludes to a larger external framework or context for actor interactions[1]–[4].

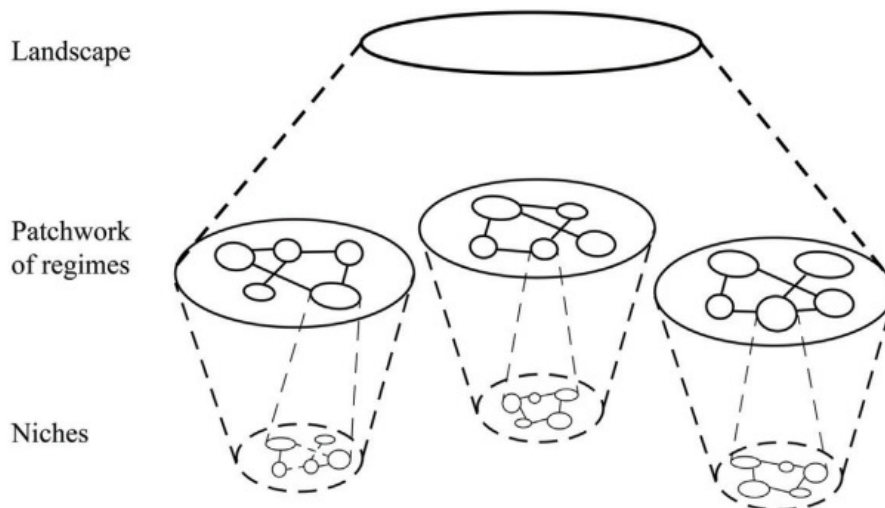


Figure 1: Representing the Multiple levels as a nested hierarchy interpreted [Library Open].

Geels and Geels and Schott, in contrast, define the regime level at the mesoscale, taking into account the community of social groups, including policymakers, users, and scientists, as well as their activities. The norms that permit or impede community-level activity make up the socio-technical regimes. The level stabilises developments in a variety of ways, such as via rules and standards, investments in the built environment, and so on. However, this internal stability is also dynamic. Within the regime, innovations do occur, but they tend to be incremental. However, according to Geels and Geels and Schot, radical innovations happen in the microscale phenomenon's niche for more information on the radical innovation hypothesis. Because they serve as incubators for ideas, niches are crucial. They provide a setting for the formation of social networks between committed individuals as well as for learning processes. When innovations are first developed at the niche level, they tend to be unstable socio-technical systems that function poorly and have a high rate of change[5]–[7].

All levels are involved in the transition process because the regime is under pressure from landscape changes if regime actors don't adapt, niche-level innovations can take hold and replace the old system see Figure.2. Furthermore, based on the time and kind of multi-level interactions, developed several transition routes. In the route of transformation, the landscape exerts only mild pressure on the regime during a time when niche innovations are not yet sufficiently advanced to change the regime, and regime actors react by making adjustments. The government is put under a lot of strain in the de-alignment and re-alignment route, which causes internal issues and eventual collapse. The landscape shift is massive and rapid, like an avalanche. Several niche inventions coexist along this road, but they have not yet reached a stage of development where they are ready for the pressure of the landscape. Niche inventions strive for supremacy, and one finally prevails and realigns the regime.

Contrarily, the route of technological substitution varies from the preceding one, allowing for the necessary development of niche inventions, but the regime's supremacy has prevented them from overcoming it. The regime may then be replaced by dramatic changes in cases of intense landscape pressure. According to Geels and Schot 2007, the reconfiguration route involves a series of many innovations that result in the emergence of a new regime from an earlier one [8]–[10]. When initially adopted in the regime to solve local problems symbiotic niche-innovations are used. A series of transition paths may occur if the terrain brings about a disruptive transformation. Geels and Schot 2007 assert that this initially results in transformation with mild alterations, followed by the regime's reconfiguration, replacement, or de- and re-alignment.

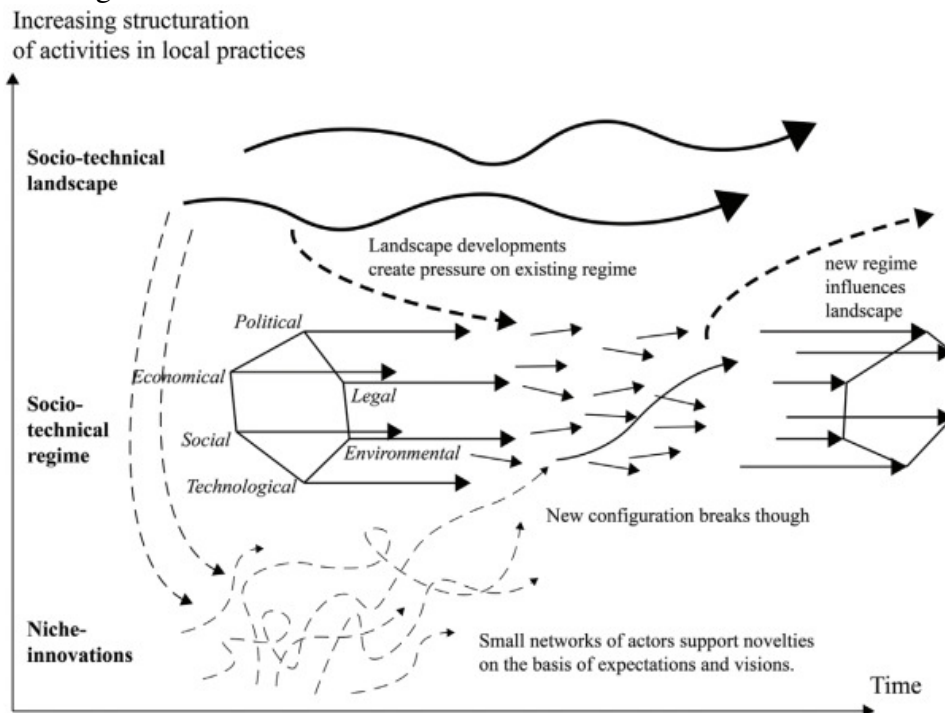


Figure 2: Multi-level perspective on transitions adapted with built environment aspects by Schmidt III [Library Open].

DISCUSSION

First, STT offers a framework for Organising interconnected information on nested levels in the context of workplaces, showing links in the multi-level view. Second, it emphasises how each level interacts with the others and maintains its stability. In other words, the STT theory focuses on both internal and external workplace changes, but mainly those resulting from the niche level that have the potential to modify the workplace's status quo. Thirdly, each level's shift pace differs both inside and between them. The flexible architecture is brought up since time is theoretically important to the design of the workplace. An integrated viewpoint might be advantageous for the complex, unit-crossing, change-connected office design and relocation work. The numerous levels in the STT/MLP are conceptualized analytically and heuristically, and the interrelated features are examined not just in terms of each scale but also in terms of their interaction, dynamics, and influence. It is feasible to comprehend the many yet related scales via the examination of Organisation. Organisations are created by people and embodied by people and objects; therefore, they exist in a physical environment, but they may also cross the borders of many sizes, from the individual to the universal. The discussion of workplace design is thus done in the context of organisational spaces.

Workplace as an Object of Analysis

The theory of socio-technical transitions was created to investigate organisational sectors like the land transportation system, as was previously mentioned. The workplace, on the other

hand, is a system with a considerably limited scope. Geels and Schot 2007 state that before using the framework, researchers must specify the empirical level of the topic of study. Institutional theories differentiate between the following organisational levels: the person, the organisational subsystem, the organisation, the organisational population, the organisational field, society, and the global system. Whether or not individuals are conscious of it, organisation, space, and architecture in workplaces have an impact on how people conduct their everyday lives Figure .3. Lefebvre's 1991 three concepts of conceived space, perceived space, and lived space are the foundation for many organisational space studies. These concepts can be understood as formal representations of space, spatial practises, and experiences and interpretations of space Figure .4. As a result, it is possible to conceptualise space as a process that is created not just via planning but also through the living, occupying, and picturing of it by members of an organisation Stephenson et al., 2020. Consequently, the social-spatial work environment is a sophisticated socio-technical system[11]–[14].

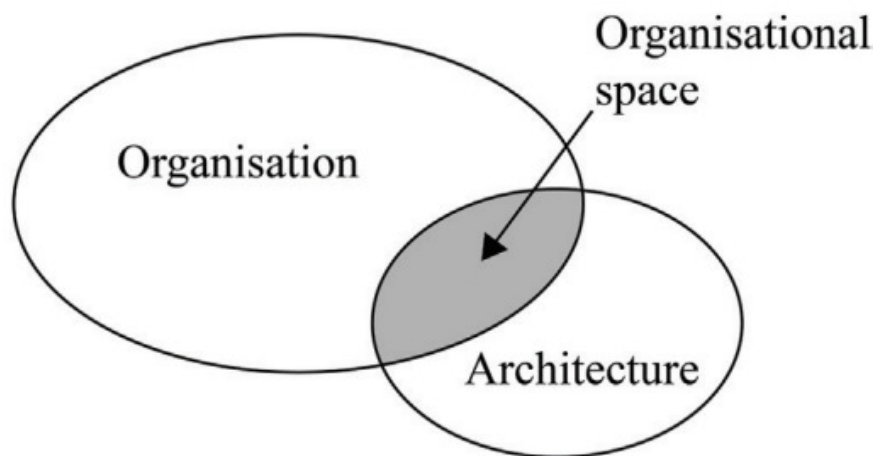


Figure 3: Workplace as a system of organisation, space, and architecture[Library Open].

Lefebvre 1991 asserts that there are many tiers of social reproduction and creation of space that link the global and local scales. On other terms, the macro-scale of space is contrasted with the micro-scale of place, or between the abstract space of the macro-scale such as globalisation and the lived space of daily activities on the micro-scale Dale & Burrell, 2008. Therefore, Organisation may also be considered as the mediator between scales in the development of social-spatial practises, according to Dale and Burrell's 2008 argument. In order to create a more stable and long-lasting meso-scale at the regime level, where organisational space is a factor that both contributes to and changes the Organisation Dale & Burrell, 2008, it is important to keep in mind that embedded organisational practises transform spatial relations beyond the entity of the Organisation itself. They are considered as an organisational sub-system in accordance with Geels and Schott's 2007 definition in order to apply the STT to the study of the organisational space and, in particular, its design. It is interesting that all three levels, according to the STT theory, are comparable types of structures that only vary in size and permanence. In other words, if a regime is examined inside the framework of an Organisation, then examination of niche-level innovations within that framework is also necessary. As a result, the STT's idea of scale presents challenges when compared to the scales of the constructed world. According to van der Voordt et al. 1997 and Dale & Burrell 2008 as well as Weinfurter & Seidl 2018, the varying sizes of the levels are not directly related to things like the room, building, or location. The idea of organisational space as a process also challenges the idea of scale as a nested, rigid hierarchy and emphasises on the dynamic features of space, such as activities that scale up and down.

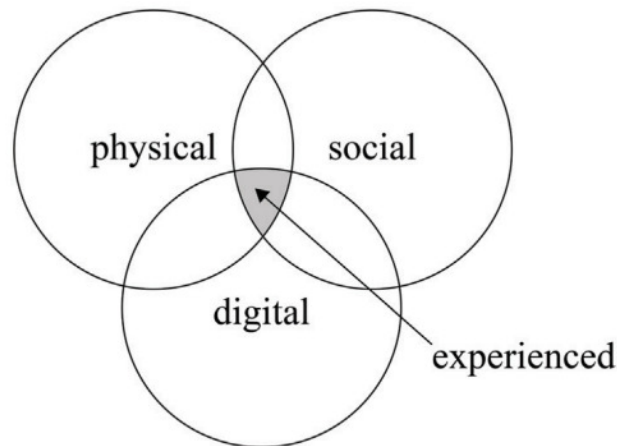


Figure 4: Organisational space aspects the interlinks of physical, social, digital, and experienced environments[Library Open].

Levels and Impact

When using the framework to study workplaces, the emergence of mobile and digital technology is one of the well-known landscape-level trends. Although they had a significant influence on workplace and organisational space design and management, the change took two decades, possibly in part because the physical environment is durable and naturally prone to stability Geels & Kemp, 2007, and as will be explored later. The transformations at the landscape-level, however, occur at various velocities Geels & Schot, 2007. For instance, the COVID-19 epidemic transformed workplace practises fairly immediately to remote working, which was made possible by the ongoing, decade-long revolution in mobile infrastructure.

The policies, legislation, and regulations connected to workplace design that determine the physical, social, and digital surroundings of the workplace make up the regime level in terms of workplaces Geels, 2002, according to Neonen 2005. The actors, or the producers and users of the workplace, play a crucial part in STT because of their complex and dynamic interaction with the structure and active creation of new rules and functions Geels, 2002; Nieminen et al., 2011; Schmidt III and Austin 2016 underline that structures are systems of representations outlined in composition and experienced in perception, as opposed to being just systems of components. The usage and impression that a building fosters in people, which are inextricably linked to the setting it exists in, should also be considered when defining a building. Conventions, on the other hand, continue to define architecture in response to a brief, defining each space for a specific sub-function or activity. Thus, Lefebvre's representations of space and defined as imagined spaces that are intentionally constructed by scientists, architects, and planners to address issues like functionality and control in material form and that establish the boundaries.

While daily, assumed, experienced environments are empirically understood as spaces via spatial practises that are produced by interactions between people and location. Consequently, spatial practice might be seen as the limits of administered enabling, for instance, whether or not the user may modify the space Peltonen, 2011 As previously said, the regime level sets limitations on where innovations at the niche level may or may occur. According to Dale & Burrell 2008 and Weinfurter & Seidl 2018, architecture establishes the social-spatial borders and links, the divisions and integrations, and the degree of hierarchy across locations. In other words, patterns of circulation, copresence, awareness, and encounters are the essential contributors to the establishment and maintenance of social ties in organisations, and spatial arrangement substantially facilitates these processes Wineman et al., 2009. For instance, writes that faculty-specific buildings on university campuses are often dominated by outdated, formal designs that support individual knowledge practises. Cross-organizational

structures and informal campus spaces that promote knowledge exchange among communities and foster social networks, which are crucial for innovations, provide a challenge to the built environment regime as a result. Even at the lowest level, spatial practises are prevalent. The combination of people, places, and technology results in ongoing niche developments that may or may not alter the workplace's regulatory environment. In other words, while each person is a member of the organisational sub-system and a player within it since each level is made up of interconnected components, the size of an individual micro- is not equivalent to the niche level.

The niche level can be understood to include Lefebvre's 1991 lived space representational space, which fuses material and cultural aspects as well as user experiences and interpretations Peltonen, 2011 that take place only in an individual's mind Figure.4. In terms of workplaces and organisational spaces, for instance, social developments lead to innovative methods of utilizing spaces, which in turn give rise to opportunities for new uses or provide obstacles to them. Therefore, niche-level innovations might include a variety of unique practises to stand out locally and be able to compete worldwide Rytönen, 2016, as well as new methods to utilised spaces or modifications to uses, and appropriations of existing places to novel purposes. They might also be small-scale retrofits or spatial experiments. In order to safeguard and communicate unique practises, Organisations might establish transient experimental spaces as quoted in Stephenson et al., 2020. Additionally, specialized inventions could provide fresh methods for creating spaces via collaboration, and so forth. All of these developments might change workplace culture or design standards. The ideas and experiments that try to meet the demands of modern university communities, for instance, fall under the category of niche innovations in the context of university Organisations.

CONCLUSION

The Theory of Socio-Technical Transition provides insightful information on the intricate dynamics of organisational space. This theory acknowledges that organisational space is not static but continually developing, impacted by both social and technology variables. It does this by adopting a multiple-level, change-focused perspective. The idea emphasises the need of taking both factors into account when creating and managing organisational space by highlighting how social and technology components interact inside an organisation. Organisations may design environments that foster collaboration, communication, and productivity by acknowledging the influence of human behaviour, preferences, and interactions with technology. The Theory of Socio-Technical Transition also emphasises the impact of technology on organisational structure. The structure, equipment, and systems utilised inside an organisation might alter as a result of technological developments and advances. Organisations may improve efficiency, flexibility, and overall performance by using technology properly. The idea also emphasises how crucial it is for organisational spaces to alter and adapt. Organisations must be adaptable to change, assist with changes, and provide an atmosphere that encourages creativity and adaptability. Organisations may maximise their use of space and continue to be responsive to changing work dynamics by embracing change and cultivating a culture of continual improvement. The Theory of Socio-Technical Transition offers an all-encompassing framework for comprehending and controlling organisational space. Organisations may design spaces that support their aims, assist their people, and foster success in today's dynamic work environment by taking into account the numerous levels of influence, embracing technology improvements, and encouraging a change-focused mentality.

REFERENCES:

- [1] J. Blažek, "Economic micro-systems? Non-market and not-only-for-profit economic activities in eco-communities," *Hum. Aff.*, 2016, doi: 10.1515/humaff-2016-0032.

- [2] P. Mesarić, D. Dukec, and S. Krajcar, “Exploring the potential of energy consumers in smart grid using focus group methodology,” *Sustain.*, 2017, doi: 10.3390/su9081463.
- [3] L. Li, “The Governance of Low-Carbon Transitions in a Multilevel Perspective Framework: How Does the Concept of ‘System Transformation’ Work?,” *Energy Res. J.*, 2020, doi: 10.3844/erjsp.2020.45.53.
- [4] K. Velibeyoğlu and O. Mengi, “The multi-level policy learning of environmental policy: insights from Izmir,” *Turkish Stud.*, 2019, doi: 10.1080/14683849.2018.1502041.
- [5] A. Cherp, V. Vinichenko, J. Jewell, E. Brutschin, and B. Sovacool, “Integrating techno-economic, socio-technical and political perspectives on national energy transitions: A meta-theoretical framework,” *Energy Res. Soc. Sci.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.erss.2017.09.015.
- [6] J. Koehrsen, “Boundary bridging arrangements: A boundary work approach to local energy transitions,” *Sustain.*, 2017, doi: 10.3390/su9030424.
- [7] S. Fastenrath and B. Braun, “Lost in transition? Directions for an economic geography of urban sustainability transitions,” *Sustain.*, 2018, doi: 10.3390/su10072434.
- [8] M. P. Hekkert and S. O. Negro, “Functions of innovation systems as a framework to understand sustainable technological change: Empirical evidence for earlier claims,” *Technol. Forecast. Soc. Change*, 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.techfore.2008.04.013.
- [9] T. Lempiälä, E. L. Apajalahti, T. Haukkala, and R. Lovio, “Socio-cultural framing during the emergence of a technological field: Creating cultural resonance for solar technology,” *Res. Policy*, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.respol.2019.103830.
- [10] J. mname Schuunemann, J. mname Cilliers, Z. mname Donnenfeld, C. mname Aucoin, and A. mname Porter, “African Futures - Key Trends to 2035,” *SSRN Electron. J.*, 2018, doi: 10.2139/ssrn.3099362.
- [11] A. Wesselink, O. Fritsch, and J. Paavola, “Earth system governance for transformation towards sustainable deltas: What does research into socio-eco-technological systems tell us?,” *Earth System Governance*. 2020. doi: 10.1016/j.esg.2020.100062.
- [12] G. Ollivier, D. Magda, A. Mazé, G. Plumecocq, and C. Lamine, “Agroecological transitions: What can sustainability transition frameworks teach us? an ontological and empirical analysis,” *Ecol. Soc.*, 2018, doi: 10.5751/ES-09952-230205.
- [13] M. A. E. van Sluisveld *et al.*, “Aligning integrated assessment modelling with socio-technical transition insights: An application to low-carbon energy scenario analysis in Europe,” *Technol. Forecast. Soc. Change*, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.techfore.2017.10.024.
- [14] C. Roberts and F. W. Geels, “Conditions and intervention strategies for the deliberate acceleration of socio-technical transitions: lessons from a comparative multi-level analysis of two historical case studies in Dutch and Danish heating,” *Technol. Anal. Strateg. Manag.*, 2019, doi: 10.1080/09537325.2019.1584286.

CHAPTER 7

A BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUT TEMPO OF BUILT -ENVIRONMENT CHANGES

Dr. Bipasha Maity, Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-bipasha@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The pace and rate at which changes take place in the physical environment, including buildings, infrastructure, and urban landscapes, is referred to as the tempo of built-environment changes. The idea of the built-environment change's pace and its importance to the fields of architecture, urban design, and construction. The built environment is continually changing as a result of social requirements, economic development, population increase, and technology breakthroughs. These changes may occur at various rates, ranging from slow, incremental alterations to quick, upsetting ones. For those working in the fields of design, urban planning, and construction, it is essential to comprehend the pace of change in the built environment. They are better able to foresee new trends and adapt to them, as well as adopt new technology and design concepts and make sure constructed environments are long-lasting and sustainable. Due to a number of variables, the pace of built environment modifications has increased recently. Connectivity, mobility, and the need for creative and sustainable architectural solutions have all risen as a result of globalisation, urbanisation, and technology breakthroughs. Professionals have possibilities and problems as a result of the quick rate of change, which necessitates that they remain knowledgeable, flexible, and adaptive in their methods. Beyond simple physical changes, the pace of built environment changes is significant. It affects a community's social, economic, and environmental elements as well. Rapid changes may have an effect on local identities, cultural heritage, and social cohesiveness. They may also solve urgent environmental issues, spur the development of jobs, and open up economic possibilities.

KEYWORDS:

Built, Change, Design, Environment, Social.

INTRODUCTION

The pace and rate at which changes take place in the physical environment, which includes buildings, infrastructure, and urban landscapes, is referred to as the tempo of built-environment changes. In the domains of architecture, urban planning, and building, this idea is very important. The built environment is always changing due to a variety of variables, including population increase, technological progress, economic growth, and shifting social demands. These adjustments may take a variety of forms, from slow and incremental adjustments to abrupt and dramatic alterations. For those who shape and manage physical environments, it is crucial to comprehend the velocity of built-environment changes. They may include cutting-edge design ideas, assure the long-term sustainability and usefulness of constructed buildings, and foresee and respond to new trends[1]–[3].

Recent years have seen a noticeably faster pace of built environment changes as a result of urbanisation, globalisation, and quickening technology development. In order to stay up with

the changing requirements of the built environment, professionals must adopt a proactive and agile approach. This increased pace brings both possibilities and problems. Examining the ramifications of the pace of built-environment changes beyond simple physical changes becomes vital in this situation. Numerous factors, such as social cohesiveness, cultural legacy, economic progress, and environmental sustainability, may be impacted by the pace of change. It emphasises the need of a comprehensive strategy that strikes a balance between communities' evolving demands and the preservation of their unique identities and histories. Professionals must use forward-thinking approaches to properly negotiate the pace of built-environment changes. This entails keeping up with new technology, design principles, and sustainable practises, as well as thinking about how their choices will affect society, the economy, and the environment. To effectively manage the pace of built-environment changes, collaborative methods, multidisciplinary collaborations, and an emphasis on resilience and flexibility are essential. The speed at which the built environment is changing has a significant impact on how we design, develop, and build physical places.

Professionals may adapt to new trends, embrace innovation, and build settings that fulfil changing community demands while balancing social, cultural, economic, and environmental factors when they recognise and comprehend this pace. The rate of change in the built environment is not primarily determined by outside forces. The combined efforts of experts in the domains of architecture, urban planning, and construction also influence it. Their originality, knowledge, and foresight influence the speed and scope of changes in the built environment. Professionals nowadays must actively participate in continual learning and professional development because of the dynamic nature of the world we live in and the constant evolution of social requirements and technology breakthroughs. To successfully adapt to the pace of built-environment changes, they must keep current on the most recent market trends, scientific discoveries, and best practises [4]–[7].

The speed of built-environment changes also extends beyond specific projects or developments. It covers a wider range of contexts, such as interconnections between various projects, the connectivity of metropolitan regions, and the overall effects on ecosystems and communities. Professionals must adopt this systemic approach to guarantee that their choices and deeds support harmonious and sustainable built environments. The speed at which the built environment is changing also emphasises how crucial cooperation and stakeholder involvement are. To comprehend their wants, goals, and concerns, professionals must collaborate closely with customers, communities, legislators, and other pertinent stakeholders. Professionals may make sure that the built environment supports the general interests and well-being of society by including all relevant stakeholders in the decision-making process [8], [9]. The pace, rate, and direction of changes in the physical environment are all included in the idea of the tempo of built-environment changes, which has many different facets. To develop sustainable, useful, and inclusive built environments, experts must take a proactive, adaptable, and collaborative approach. Professionals may negotiate the speed of built-environment changes and help create vibrant, resilient, and habitable settings for both the current and future generations by embracing innovation, remaining educated, and involving stakeholders [10], [11].

DISCUSSION

The built environment is prone to sluggish changes and also adds to the stability of the regime, thus when STT is used to workplace design and research, the tempo of the transitions has to be further addressed. In addition, buildings and architecture are often seen as static finished goods that are meant for initial usage in the design business. On the other hand, it is important to acknowledge that structures and architecture evolve with time in order to survive. Depending on the permanence of the construction layer, the interconnected spatio-functional aspects and socio-cultural aims and values have varying temporal spans. Buildings

may be seen of as containers that hold evolving assemblages of administrative intentions, material artefacts, and human groups whose design is crucial for the emerging forms of the collectives shaped in the ongoing flux of Organising. As a result, the physical environment of a workplace is always changing, however the rate of change varies based on cyclical and linear periods . The relationships between political, economic, social, technical, environmental, and legal issues in specific circumstances will be reflected in the cyclical and linear periods, according to Schmidt III and Austin (Figure 1). Architecture expresses ideas of particular time bound to the material environment and acknowledges time as embedded in social, spatial, and embodied experience (Dale & Burrell, 2008). However, the validity of these ideas may change over time, and design and redesign of space responds to the needs of a specific organisation as well as to changes in institutional conditions. The complexity and uniqueness of the work are increased by the fact that buildings are always contextual entities with a wide range of stakeholders interested in various elements.

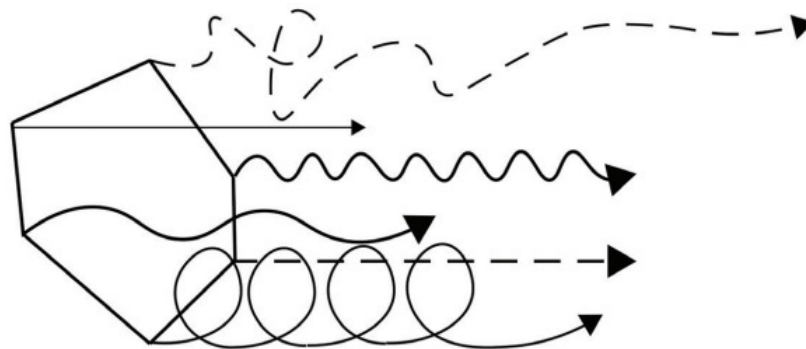


Figure 1: Change drivers affect built environment in both cyclical and linear timeframes [Library Open].

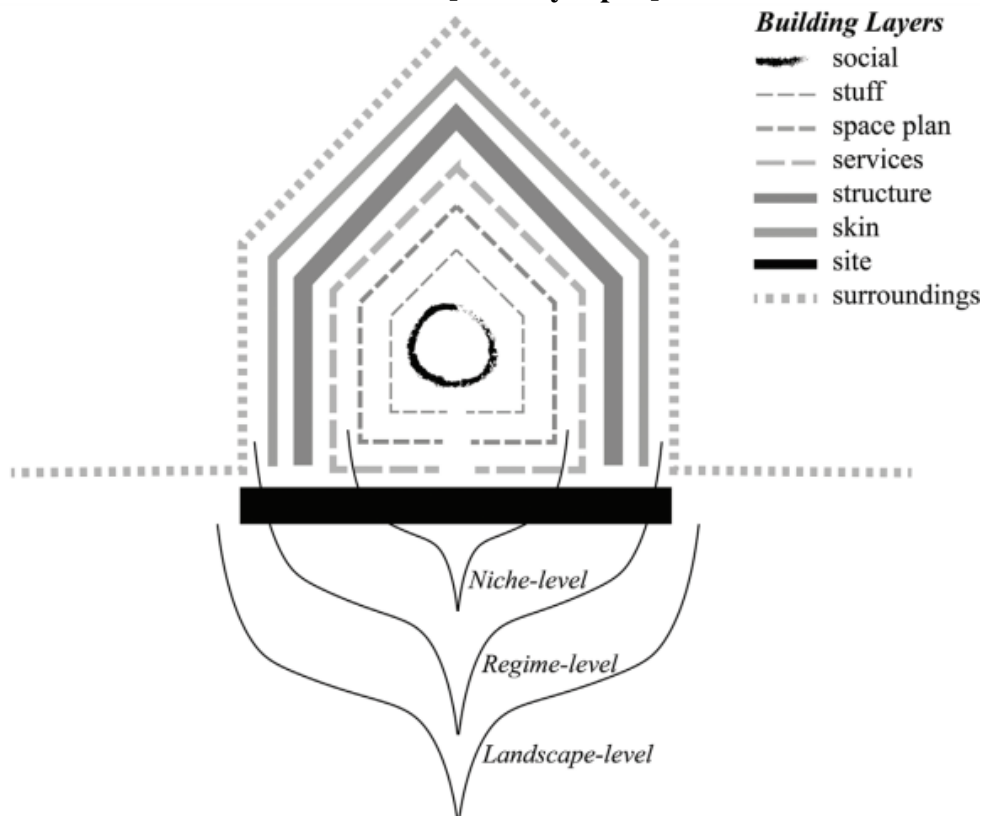


Figure 2: Representing the buildings as layers with socio-technical transition levels [Library Open].

Schmidt III and Austin have accumulated from the literature the following change drivers that affect the buildings and thus the built environment of a workplace physical changes are related to, e.g., weathering economic changes to financial issues, such as market fluctuation in real estate functional changes to, e.g., user needs but also issues related to landscape-level changes such as type of work technological changes include, e.g., landscape-level information technology change, but also, e.g., product life cycles; whereas social entails all from landscape-level lifestyle and demographic changes to the regime and niche-level skills of the user; and legal changes incorporate, e.g., regime-level safety regulations and government incentives. On the other hand, these change drivers may be understood as originating from but also having an impact on several levels, depending on how size and perspective are interpreted. The fundamental ideas in reacting to changes in the built environment are adaptation and flexibility since the change drivers themselves are many. According to Schmidt III and Austin (2016), dynamic building types such as offices, hospitals, and schools are more subject to change than stable building types. For the purposes of this chapter, the idea of buildings as layers enables the application of STT levels to workplace-built environments and the examination of the rate at which changes occur both within and across levels. Brand (1994) created the buildings as layers model, which divides and classifies a building into a number of interdependent layers that change over time.

The more connected the layers are, the more difficult and expensive adaptation is going to be. There are eight layers that make up the expanded model by Schmidt III and Austin: social, things, space plan, services, structure, skin, location, and surrounds. Individuals, work groups, departments, branches, and organisations are all included in the social levels. As a result, the three layers of niche, regime, and landscape all experience changes that affect the social layer. The layer of stuff, or the components and things that are present within a place, as well as the layer of the space plan, or the elements that define the spaces the users occupy, may be considered to make up the niche level. In comparison to the other levels that would enable user-driven adjustments at a quicker rate, the components of these layers have the shortest lifespans and are also the most independent.

According to Brand, the structure layer of a building has a lifespan of 30 to 300 years and is naturally the most dependent on other layers, which prevents changes. Both of these factors contribute to the stability of the built environment. The whole structure, with all of its levels, may be thought of as the regime, where the core layers are where the niche-level innovations arise (Figure 2).

The social reasons of change in the layer of stuff are connected to tasks or users, and their impact on the physical environment manifests as furniture and equipment.

The social factors are in the activities and operations that impact the spatial arrangement in both the stuff and the space plan levels. When ownership changes, the space plans and the function are affected. As previously said, innovations at the niche level refresh the system top-down, and new compositions are produced quickly, but they need time and the right conditions to stabilise.

This has to do with using trials to create work procedures and office layouts that will improve employee welfare at work and boost output. A single experiment may have a little influence, but a sequence of tests over time might have a larger impact (Figure 3).

Therefore, under current circumstances, experiments in the built environment that would normally be deemed high risk, for example in the 'structure' layer, would be permitted by the 'stuff' and 'space plan' layers. The ongoing management of physical space is typically handled at low organisational level, whereas larger changes are made in the organisational structure at high, strategic level, which are frequently closely related to changes in a physical setting. As a result, these are also linked to organisational change. In other words, large changes are implemented top-down, although they inevitably take longer than small

renewals. hence, theThe regime may be stable due to the varying lengths of the building layers, and at the niche level, changes and innovations happen more quickly but there is less permanence.

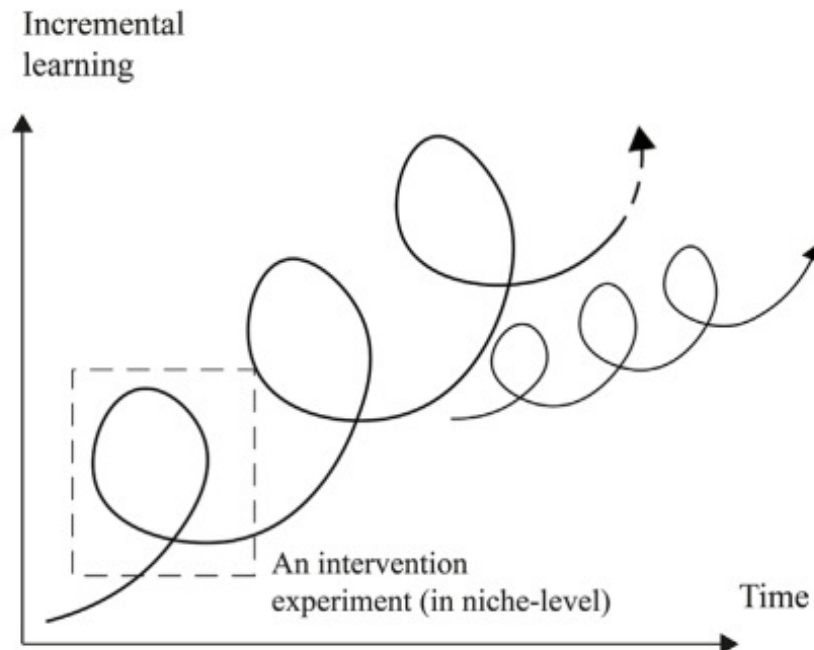


Figure 3: Impact on learning in relation with time. Pop Up Development Model for Productive Knowledge Work [Library Open].

Methodology

The operationalization of the multi-level viewpoint on the study of space design will be covered in this part. The emphasis on transitions within and across levels, particularly how niche-level innovations may move to the regime, is where the STT's advantages may be highlighted. The socio-technical transition theory is concerned with how one system transforms into another, while adaptive architecture explores how changes within a system, such as the building, are accommodated. As a result, the STT concentrates on the fundamental causes, particularly on the analysis of the consequences of internal, small-scale changes, i.e., niche innovations, as well as on the effects of the external elements resulting from the landscape level that affect the transformation of the workplace. Therefore, using the MLP framework as a matrix might be a future research application. The matrix would, in the first place, enable us to combine and reorganise the multidisciplinary knowledge on organisational space and its design as well as adaptable architecture into numerous sizes and related dimensions and would also highlight the varied tempos of the changes. Second, the matrix might be utilised as a tool for development as well as to investigate the systemic changes in the workplace.

However, the applicability to empirical research relies on the study's study subject. Geels and Schot (2007) since there aren't any ready-made operationalization methodologies or approaches. For instance, Bögel et al. have developed an integrated framework for studying the organisational change in transition projects by connecting the STT research with organisational change management. They view macro-level elements as the institutionalised logics that set the framework for organisational action in the multi-scale heuristic. The design and character of transition efforts as well as intra-organizational variables are examples of meso-level factors, which concentrate on the organisational level. The microlevel components in their heuristic relate to the social psychology of specific people. STT is extensively used in various industries, although the systems' scope often exceeds that of the

workplace. Workplaces are intricate systems that are continually changing. Whereas, existing phenomena and known systems are frequently studied through the empirical systematisations of reality and with delimited factors that inevitably narrow understanding about the phenomena. As a result, qualitative narratives might present the transformation in a more thorough manner. In fact, the majority of STT research has used qualitative techniques.

Different techniques of material and data gathering may be required for the inquiries on several levels, which might make it impossible to compare the levels side by side. However, in qualitative investigations, using the distinctive triangulation and first examining transitions at the micro-scale for example, social-spatial relations at the size of a person enables information to be accumulated at the sub-system scale. Pre- and post-occupancy assessments also document the use patterns that arise as a result of experiments and spatial interventions, as well as their consequences. Longitudinal studies and these analyses combined would help to show how an experiment series' results were affected. On the other hand, case study interventions and experiments are also a component of the action research methodology. For instance, rather than being spontaneous occurrences, strategic workplace changes are planned. But pre- and post-occupancy assessments may also be used to gather data on the effects of the change from one workplace to another. For instance, the Space Syntax family of techniques may be used in conjunction with quantitative and qualitative methodologies to assess the consequences of changes in the spatial arrangement over time.

Theory relevance to practice

As MLP offers analytical and heuristic concepts to structure the interconnected factors to different levels, the framework of the STT theory may assist practitioners in evaluating the impact of strategic choices on the operational level and implications on spatial design. In other words, employing the framework would also make the links between features associated inside and between each level evident. The key concerns outlined at the strategic level lead to a multitude of aspects at the operational level. As the framework emphasises the niche level, for instance, intentionally made changes in practises, designs, and their application would illuminate how these niche-level changes might be used on a broader scale to modify the regime, or the status quo. Before the strategic workplace development, for instance, experimenting with the design and operational procedures of the present workplace would, on the one hand, permit testing with, for example, an activity-based environment (ABE), and, on the other hand, the niche-level changes could work as an educator with the move to the ABE. A systematic instrument to enhance workplace management at the micro- and niche-innovations level might also be provided by the STT's emphasis on niche-level innovations, which could emphasise user-initiated practises and improvements.

CONCLUSION

In the fields of design, urban planning, and building, the speed of built-environment changes is crucial. The pace and speed at which the physical environment changes has significant effects on both professions and communities. The rapid speed of built-environment change offers both benefits and problems. On the one hand, quick changes need that professionals remain knowledgeable, flexible, and creative in their methods. To handle changing requirements and trends, they must be ready to adopt new technology, design concepts, and sustainable practises. On the other side, the pace of change may also open up business possibilities, promote employment growth, and aid in community development. Professionals must comprehend the larger effects of the speed of built-environment changes. Rapid changes may have an impact on local identities, cultural heritage, and social cohesiveness on the social, economic, and environmental levels. These elements must be taken into account by professionals when they make decisions and seek to design inclusive, resilient, and sustainable built environments. Professionals should use proactive and forward-thinking strategies to successfully negotiate the pace of built-environment changes. This entails

including all relevant parties, encouraging teamwork, and relying on technological and data-driven solutions. Professionals may adapt to the changing demands of communities and help to create flourishing, dynamic, and sustainable built environments by embracing innovation and flexible design concepts. It is critical for experts in the sector to understand and adapt to the pace of changes in the built environment. Professionals may contribute to the creation of resilient, sustainable, and inclusive built environments that improve the quality of life for both the current and future generations by comprehending the dynamics, embracing innovation, and taking into account larger implications.

REFERENCES:

- [1] A. Pardede, "Pengaruh Motivasi Kerja, Kemampuan Kerja, Dan Sistem Kompensasi Terhadap Prestasi Kerja Karyawan (Studi Kasus Pada PT. Bank BNI Syariah Gedung Tempo Pavilion I Jakarta Selatan)," *Constr. Build. Mater.*, 2015.
- [2] C. Fletcher, R. Boyd, W. J. Neal, and V. Tice, *Living on the shores of Hawai'i: Natural Hazards, the environment, and our communities*. 2010.
- [3] A. M. L. L. da Costa, "Microscale modelling of exposure to atmospheric pollutants in urban areas TT - Modelação de microescala da exposição a poluentes atmosféricos em áreas urbanas," *PQDT - Glob.*, 2008.
- [4] D. Lusk and G. Skinner, "A Structured , Yet Agile Approach To Designing C2 Operating Environments," in *Proceedings of the 17th ICCRTS*, 2012.
- [5] R. C. Baird, "Sustainable coastal margins: Challenges of tempo and mode for the policy domain," in *Sustainability Science: The Emerging Paradigm and the Urban Environment*, 2012. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4614-3188-6_10.
- [6] A. N. Goring-Morris and A. Belfer-Cohen, "Houses and Households: a Near Eastern Perspective," in *One World Archaeology*, 2013. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4614-5289-8_2.
- [7] K. M. Hirniak, "Independent means of business communication in manager personnel," *Sci. Messenger LNU Vet. Med. Biotechnol.*, 2018, doi: 10.15421/nvlvet8609.
- [8] Z. Jasni, T. Lihan, W. M. R. Idris, Z. A. Rahman, M. A. Mustapha, and S. A. Rahim, "Potential of vetiver grass and kim chiam as slope stabilizer at different elevation in good agricultural practices (MyGAP) area," *J. Teknol.*, 2020, doi: 10.11113/jt.v82.14021.
- [9] M. D. Sutton, "Motion and the Noise," *JAAAS J. Austrian Assoc. Am. Stud.*, 2020, doi: 10.47060/jaaas.v1i2.131.
- [10] X. M. Zhao, F. Hui, X. Shi, J. Y. Ma, and L. Yang, "Concept, architecture and challenging technologies of ubiquitous traffic information service system," *Jiaotong Yunshu Gongcheng Xuebao/Journal Traffic Transp. Eng.*, 2014.
- [11] A. C. N. R. Veiga and P. R. P. Andery, "Gestão do processo de design de arquitetura efêmera em museus," *Ambient. Construído*, 2014, doi: 10.1590/s1678-86212014000400014.

CHAPTER 8

MODEL FOR DISASTER RESILIENCE OF PLACE

Dr. Vankadari Gupta, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-chithambargupta@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The Model for Disaster Resilience of Place DROP is a conceptual framework created to assist facility managers in determining how resilient their built environments are to catastrophes and making improvements to that resilience. It offers a methodical way to comprehending and improving the ability of infrastructure and structures to endure and recover from numerous dangers. One essential element of the DROP model is the Resilience Assessment and Improvement Framework RAIF. It provides facility managers with a systematic process to assess the resilience of their buildings, pinpoint their weaknesses, and put improvement plans into action. The RAIF includes components of physical, operational, social, and economic resilience, among others. The significance of a comprehensive and integrated strategy to catastrophe resilience is emphasized by the DROP model. It acknowledges that constructing resilience necessitates taking into account not just the physical infrastructure but also the people, procedures, and systems that make up it. Facility managers may identify interdependencies, resolve vulnerabilities, and improve the overall resilience of their facilities by taking a holistic approach. The concept also emphasises the need of taking preventative action as opposed to reacting in an emergency. It encourages facility managers to think about possible risks and future situations throughout the planning, building, and maintenance stages. Facilities may be better equipped to resist catastrophes and recover from them by implementing resilience techniques early on. The DROP model also encourages cooperation and information exchange amongst parties. It acknowledges that building resilience is a shared duty that calls for group effort. To guarantee coordinated efforts in disaster planning and response, facility managers are urged to interact with local communities, emergency management organisations, and other pertinent stakeholders.

KEYWORDS:

Disaster, Drop, Model, Performance, Vulnerability.

INTRODUCTION

Natural or man-made disasters, such as floods, heat waves, earthquakes, pandemics, and terrorism, have a significant impact on business organizations private, public, and not-for-profit performance as well as the health and well-being of the communities to which they belong. Depending on how vulnerable and resilient an Organisation is to a catastrophic occurrence, this will affect how they plan for, react to, and recover from these repercussions. Organisations with low vulnerability and high resilience recover more rapidly, learning from their mistakes and identifying mitigating measures to improve their readiness and/or minimize their susceptibility to future events. Organisations with high levels of vulnerability and low levels of resilience may recover more slowly or never at all [1]–[3].

Resilience

Holling 1973, 1996, 2001 proposed the idea of resilience to characterize the changes that occur over time in ecological systems that are subject to outside disturbance disaster event.

Such systems, according to Holling 1973, 1996, exhibit both engineering resilience and ecological and eventually socio-ecological resilience. Using resistance to the disturbance and speed of return to the equilibrium point as indicators of the systems resilience, engineering resilience characterizes the systems behaviour near to its pre-existing equilibrium point. The main goal of engineering resilience is to keep the system stable both during and after a catastrophic occurrence. Ecological resilience refers to a systems capacity to reorganize itself into a new equilibrium state in the wake of an external disruption. It is concerned with how much disturbance the system can withstand before reconfiguration takes place[4]–[7].

Ecological resilience primarily addresses the systems adaptability or rigidity to a catastrophe occurrence. Holling 2001 expanded the idea of ecological resilience to include social-ecological systems, noting the role that resilience and vulnerability play in either sparking desired creative reconfiguration change or thwarting unwanted destabilizing change. In its most basic form, social-ecological resilience is concerned with the systems innate ability to adapt to a disastrous occurrence. The many resilience concepts have been used to study urban environments since 2001.resilience across a range of spatial and temporal scales, including population, environment, organisational, physical, lifestyle, economic, and socio-cultural resilience in addition, resilience to the systems infrastructure, lifelines, business, etc. that modern society depends on for its existence and prosperity. The emphasis of this chapter will be on company resiliency[8], [9].

Vulnerability

While vulnerability focuses on a systems susceptibility to a particular catastrophe threat, resilience is mainly concerned with a systems capacity to resist, absorb, accommodate, adapt to, transform, and recover from a catastrophic event Bakken Sen et al., 2016. Vulnerability is defined by the UNDRR 2020 as the circumstances resulting from physical, social, economic, and environmental factors or processes that increase the susceptibility of an individual, a community, assets, or systems to the impacts of hazards. Vulnerability can also be viewed as the potential losses that a system would suffer as a result of a disaster event Murnane et al., 2016, which is related to resilience through a focus on disaster risk reduction Zhou et al., 2016. Vulnerability, hazard, and exposure are the fundamental components of disaster risk Prevention web, 2020. In general, a system is less susceptible to the effects of a disastrous occurrence the more robust it[10], [11].

DISCUSSION

Catastrophe resistance of Place DROP is a model developed by Cutter et al. 2008 to examine the link between susceptibility and resistance to catastrophe occurrences Figure .1 The DROP model asserts that a systems vulnerability and resilience to a disaster event are determined by the antecedent relationships inherent vulnerability and resilience that exist between the interaction of natural systems, social systems, and the built environment a system of systems model. This model views vulnerability and resilience as distinct but related concepts. The antecedent circumstances interact with the disaster event features which will change according on the kind of catastrophe, location, etc., as well as the disasters immediate repercussions.events come to pass. Any post-event coping strategies such as disaster management and resilience plans might lessen or amplify these consequences, and the full catastrophe impact is manifested. The system's ability to absorb damage reduces the effect of a catastrophic occurrence on it.Recovery happens quite quickly if the body's absorption capacity is not exceeded. When the absorptive capacity is surpassed, the system either adjusts, which causes recovery to happen rather rapidly, or it doesn't adapt, which causes recovery to happen either slowly or, in the worst circumstances, not at all. The antecedent circumstances are improved before the next occurrence of the catastrophic event if mitigation and preparation take place.

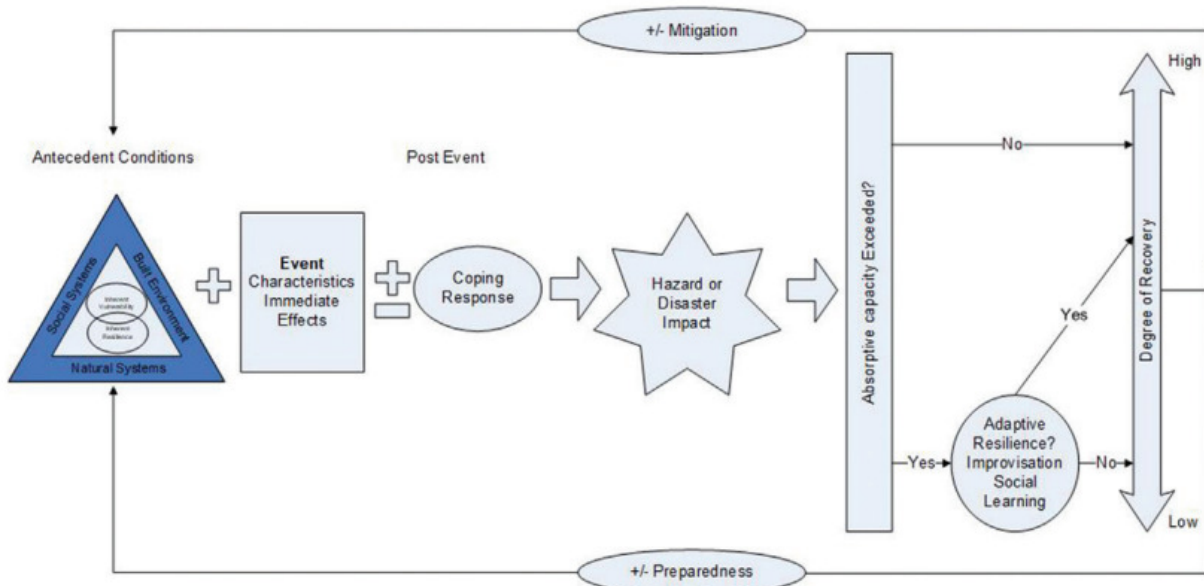


Figure 1: Representing the DROP model[Library Open].

In 2010, Cutter et al. used the DROP model to evaluate the disaster preparedness of communities in the southeast of the United States. They created a variety of metrics to gauge the resilience of social, economic, institutional, infrastructure, and community competence factors. These metrics allowed them to recognize patterns of resilience and pinpoint mitigation tactics to increase community preparedness. The capacity of the DROP model to construct a baseline assessment of the factors that contribute to community resilience, track changes in resilience over time in a specific location, and compare the disaster resilience of several locations was proven by Cutter et al. 2010. In order to evaluate the effects of climate change on community resilience to severe weather events in South-east London, Jones et al. 2013 employed the DROP model Jones & Ali, 2013.

In order to determine a public housing organizations vulnerability and resistance to severe weather events flooding and overheating, Jones et al. 2013 incorporated the DROP models underlying assumptions into a framework for risk assessment. By identifying and incorporating building adaptations into the built asset management process, Jones et al. 2017 showed that even though the DROP model was initially created for a community scale, it could be applied at an organisational scale to identify the vulnerability and improve the resilience of a public housing Organisation Jones et al., 2017. Resilience Assessment and Improvement Framework RAIF was created as a conceptual model for researchers to use in developing the tools that business organisations need to assess their vulnerability to earthquake-induced liquefaction events and improve their resilience to such events as Morga et al. 2020 expanded the application of the DROP model to a wider range of Organisation types.

Application to Workplaces

According to Denyer 2017, organisational resilience refers to an organizations capacity to plan for, react to, and adapt to gradual change as well as rapid shocks. According to Denyer 2017, resilient firms exhibit the capacity to protect their Organisation via proactive management and thoughtful action as well as capitalize on disruptive possibilities through performance optimization and adaptive innovation. Despite this, there is little study on the effects of catastrophic events on organisational resilience, despite the fact that it has a significant influence on both community resilience and organisational survival Gibson & Tarrant, 2010. The RAIF was created especially to provide a framework for making decisions that would assist businesses better understand their vulnerabilities and resilience to catastrophic occurrences.

Understanding Organisational Resilience

The author would contend that organisations for business, both in the public and commercial sectors, have many traits of complex adaptive systems. For the production and delivery of their primary services, business organisations rely on physical assets such as buildings and information and communication technology Hard FM systems; however, at the operational level, they rely on socio-economic assets such as people and money to support their primary services Soft FM systems. Business organisations, however, are also a part of the larger community ecosystem and are dependent on other businesses to survive. supply chain and on supplying the general public with products, services, and jobs business and FM strategy. Additionally, given that corporate organisations are a system of systems, it is important to comprehend how resilient they are to catastrophic occurrences and to find mitigation measures. They must comprehend not just the effects that a catastrophic event might have on their organization's functional performance but also on its relationships with its clients and the larger community before they can take any steps to strengthen their resilience. Business organisations must therefore adopt a hybrid perspective of resilience, where engineering resilience drives the functional performance of the organization's physical assets and social-ecological resilience drives the functional performance of its services and wider business and community relationships.

Theory Underpinning the RAIF

The RAIF offers a collection of tools to assist facilities managers in determining what mitigation and preparation measures should be implemented to lessen vulnerability and increase resilience to a catastrophe occurrence, as well as instructions on how to include these measures into FM strategies and plans. The strategic built asset management model created by Jones and Sharp 2007 and the DROP model Cutter et al., 2008 are combined in the RAIF.

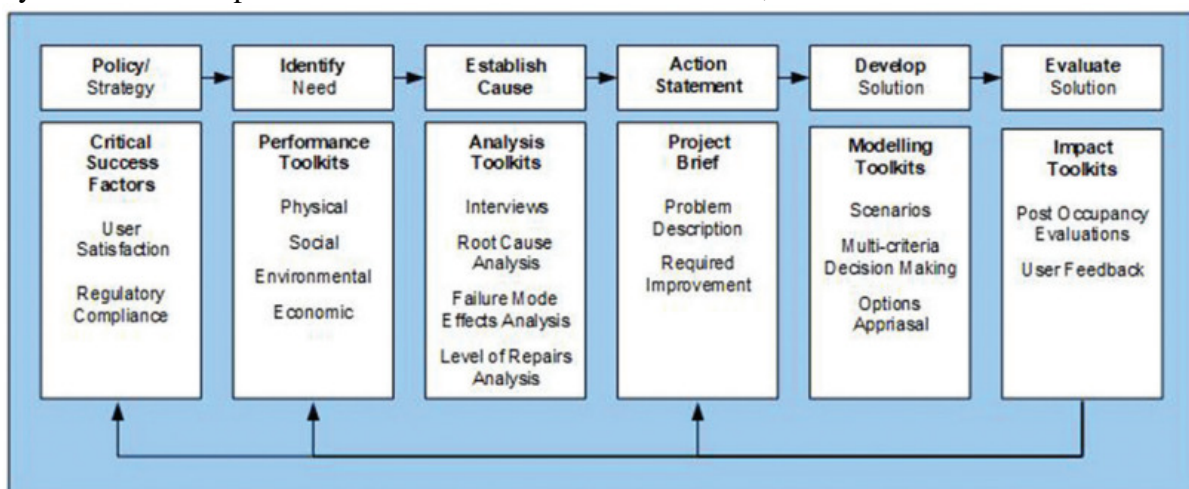


Figure 2: Performance-based built asset management [Library Open].

Through maintenance and renovation, businesses may align their built assets with their strategic requirements. This process is known as strategic built asset management. Strategic built asset management frequently evaluates the built assets of the organizations capacity to fulfil its major business function as indicated via crucial success factors using a variety of key performance indicators.

Analysis toolkits determine the cause of any obsolescence and identify performance improvements required to close the obsolescence gap Action Statement. Performance toolkits measure current performance and identify any obsolescence the difference between current performance and desired performance from a business perspective. Through an Options Appraisal process, modelling toolkits identify potential solutions physical, operational, and organisational in relation to the Action Statements directives, and those that are found to be cost-effective are then incorporated into the organizations strategic built asset management

plans maintenance, renovation, and estate management plans. The RAIF Figure .3 incorporates business resilience planning and catastrophe management into the strategic built asset management process.

The RAIF provides a number of important performance indicators against which the effects of various catastrophe scenarios deterministic studies and risk models probabilistic analyses may be evaluated using a variety of performance toolkits e.g., hazard assessments, resilience scorecards, etc. This gives the facilities manager an evaluation of the organization's historical vulnerability and resilience to a certain catastrophic occurrence.

Once the disaster events characteristics have been modelled, their impact on the functional performance of the Organisation can be evaluated by assessing how those characteristics would affect the organizations operational Soft FM and physical Hard FM performance. No more action is necessary if the organization finds the overall effect of the catastrophic occurrence to be acceptable.

To lessen susceptibility and/or strengthen the organizations resilience to the catastrophic occurrence, mitigation activities physical, operational, and organisational are required if the total effect is undesirable as assessed against the organization's important success criteria. The facilities manager receives a problem statement from this stage, which he or she may use to assess possible mitigation strategies.

Utilizing multi-criteria analysis tools, it is possible to evaluate the potential performance enhancement of various mitigation strategies against a variety of scenarios and compare the results to the organisational critical success factors individual mitigation interventions will affect a variety of performance metrics.

In this step, the facilities manager is given a brief list of potential mitigation measures that can be thoroughly investigated through an options appraisal process. Cost-benefit analyses can then be used to identify the mitigation measures that should be implemented as part of a framework for improving disaster risk reduction. In this step, the facilities manager receives the business cases to assess the potential improvement in functional performance of the disaster mitigation interventions. Additionally, this step supports the integration of the most effective mitigations based on a cost/risk reduction basis into the organization's strategic built asset management plans.

The RAIF offers a conceptual model of organisational resilience to disaster events, but the tools needed to operationalize the model must be created to take into account the unique situations hazard events, impact on functionality, mitigation options, and attitudes towards risk that different Organisations must deal with. It's important not to underestimate how long it takes to convert a conceptual model into an operational one.

The RAIFs operational tools, in instance, required many person-months to design, and although certain risks may already have the operational tools in place, many others do not. A comprehensive application of the RAIF is thus likely out of the question for all but the biggest firms, and it is more probable that small Organisations will be utilised the RAIF as a decision support framework to better comprehend the catastrophic risks they face. Understanding the intricate relationships between the variables that impact an organizations susceptibility, resilience, and adaptive capability is crucial from a research standpoint. In order to provide facilities managers a framework through which they may better understand the effects that a natural catastrophe occurrence has on service delivery, the RAIF takes a built asset-centric viewpoint on disaster resilience. Last but not least, although the RAIF offers a general framework for decision-making that facilities managers can adapt and apply to any disaster event, scenario facilities managers should not underestimate the time and financial resources that an Organisation will need to adapt the RAIF for its specific context and disaster event scenario.

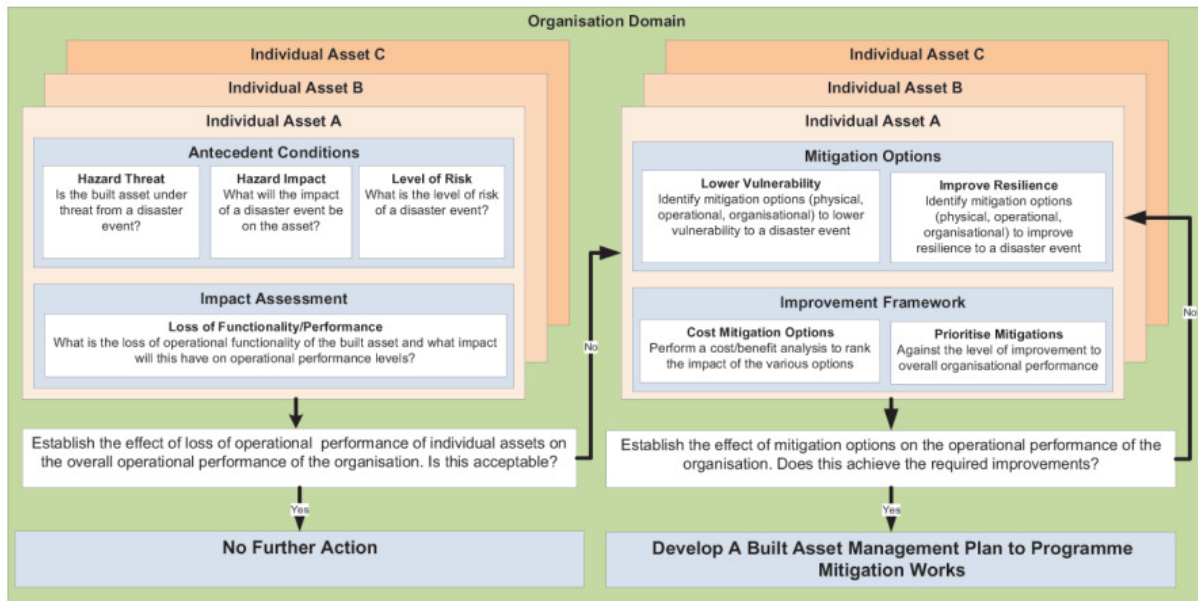


Figure 3: Representing the Resilience Assessment and Improvement Framework [Library Open].

CONCLUSION

Facility managers may improve the resilience of their built environments with the use of the Resilience Assessment and Improvement Framework RAIF and the Model for Disaster Resilience of Place DROP. Facility managers may examine the resilience of their buildings and pinpoint opportunities for improvement using the RAIF, which gives a standardised methodology. Facility managers may get a thorough awareness of the strengths and vulnerabilities of their facilities by taking into account a variety of resilience dimensions, such as the physical, operational, social, and economic elements. Facility managers may address resilience pro-actively by using the RAIF. Facility managers may boost their building's ability to survive calamities and recover by including resilience concerns into the design, construction, and maintenance stages. With this proactive approach, risks potential effects are reduced, and the built environment as a whole is made more resilient. The DROP model also stresses the value of interaction and cooperation with stakeholders. To guarantee coordinated efforts in disaster planning and response, facility managers are expected to collaborate closely with regional communities, emergency management organisations, and other pertinent stakeholders. This cooperative strategy encourages a feeling of shared accountability and makes resilience more all-encompassing and potent. Facility managers may make a significant contribution to the development of disaster-resilient physical environments by using the DROP model and the RAIF. Their actions help to ensure peoples safety and wellbeing, lessen the impact of catastrophes, and promote the long-term viability of communities. The Resilience Assessment and Improvement Framework RAIF and the Model for Disaster Resilience of Place DROP provide facility managers with the skills and techniques necessary to improve the resilience of their built environments. Facility managers may help make communities more sustainable and resilient to catastrophes by integrating resilience concerns into their daily operations.

REFERENCES:

- [1] S. L. Cutter *et al.*, "A place-based model for understanding community resilience to natural disasters," *Glob. Environ. Chang.*, 2008, doi: 10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2008.07.013.
- [2] S. K. Aksha and C. T. Emrich, "Benchmarking Community Disaster Resilience in Nepal," *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, 2020, doi: 10.3390/IJERPH17061985.

- [3] K. O. Twum and M. Abubakari, "Cities and floods: A pragmatic insight into the determinants of households' coping strategies to floods in informal Accra, Ghana," *Jamba J. Disaster Risk Stud.*, 2019, doi: 10.4102/JAMBA.V11I1.608.
- [4] R. M. Adams, D. P. Eisenman, and D. Glik, "Community advantage and individual self-efficacy promote disaster preparedness: A multilevel model among persons with disabilities," *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, 2019, doi: 10.3390/ijerph16152779.
- [5] L. Siebeneck, S. Arlikatti, and S. A. Andrew, "Using provincial baseline indicators to model geographic variations of disaster resilience in Thailand," *Nat. Hazards*, 2015, doi: 10.1007/s11069-015-1886-4.
- [6] N. W. Lazarus, "Re-specifying disaster risk: concepts, methods, and models," *GeoJournal*, 2014, doi: 10.1007/s10708-014-9521-6.
- [7] S. L. Cutter and S. Derakhshan, "Implementing disaster policy: Exploring scale and measurement schemes for disaster resilience," *J. Homel. Secur. Emerg. Manag.*, 2019, doi: 10.1515/jhsem-2018-0029.
- [8] C. Salazar-Briones, J. M. Ruiz-Gibert, M. A. Lomelí-Banda, and A. Mungaray-Moctezuma, "An integrated urban flood vulnerability index for sustainable planning in arid zones of developing countries," *Water (Switzerland)*, 2020, doi: 10.3390/w12020608.
- [9] J. M. Lawrence, N. U. Ibne Hossain, R. Jaradat, and M. Hamilton, "Leveraging a Bayesian network approach to model and analyze supplier vulnerability to severe weather risk: A case study of the U.S. pharmaceutical supply chain following Hurricane Maria," *Int. J. Disaster Risk Reduct.*, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.ijdr.2020.101607.
- [10] S. Pauleit, H. A. El Wafa, and D. O. Pribadi, "Peri-urban agriculture: Lessons learnt from jakarta and addis ababa," *F. Actions Sci. Rep.*, 2019.
- [11] J. Sahani *et al.*, "Hydro-meteorological risk assessment methods and management by nature-based solutions," *Science of the Total Environment*. 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.133936.

CHAPTER 9

STRATEGY-AS-PRACTICE: SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF WORKPLACE DESIGN

Dr. Jayakrishna Herur, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-jayakrishna.udupa@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Strategy-as-Practice is a concept that emphasises the social ramifications of workplace design and how it affects unexpected strategic activities inside Organisations. This viewpoint acknowledges that strategy is not only a top-down, formal procedure but also develops via the routine behaviour and interactions of people and groups at work. An organization's social dynamics, interpersonal interactions, and behavioral patterns are significantly influenced by workplace design. It includes the general working environment as well as the physical layouts, office configurations, and technological infrastructure. These design choices have a significant effect on how employees engage, communicate, and collaborate. The social effects of workplace design are directly related to organisational strategy. Information exchange, knowledge transfer, and invention may all be facilitated or hampered by the physical design and structure of the workplace. Employee engagement, teamwork, and cooperation levels may all be affected. These social factors in turn influence how teams and individuals react to unanticipated opportunities and challenges and how strategic decisions are made. In order to maximize employee productivity and foster strategic agility, Organisations must understand the social consequences of workplace design. Organisations may motivate people to take strategic activities that boost creativity, flexibility, and competitive advantage by fostering an atmosphere of open communication, trust, and cooperation.

KEYWORDS:

Design, Interaction, Organisations, Strategic, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

A unique method for examining organisational strategy that focuses on micro-level social practises is known as strategy-as-practises. Richard Whittington first proposed SaP, which was then expanded into a comprehensive study agenda by Johnson in the early 2000s. The emphasis of strategy studies has switched from strategies something that companies have to strategizing something that Organisations do. As a result, strategy makers came into emphasis instead of Organisations. SaP has its roots in practises theory, an approach that, before being applied to strategy, had been used by social scientists in other disciplines to research the practises of scientists, accountants, and architects. his approach is linked to the larger practises turn in social sciences. Prior to SaP, mainstream strategy research focused on the causal relationships between intentionally made strategic plans and organisational performance results, and statistical techniques of analysis dominated strategy research at the time. The introduction of SaP led strategy researchers to refocus their attention on the strategy makers themselves and on the actual process of strategy creation. The change in emphasis was matched by a switch from quantitative to qualitative methodology, which allowed for observations of the routine behaviour and interactions of strategy practitioners.

This method of doing strategy research has improved our theoretical comprehension of strategy formulation while also providing useful information for strategy practitioners [1]–[3].

The long-term direction that an organization realizes is a widely acknowledged description of what makes up its strategy. This concept leaves room for the idea that not every strategy is consciously designed. As most of the early study in the subject of strategy had this emphasis, it is easy to conceive of strategy making as major choices made by top executives in boardrooms that purposefully affect the long-term path of a company. This understanding of strategy, however, was refuted in the 1980s by data showing that not all organisational strategies were consciously developed. The long-term course that an Organisation actually takes may be the consequence of planning, but it may also be the result of activities that were not included in the official planning process. This is conceivable because the choices and behaviour that influence an organization's trajectory are decisions made by agents outside of the Organisation that may have an impact on decisions that are not merely taken in the boardroom. Despite having an impact on organisational strategy, strategic agents may be found at any level of the organisational hierarchy[4]–[6].

In addition, they are not always operating strategically consciously. Many decisions and actions are taken instinctively in response to everyday problems, which leads to unintentional strategy-making. SaP research has also shown that these instinctive decisions can accumulate into patterns that we eventually recognize as strategic. Emergent strategy is the term used by strategists to describe the unplanned component of a realized strategy. All Organisations exhibit emergent strategies, at least in part. Strategic planning almost seldom yields the long-term direction that an Organisation really follows in reality[7], [8]. In fact, the data shows that emergent strategy becomes increasingly obvious as the Organisation competes in more volatile, unpredictable, and complicated environments. It is more likely that components of the path an Organisation actually takes in practises have developed the quicker the environment changes and the more rapidly strategic plans go out of date. As a result, we now have a far greater grasp of the range of individuals who are purposefully and unwittingly engaged in the strategy-making process, and this understanding has highlighted the social aspect of strategy. SaP academics see strategy as a social phenomenon and strategy implementation as a social achievement [9]–[11].

DISCUSSION

The recognition of strategy-making as a social achievement has sparked SaP experts' interest in social interaction as a crucial analytical unit. According to several studies strategy is created through embodied social interaction. As a result, the interaction profiles who interacts, how often, and for how long found in Organisations have a significant impact on the characteristics of strategy that are realized in practises. The majority of SaP research to date has concentrated on the social interactions of purposefully strategic actors, with new insights being produced in the roles of strategy meetings and away days, the influence of middle managers in strategy making, the use of strategy tools in facilitating specific types of interaction, and the role of strategy professionals. The importance of interaction in emergent strategy has received less attention, despite recommendations for additional SaP research, and it is in this context that the relevance of workplace studies is seen as being especially important.

Applicability to Workplace Studies

Combining workplace design with strategy-as-practice presents possibilities for both groups and has the ability to provide practitioners practical insights. to choices made on workplace layout. Senior corporate executives and other strategists may now be included in the

research's audience, in addition to facilities managers and architects. Workplace studies have the potential to advance our knowledge of how space and spatial arrangements affect strategy, according to SaP researchers. The following there have been several requests to do this in recent years, and some exceptional but rare replies to these requests have been made. The lack of a chapter on space in any of the top strategy books now used in business schools serves as possibly the finest example of how early this subject is. The following may be used to explain the reasoning for collaboration. The patterns of social interaction that take place in companies are influenced by the spatial arrangements that come from workplace design. Because it affects who interacts with whom when making strategic decisions, patterns of social interaction that take place inside companies have an effect on the strategies that are ultimately implemented by such Organisations. There is a shared interest in the causes of social interaction in the workplace at the nexus of these two disciplines.

Research in architecture and workplace design is the main source of proof that the spatial structure of the workplace affects patterns of social interaction. The contemporary workplace is a network of social spaces where individuals are connected by physical infrastructures. These social spaces build the framework under which the social infrastructure of the workplace develops, needed by the way the offices are set up, where the interactions take place. According to Hillier and Hillier & Hanson, the location of each space in respect to all other spaces is known as spatial configuration. According to research, offices may be physically structured in a wide range of ways that can be quantitatively analyzed and compared in an impartial manner. These techniques provide quantifiable measurements of the spatial layout of a workplace, such as integration and segregation. When all areas are easily linked to one another, as may be the case with open-plan offices, workplaces may be highly integrated. In contrast, segregated workplaces develop in poorly linked locations, as can be the case in businesses with cellular offices. It has been shown that these integration indicators have an effect on social interaction. The number of unplanned interactions and interactions across teams tends to increase in more integrated workplaces.

Several additional elements influence the interaction profile that emerges. For instance, proximity increases contact, therefore where individuals are located in the workplace matter. Employees are more likely to engage inside teams and discourage connection between teams if they are placed near to one another, which might result in organisational silos. However, attractors, which are amenities like kitchens that are known to accentuate the organically integrated nature of space by inviting more movement, may be used to promote mobility inside the workplace. Watercoolers, photocopiers, meeting places, breakout areas, and coffee makers are a few examples of attractor items. 'Functional zones' of social contact are created at work by proximity and mobility. Sailer and Thomas look at the link between the workplace's physical layout and the organization's declared goals using quantitative methodologies for understanding space. Wineman et al. investigate the relationship between organisational social structure and spatial layout and how it affects innovation. A metric that may be used to objectively gauge the degree to which spatial and social structures correlate has been further developed from the complicated interaction between an organization's geographical layout and its social structure.

The authors show how socio-spatial correspondence may significantly affect the interaction patterns that lead to Organisation, coming to the conclusion that social structures and spatial layout cannot be separated from one another. It is clear that the spatial arrangements created by workplace design have an effect on the social interaction patterns that take place in businesses. It is uncommon for this study, nevertheless, to take the next logical step and link the social interaction patterns that exist inside firms to the tactics that such Organisations implement. This evidence mostly comes from SaP research, which continually shows the significance of space and spatial arrangements in the workplace via qualitative accounts that

detail how planned and unplanned social contact in the workplace affects strategic results. In three unique sorts of space, Jarzabkowski et al. demonstrate how three forms of strategic work carried out inside a reinsurance broker are socially performed. The social activities that take place in the spaces are demonstrated to be both enabled and constrained by them, with implications for the strategic work undertaken. In three high-end restaurants, Bouty and Gomez show how the spatial entanglements of the workplace affect social connections, which in turn affect the creativity that is readily apparent in such businesses. According to Bouty & Gomez, the authors specifically show that each thread of creativity is related to specific spaces.

The arrangement of these areas contributes to the social integration of working on ideas inside the business. The study results that demonstrate the significance of unexpected contacts for creativity and invention serve as the foundation for this work. New and creative ideas may emerge through encounters with individuals you didn't realize you needed to engage with and interactions beyond organisational boundaries can result in genuine originality. Pinch also demonstrates how the physical layout of the office may affect creative thinking. Pinch, however, emphasises the intricate nature of creativity and its connection to space by positing that the creative act is related neither to one place nor to one specific person, but rather to the intricate and frequently impromptu social interaction made possible by spatial configurations in some sort of spatial system. New sorts of social actions arise as a result of the way space is set up making impromptu contact feasible.

Bucher and Langley demonstrate how venues with various qualities, which they refer to as reflective and experimental, foster social interaction that facilitates strategic change using routine dynamics approaches. The arrangement of these areas and how they interact promote cross-group social contact, which aids in the process of transformation. In contrast, Siebert et al. demonstrate that spatial arrangements that limit social contact to pre-selected groups might actually operate to thwart tactical change, SaP research has shown how social contact affects strategy. According to the data, everyday social contact that is unwittingly strategic has the most influence on the strategies that companies eventually implement. Workplace design should be increasingly crucial to an organization's strategic planning as business settings grow ever more unpredictable, as shown by workplace research that shows how the spatial architecture of the workplace impacts social interaction. As a consequence, the SaP theory's approaches might put workplace design, facilities management, and corporate real estate management on the agendas of organisational leaders.

Methodology

Despite the unmistakable contributions of research in workplace design and SaP, there are still gaps in the prevalent approaches of both fields that impede continued development of a deeper comprehension of how workplace design affects strategy. The methodological contributions and gaps in the two disciplines are discussed in this part in order to better understand how workplace design affects strategy. Strategy-as-Practises largely use qualitative approaches to identify and investigate strategic work. How to identify non-deliberately strategic activity that results in the establishment of long-term organisational orientations has proven to be a particular problem for the SaP community. The SaP research community has used and created three techniques that improve researchers' capacity to identify and analyse both purposeful and emergent strategic activity.

The first makes use of ethnographic approaches, which include the researcher's prolonged immersion in the daily environment lived by strategists. By using ethnographic techniques, SaP researchers have concentrated on the micro-foundations of strategy and the apparently routine daily activity of strategy makers. This has allowed examination of the embodied nature of strategy practises to be included. The second approach makes use of routine analysis, which has improved our capacity to spot interactional and behavioral patterns that

support organisational strategy. According to Feldman & Pentland, routines are repetitive, recognizable patterns of interdependent actions carried out by multiple actors. Although these practises may be effortful, they may also be emergent. SaP academics have been able to pinpoint behaviour and interactions that actively and passively support the organization's long-term goals by examining organisational routines.

Utilizing critical discourse analysis is the third technique. Through the examination of narratives and other organisational discourse forms, this line of study pinpoints strategy work. According to reports, this analytical technique is thought to be especially helpful in locating the brief strategic decisions that lead to emergent strategy. Each of these methodologies has improved the SaP researcher's capacity to recognize intentional and accidental strategic practises, which, in the context of this chapter, gives the researcher the chance to observe and examine the nature of social interaction as well as the physical environment in which these strategic practises take place.

These strategies may close gaps in the approaches normally employed by workplace researchers to analyse how workplace design affects business strategy. Benefits, however, do not just accrue in one direction since the majority of SaP research is conducted using qualitative approaches that are often context-specific, leading to a mostly descriptive examination of space and spatial arrangement. This makes it more difficult to compare space across enterprises objectively.

The emphasis on the micro actions of strategy makers also makes it more difficult to identify possible macro trends or patterns, which makes it more challenging to draw bigger, more general conclusions. These criticisms imply that SaP might benefit from an acknowledged technique for conducting more systematic and consistent analyses of spatial systems.

Comparative approaches may be able to resolve the issues with There have been suggestions to integrate more quantitative analysis in SaP research due to its generalizability. Researchers in the workplace have created quantitative techniques for analysing space and spatial systems, particularly those created by the Space Syntax group.

The late 1970s saw the development of Space Syntax, a social theory of space that is today used in universities and architectural practises all over the globe as a way to quantify the properties of spatial systems.

The sociocracies nature of Space Syntax is significant because it makes the idea of strategy as a social achievement advocated by SaP academics compatible. Space grammar is a theoretical representation of human space that explains how space is organized, how it functions, how it is comprehended, and how it interacts with what we refer to as society.

The Space Syntax technique employs graph theory to define the spatial system using metrics like the degree of integration or segregation, as previously mentioned, and develops a mathematical link between each space and every other space in a geographic system. By incorporating the ideas and techniques employed by strategy-as-practice academics into workplace studies, it may be possible to comprehend the impact that workplace design has on the strategies that are implemented by firms. Working towards this goal would put workplace management and design at the top of boardroom agendas.

Limitations

The issue of detecting strategic behaviour in real time is one of the key constraints of SaP research. A single agential activity or a specific social interaction may only be perceived as having a strategic aspect in retrospect since strategy is defined as patterns of behaviour that an Organisation realizes over the long-term stresses, a board of directors' attendance in lengthy strategy workshops does not ensure that their conclusions would ultimately result in materialized patterns of action for the firm. Equally as important, inadvertently strategic players may influence realized long-term patterns of activity by the way they react to common issues. This implies that every choice or social interaction may only be described as

strategic after the fact. For the SaP group, which has the stated goal of understanding how practitioners do strategy in their regular activities and interactions, the challenge of retrospective attribution is crucial.

This constraint has the effect that although social interaction profiles of potentially strategic players may be investigated in real time, researchers will only be able to determine if the interactions were strategic after the fact. This issue is acknowledged as the constant and unfinished task for social theory and is not exclusive to strategy study. This chapter's suggested cross-disciplinary strategy will not be able to resolve the issue. However, it does have the ability to provide novel viewpoints that bring us one step closer to comprehending the regularity of unforeseen strategic behaviour. For instance, SaP research has shown that firms with various social interaction profiles exhibit varied strategic traits. Investigating a connection between the workplace and the interaction profiles discovered might suggest that the physical layout of the workplace serves as a real-time stand-in for the intricate network of interactions that eventually affects the organization's long-term strategy.

Theory Relevance to Practice

Producing insights that strategy practitioners might use was one of the main goals of the SaP research agenda from the start. Due to its focus on the routine practises of strategy makers, SaP is seen as a complement to conventional strategy research. According to what has already been said, this has led to research that has significant practical relevance on topics like how middle managers contribute to the creation of strategies, how meetings are used, how strategists use tools, how strategists use professionals and consultants, and how strategists use language. This chapter has argued that the importance of space in strategy formulation, especially with respect to emergent strategy, should be included to this list of scientific discoveries with practical application. According to some, SaP is especially well adapted to meet this problem because of its methodologies, which are sensitive to the phenomena of emergent strategy. However, it has also been claimed in this chapter that SaP requires the assistance of the research community in workplace studies in order to comprehend and assess the impacts of space and spatial layout.

Such a study plan may have major practical value since it may provide new information about how workplace design choices may affect the organization's long-term goals. Managers already have an intuitive understanding of this since it is known that office architecture has an impact on who interacts with whom and how often, and that this has an impact on outcomes that are essentially strategic in nature. High-tech corporations often construct enormous open-plan offices that advertise themselves as cathedrals to innovation, for instance. The influence of the workplace layout on social interaction is what makes the difference, according to the architects of these. According to Gehry, Zuckerberg did not want the Facebook headquarters to be too designed. Additionally, it needed to be adaptable to the constantly-evolving nature of his firm it needed to be both collaborative and not impose itself on their open and transparent culture.

Similar to this, Norman Foster stated that the layout of the Apple Inc. HQ in Cupertino, California, with the majority of the staff gathered around a large table rather than in individual offices, was intended to foster collaboration. Of course, there is debate over the effect of these huge open-plan offices. According to Sailer and Thomas, open-plan workplaces provide a dichotomy between perception and reality. Such who really work in such offices tend to genuinely despise working there, in contrast to what some of the world's top architects and the CEOs they work for assert. Research on firms switching to open-plan offices is far from definitive as one-third of studies claim good benefits, one-third show a decline in communication, and the other third is inconclusive. These findings imply the need for new theoretical foundations that would have significant practical application for the interaction between organisational strategy and the workplace.

CONCLUSION

The idea of Strategy-as-Practice underlines the social effects of workplace design and how they influence unforeseen strategic activity inside of enterprises. This point of view recognizes that strategy is not simply a top-down, formal process but also evolves as a result of everyday interactions and interactions between individuals and groups at work. Workplace design has a big impact on how social dynamics, interpersonal relationships, and behavioral patterns are in an Organisation. In addition to the physical layouts, office setups, and technical infrastructure, it covers the overall work environment. These design decisions have a big impact on how workers interact, communicate, and work together. Organisational strategy is intimately tied to the social consequences of workplace design. The physical layout and Organisation of the workplace may either help or hinder knowledge transfer, information sharing, and creation. Levels of collaboration, teamwork, and employee engagement may all be impacted. These social elements then affect how teams, people, and strategic choices are made in response to unforeseen possibilities and obstacles. Organisations must be aware of the social implications of workplace design in order to enhance staff productivity and create strategic agility. By promoting an environment of open communication, trust, and collaboration, Organisations may encourage employees to engage in strategic activities that increase creativity, adaptability, and competitive advantage.

REFERENCES:

- [1] U. Wilkens, "Artificial intelligence in the workplace – A double-edged sword," *International Journal of Information and Learning Technology*. 2020. doi: 10.1108/IJILT-02-2020-0022.
- [2] S. Nijjer and S. Raj, "Social media use in academia," *J. Information, Commun. Ethics Soc.*, 2020, doi: 10.1108/jices-08-2019-0093.
- [3] M. Tu, Z. Cheng, and W. Liu, "Spotlight on the effect of workplace ostracism on creativity: A social cognitive perspective," *Front. Psychol.*, 2019, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01215.
- [4] A. Backhouse and P. Drew, "The design implications of social interaction in a workplace setting," *Environ. Plan. B Plan. Des.*, 1992, doi: 10.1068/b190573.
- [5] T. Foy, R. J. Dwyer, R. Nafarrete, M. S. S. Hammoud, and P. Rockett, "Managing job performance, social support and work-life conflict to reduce workplace stress," *Int. J. Product. Perform. Manag.*, 2019, doi: 10.1108/IJPPM-03-2017-0061.
- [6] T. Wushe and J. Shenje, "The relationship between social media usage in the workplace and employee productivity in the public sector: Case study of government departments in Harare," *SA J. Hum. Resour. Manag.*, 2019, doi: 10.4102/sajhrm.v17i0.1116.
- [7] M. M. Hopkins and R. D. Yonker, "Managing conflict with emotional intelligence: Abilities that make a difference," *J. Manag. Dev.*, 2015, doi: 10.1108/JMD-04-2013-0051.
- [8] C. X. J. Ou, R. M. Davison, X. Zhong, and Y. Liang, "Empowering employees through instant messaging," *Inf. Technol. People*, 2010, doi: 10.1108/09593841011052165.
- [9] J. B. Justesen, P. Eskerod, J. R. Christensen, and G. Sjøgaard, "Implementing workplace health promotion - role of middle managers," *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*. 2017. doi: 10.1108/IJWHM-04-2016-0030.
- [10] K. Amponsah-Tawiah and F. Annor, "Do Personality and Organizational Politics Predict Workplace Victimization? A Study among Ghanaian Employees," *Saf. Health Work*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.shaw.2016.08.003.
- [11] R. Gerards, A. de Grip, and C. Baudewijns, "Do new ways of working increase work engagement?," *Pers. Rev.*, 2018, doi: 10.1108/PR-02-2017-0050.

CHAPTER 10

UNDERSTANDING MULTIFACETED DECISION-MAKING FOR WORKPLACE STRATEGIES

Dr. Lakshmi Prasanna Pagadala, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-lakshmi.prasanna@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The Theory of Decision-Making examines the complex nature of organisational decision-making processes and emphasises how taking a complete approach may help create successful workplace strategies. Making decisions is a crucial part of organisational management since it entails choosing the best course of action from a variety of options in order to accomplish desired results. The goal of this abstract is to go further into the idea of decision-making and how it may be used to create strategies for the workplace. It tries to investigate the many decision-making components, such as cognitive, emotional, social, and environmental elements, and how they all affect decision-making as a whole. Organisations may adopt a comprehensive strategy that includes diverse views, analytical tools, and decision-making models by acknowledging the complexity of decision-making. This method guarantees a more thorough review of the information available, risks, and possible outcomes while acknowledging the variety of variables that influence choices. The significance of include stakeholders in decision-making processes will also be covered in the abstract. Organisations may improve the quality of decision-making and promote stakeholder buy-in and support for ensuing workplace policies by requesting feedback from various people and groups inside the Organisation as well as taking into account outsider opinions.

KEYWORDS:

Approach, Decision, Stakeholder, Strategy, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

In the middle of the 20th century, the phrase decision-making was borrowed from the field of public administration and introduced to the corporate sector. Numerous academic fields, including mathematics, sociology, psychology, biology, economics, and political science, have investigated decision-making. Business management and organisational behaviour are the fields that are especially relevant to the workplace. When it comes to management decision-making, there are often two opposed viewpoints known as generations. The first generation makes the erroneous assumption that humans are endowed with perfect reason, leading to the development of normative judgmental techniques based on numerical values and utilitarian considerations. Although these theories began with the notion of perfect rationality, they soon came to embrace the idea of bounded rationality, which states that there are many cognitive agents that affect a person's decisions, such as access to information, computational ability, and other environmental factors. Contrarily, the second acknowledges the importance of personal emotions in any decision-making process [1]–[3].

According to the latter perspective, qualitative problem-solving and solution mediation processes are impacted by the decision-makers' styles, backgrounds, personalities, and prior experiences. These generations may be categorized as hard systems approaches or soft

systems approaches, respectively. As an alternative paradigm to traditional perspectives of decision-making, the multiple viewpoint approach (MPA) may be seen as a significant revamp. Technical, organisational or social, and personal or individual views on an issue are among those that MPA aims to sweep in under a unbounded system thinking. According to this method, several technical perspectives of a system should be combined via the acquisition of data and close examination using analytical models. Additionally, as many stakeholders and sources as feasible should be included in the collection of the organisational and individual viewpoints. The interdependencies and reciprocal effects of perspectives are given particular emphasis by MPA. Despite the fact that MPA has not been explicitly legislated, it has 'Messy' situations that are marked by are described as holistic and all-encompassing, and are particularly ideal as a generic analytical framework for usage on Uncertainty and conflict. This method establishes a collection of general concepts that may be applied to other situations outside of the one in which it was originally established, acting as a changeable knowledge base. The fundamental concepts of Strategic Decision Making (SDM), Stakeholder Approach, and Multiple Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA), within which MPA is founded, are used in management situations to illustrate how MPA might assist workplace choices in this chapter[4]–[7].

DISCUSSION

The process by which decisions that result in major long-term effects and the commitment of large resources are actually implemented is referred to as SDM. Given that the future is somewhat uncertain, SDM provides useful tools to produce longer-term judgements that are more correct, even if they are merely based on a collection of broad assumptions. By its very nature, SDM distributes resources, mostly financial ones, in the present to set up rewards in the future. Unlike operational or tactical decision-making, SDM takes longer time horizons into account. When used in the context of the built environment, SDM seems to be more relevant to real estate choices when taking into account long-term investments in the building than to workplace decisions where changes occur more often. Additionally, there are often more factors to consider when making a decision than just maximizing financial value. Multiple Criteria Decision Making or Analysis (MCDM or MCDA), which identifies the decision alternatives, generates and selects solutions, and evaluates the tools designed to support decisions involving either one or several decision makers acknowledges the existence of various conflicting criteria in various decision-making settings[8].

However, MCDA often fails to properly identify and include stakeholders and seems to be utilised more as an assessment tool than a design approach. The stakeholder model as put out by Free, albeit not without criticism, might get over these restrictions. Although the concept of stakeholders acknowledges the presence of several constituencies, their interests are nevertheless often solely seen in economic and financial terms. The role of developing a single-valued aim as a synthesis for efficient decision-making is absent from stakeholder theory per se since it does not specify principled criteria for decision-making. The Multiple Perspective Strategic Choice Making theory, which the authors of this chapter advocate for use in choice contexts relating to the workplace, combines and advances these three strategies[9]–[11].

Strategic Decision Making from Multiple Perspectives: Key Ideas and Challenges

You may think of Multiple Perspective Strategic Decision Making (MPSDM) as one of the many streams that make up the overall SDM methodology. In order to bridge the gap between theoretical analysis and action in the real world, the multiple viewpoint method was developed between the late 1970s and the early 1980s by operation researchers and system practitioners. The initial military applications came from the United States. System choices, regional development, planning for the healthcare and education sectors, predicting and evaluating the energy sector, and corporate policy decisions. The use of numerous

viewpoints, such as the aforementioned T, O, and P, is based on them basic presumptions that each viewpoint contributes distinctive insights to the others and that the O and P views assist close the gap between analysis and action, which are the phases of a decision process that are primarily focused on T. This technique, which integrates T, O, and P, offers a particular three-dimensional perspective to handle frequent problems faced in real-world systems needing decision-making. Although there is no established methodology or formula for this theory, it can be supported by rules for applying the concept (Figure.1), such as those re-elaborated by Wainfan for the RAND Corporation under the definition of Multiple Perspective Strategic Decision Making (MPSDM), which are as follows:

1. Define the issue, specifically.
2. Framing the strategic challenge with suitable scorecards.
3. Addressing numerous points of view in the study by investigating both objective and perspectivesubjective characteristics concurrently.
4. Reducing the complexity of the issue at hand by assigning dimensions to uncertainties and viewpoints in order to provide a collection of options that can be contrasted and combined.
5. Formulating a plan based on careful study, including communication and execution via briefing, while taking into account requirements for flexibility for any future adjustments.
6. MPSDM is thus founded on a number of ideas. It promotes systematization of a wide range of stakes, first. The idea behind it is that decision-makers could never come to an agreement.
7. Values or what people think is significant.
8. Opinions, or the unique mental models that describe how the world functions.
9. Anticipations, or a person's idea of how the future will play out. However, it suggests a number of approaches to categories various stakeholders, take into account their viewpoints, and identify a shared point of agreement among them.

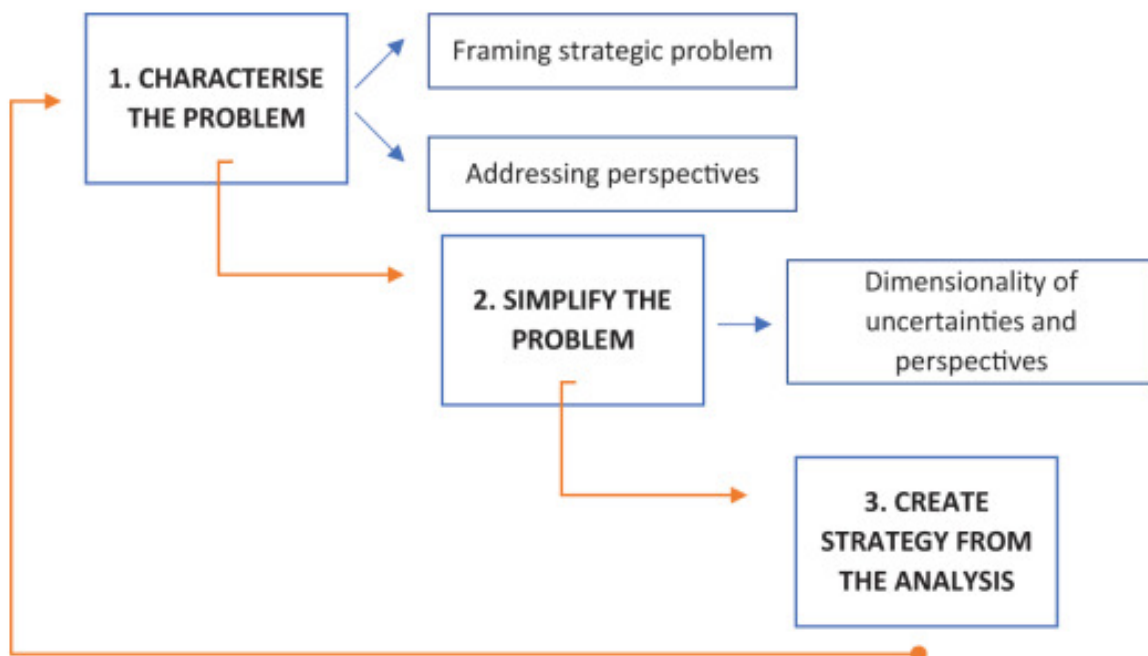


Figure 1: Representing the MPSDM approach [Library Open].

Second, it is evident that this paradigm encourages the use of several disciplines and methods in issue resolution. Actually, in the so-called T-O-P Balance, the examined Technical (T), Organisational (O), and Personal (P) viewpoints depend on various disciplinary domains and

enquiring styles. T exemplifies the logical problem-solving strategy often used in research and engineering, where data is processed quantitatively. O and P stand for the arbitrary opinions of people, namely the individuals or groups both official and informal participating in the choices, when data is acquired, for instance, by qualitative techniques like interviews, surveys, or other means.

Although they have been included into later iterations of the model, ethical and aesthetic viewpoints have not yet been fully specified. Third, after certain elements have been discovered to affect the choosing of choices, the technique is iterative and suggests recurrent examination and group debate. Finally, by developing a strategy from analysis, this methodology shows that strategy does not just relate to making a decision but also to forging forward.

The multi-perspective strategic decision-making method looks to be a helpful support for workplace management practises and research as a result of these solid conceptual underpinnings, as the next section shall elaborate. Its focus on the many views that define the players participating in the process, in particular, might provide fresh perspectives on workplace operations.

Adaptation of MPSDM to Workplace Management

In conclusion, it is strongly advised that strategic decision-making in the workplace be done using a systematic multiple-perspective paradigm since it can:

1. Increase the number of participants to include a variety of viewpoints.
2. Using a systematic set of values that might encompass social, environmental, and economic factors using both quantitative and qualitative criteria, direct the development of workplace strategy.
3. Coordinate the decision-making process for a workplace plan using a systematic approach that is based on the study of various circumstances and demands.
4. Three major methodological steps make up the theory presented in this chapter (Figure .2).

As it emphasises the close relationship between the analytical phase and the implementation phase via the ongoing participation of stakeholders, this theory extends earlier research and hypotheses on MCDA and CRE alignment models.

This theory supports conventional stakeholder methods by going beyond simple stakeholder identification and description to include them in the development of a workplace strategy.

The Preference-based Accommodation Strategy (PAS), developed by Arestin, may be connected to this idea. While this MPSDM delves into the workplace component to enable workplace strategy generation, PAS applies at the CREM level with the aim of aligning the portfolio to the overall corporate strategy.

Methodology

It is important to establish the suggested MPSDM theory's viability before applying it to workplace tactics. Then, Tan et al, for example, affirm four aspects or factors of RE/FM alignment using a questionnaire. Senior specialists in the fields of FM and real estate/property, many of whom operate at strategic levels and represent numerous nations, would grade the concept's level of applicability, completeness, robustness, and soundness on a five-point Likert scale.

To address the topic of how to develop, form, and make a workplace strategy based on an MPSDM approach, more research should be conducted to assess the applicability of this theory. Empirical research methods have typically been employed by academics to examine the subject in the decision-making area and when applying versions of the MPSDM model in various situations.

For instance, pilot studies have been created to test Preference-based Accommodation Strategy (PAS) design in a university campus with the participation of four main stakeholder

categories, such, as well as to measure facility performance in local government with the participation of four stakeholder groups, such as in.

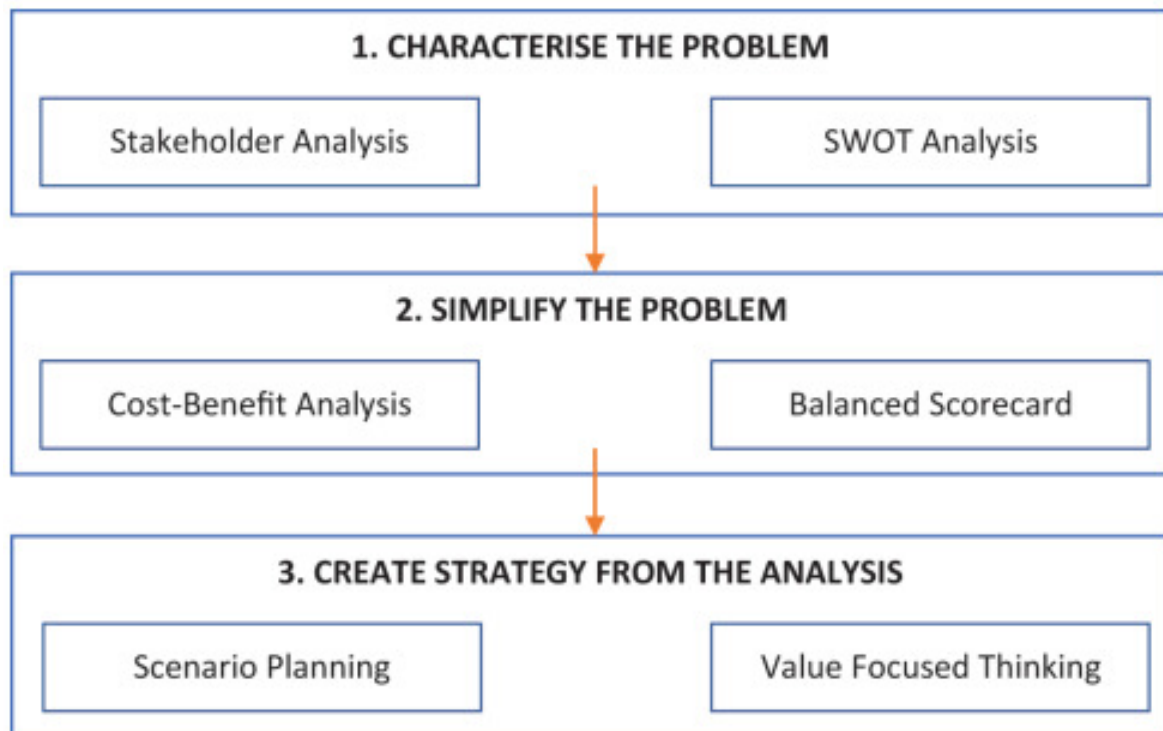


Figure 2: Reprising the Three strategic phases of workplace decisions[Library Open].

Overall, it is advised to conduct multiple-case research in order to get more insightful findings than to apply a pilot to a single example, which runs the risk of revealing context-dependent findings. The stakeholders who will ultimately benefit from the theory and its associated application must also be consulted in order to confirm the applicability of this strategy. In this context, Arkesteijn has conducted interview rounds and ethnographic approaches, building once more on soft operations research methodologies that investigate:

1. Interviews with people who have used the approach.
2. The approach's allure. and efficiency of the procedure in both.
3. Participants' observations.
4. Participants' views, i.e., researchers.

The MPSDM hypothesis might be tested using similar research methods as well. To assess the efficacy of the final workplace strategy's execution, ideally, a second verification step would be required. By conducting Post-Occupancy Evaluations and monitoring the previously established KPIs throughout the execution of the plan until the adoption of workplace design and management solutions, the latter aim would be addressed. The suggested theory's use would promote research into the perspectives that may control over workplace administration. There is a shortage of cogent research on users and stakeholders in the workplace on user-centered design thinking. First, using stakeholder analysis techniques would encourage the participation of more stakeholders in business decisions, as various writers have argued. However, participation in these events is not always properly planned, and as a result, results are often weak.

All necessary stakeholders in a workplace plan or project would be represented by the systematic implementation of MPSDM. Second, MPSDM would encourage stakeholders to be categorized in more precise ways. Instead, then classifying stakeholders' groups in a deductive manner based on presumptions and habits such as organisational charts and the like, MPSDM recommends inducing stakeholders' groups via individual analysis. It could be insightful to examine the values, opinions, and goals of stakeholders in the workplace on an

individual basis. These paradigms may be examined with certain surveys, interviews, or focus groups, but ethnographic and action research approaches that include watching over or taking part in workplace decision-making are even more effective. Stronger connections between the decision-making process and the implementation stages that follow the development of a workplace strategy would result from more study on the use of MPSDM concepts in the workplace setting.

CONCLUSION

In order to establish effective workplace tactics, the Theory of Decision-Making emphasises the need of using a diverse approach to decision-making. Making decisions is a difficult process that is impacted by a variety of environmental, social, emotional, and cognitive elements.

Organisations may improve the quality and efficacy of their decision-making processes, resulting in the creation of more effective workplace strategies, by taking into account these variables and using a holistic strategy.

The incorporation of numerous viewpoints, the collecting of varied information, the use of various analytical tools, and the use of distinct decision-making models are all components of a multifarious approach to decision-making. This method acknowledges that choices are not just based on logical analysis but also take into account social and emotional factors as well as the specific organisational situation.

Organisations may use the expertise, experience, and viewpoints of stakeholders by including them in the decision-making process to produce choices that are more inclusive and well-informed.

This encourages a feeling of ownership and commitment among stakeholders, boosting the possibility that workplace plans will be successfully implemented. Additionally, an organised and methodical approach to decision-making, including the use of scenario analysis and decision frameworks, helps organisations to weigh several possibilities, foresee possible hazards, and make well-informed decisions.

This lessens the influence of biases and improves the precision of forecasts, resulting in stronger and more efficient workplace tactics. The Theory of Decision-Making places a strong emphasis on the significance of taking into account various decision-making factors and how they affect business strategy.

Organisations may handle complexity, make wise choices, and create strategies that are in line with their aims and objectives by adopting a multidimensional approach. Ultimately, the organization's capacity to adapt to change, take advantage of opportunities, and achieve long-term success is improved by the use of the Theory of Decision-Making in the creation of workplace strategies. Organisations may design methods that promote good outcomes in the workplace by recognising the intricacies of decision-making and applying a complete strategy.

REFERENCES:

- [1] K. W. Eva *et al.*, "Towards a program of assessment for health professionals: from training into practice," *Adv. Heal. Sci. Educ.*, 2016, doi: 10.1007/s10459-015-9653-6.
- [2] L. Campbell, I. Novak, S. McIntyre, and S. Lord, "A KT intervention including the evidence alert system to improve clinician's evidence-based practice behavior-a cluster randomized controlled trial," *Implement. Sci.*, 2013, doi: 10.1186/1748-5908-8-132.
- [3] O. A. Elrahman, "Technical note: Workzone safety for hearing-impaired transportation workers -A decision making support tool," *Road Transp. Res.*, 2010.
- [4] D. McCloskey, "Other Things Equal - Economical Writing: An Executive Summary," *East. Econ. J.*, 1999.
- [5] P. Abdolrezapour *et al.*, *Politeness in Historical and Contemporary Chinese*. 2011.
- [6] T. Rhodes and M. W. Morgaine, "Show Me the Learning," *Res. Facil. ...*, 2009.

- [7] B. L. Rinehart, "How Christian leaders become their best-self: A generic qualitative study," 2016.
- [8] E. H. Chang and K. L. Milkman, "Improving decisions that affect gender equality in the workplace," *Organizational Dynamics*, 2020. doi: 10.1016/j.orgdyn.2019.03.002.
- [9] B. Cuesta-Briand *et al.*, "Understanding the factors influencing junior doctors' career decision-making to address rural workforce issues: Testing a conceptual framework," *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, 2020, doi: 10.3390/ijerph17020537.
- [10] K. E. Toth and C. S. Dewa, "Employee Decision-Making About Disclosure of a Mental Disorder at Work," *J. Occup. Rehabil.*, 2014, doi: 10.1007/s10926-014-9504-y.
- [11] H. Thampy, E. Willert, and S. Ramani, "Assessing Clinical Reasoning: Targeting the Higher Levels of the Pyramid," *J. Gen. Intern. Med.*, 2019, doi: 10.1007/s11606-019-04953-4.

CHAPTER 11

ALIGNMENT THEORY FOR CRE AND WORKPLACE

Dr. Akhila Udupa, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-akhila.udupa@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The Alignment Theory for Corporate Real Estate CRE and Workplace emphasises the significance of matching organisational objectives and strategies with the physical workplace. The main ideas and tenets of alignment theory are examined, along with how they apply to CRE management. The central tenet of Alignment Theory that organisational behavior, culture, and performance are significantly influenced by the physical environment is discussed in the abstract. It highlights the need of having a strategic alignment between the demands of the organization's workers, its goals, and the workplace itself. The different alignment-related topics, such as geographical alignment, functional alignment, cultural alignment, and experience alignment. It draws attention to how these aspects are interrelated and how they affect worker well-being, productivity, and engagement.

The approach of creating alignment in CRE and workplace management is also covered in the abstract. It goes through how crucial it is to comprehend organisational goals, carry out requirements analyses, and include stakeholders in order to create a thorough plan for coordinating the physical workplace with the aims of the Organisation.

KEYWORDS:

Alignment, Design, Organisational, Strategy, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

According to the Shorter Oxford Dictionary definitions, alignment is the process of making things that are inconsistent or in disagreement with one another harmonious. Strategic alignment is known as the link between an organization's overall goals and the goals of each of the units that contribute to the success of those overall goals, according to Andersen highlight the importance of organisational alignment or fit between internal and external organisational factors as a common theme and distinctive focus in the management literature, demonstrating how alignment theory has indeed become a thread of strategic management thinking.

They conclude that alignment can be understood from the following three dominant perspectives, which rest on a different set of agreements about how organisations learn and perform: process, relational, and strategic. They state that there is a significant lack of agreement on a discrete definition of alignment. In addition, they categories organisational alignment into five categories: environment alignment, cultural alignment, vertical alignment, structural alignment, and horizontal alignment [1][2]–[4].

Strategic management, strategic alignment theory, and organisational performance evaluation are the origins of alignment theory in corporate real estate and the workplace. For example, human resources and information technology, corporate real estate and workplace, along with other organisational infrastructure functions like human resources and information technology, have all independently wrestled with questions of their relationship with organisational strategy and performance. Corporate Infrastructure Integrated Resource Infrastructure Solutions take into account the interrelationships between various

infrastructure services. Questions about future organisational aims and performance, as well as their role in supporting that, are common to all of them. These inquiries concern the physical settings and administration of the organization's workplace and corporate real estate. Mintzberg et al. highlight many schools or interpretations of what strategy is and their approaches within the context of strategic management in their book *Strategy Safari*. The Design and Positioning Schools, which 'prescribe' strategy and its methodologies, are two schools that are often represented in corporate real estate and workplace alignment. Porter, Norton, and Kaplan are members of these supposedly prescriptive techniques. Although they aren't addressed in *Strategy Safari*, Kaplan and Norton may be added to the Design School, with Porter serving as its primary exemplar school. In these prescription strategies, the strategy is the result of the strategy design process, and the emphasis is on the optimal procedures and contents for strategies. The work on organisational core competences by Prahalad and Hamel, which is a component of the descriptive schools of strategy, belongs to the Learning School. The construction of a strategy is taken into consideration, and descriptive schools explain how a strategy is developed in practice. They underline the ongoing nature of strategy formulation and reject the notion that a strategy is a finished, separate product that is just ready to be put into action. The prescribing Design and Positioning of Schools are covered in this chapter [5]–[7].

DISCUSSION

Case study instructors at Harvard were the school's supporters when Selznick founded it in 1957. A match between internal Strengths S and Weaknesses W and external Opportunities O and Threats T is the goal of SWOTed by strategy, as described by Mintzberg et al. The benefits of this viewpoint include being clear-cut and uncomplicated, requiring little preparation, and providing a framework for thoughts; yet, Mintzberg et al. claim that it has developed into a ritual that is often used but also exploited. The authors claim that while this school's intended message is fit, its actual message is thinking. Congruence, unique competency, competitive advantage, SWOT, formulation, and execution are the school's main words. This school's procedures are well-organized, its administration is strict and unforgiving, and its setting is convenient. This school's contextual component is distinct it may be broken down into economic, technological, social, etc. and stable. 'Machine-like' is a description of organisational structure that denotes a more centralized and regimented approach to strategy [8], [9].

There are drawbacks to the Design School as well. There is no consensus about SWOTs since there is no such thing as a general SWOT. For instance, would the current strengths and weaknesses also apply to other current and future activities? SWOT analyses overestimate possibilities and strengths, which supports the status quo. It breaks through corporate culture, defines strengths and flaws using many criteria, is motivated by anecdotes, and the statements are difficult to corroborate. The borders between Organisations and surroundings are sometimes unclear, the vulnerabilities are veiled, and the threats and weaknesses are often misinterpreted. Opportunities and dangers are unrelated to strengths and limitations. When metrics and criteria are made clear, when SWOTs are prioritized, when outside consultants are utilised, and when SWOTs are stated and supported, SWOTs may be improved.

The Balanced Scorecard BSC, developed by Kaplan and Norton, is a component of the Design School since it places an equal focus on assessing both internal and external circumstances. The BSC is founded on the idea that just financial performance indicators are unreliable and ineffective for making forward-looking management choices. The financial, customer, internal process, and innovation performance aspects are the four performance factors that make up the balanced score. Because firms have obligations to several stakeholder groups, including workers, suppliers, consumers, the community, and shareholders, it examines these aspects. Both forward and backward facing dimensions are

included. The BSC has origins in organisational behaviour, strategic management, sociology, and other fields. It is the managerial counterpart of stakeholder theory. In the Design School, alignment refers to the process of comparing strengths and weaknesses, possibilities and rewards, or the four dimensions of financial, customer, internal process, and external process and creativity[10].

Design School and Alignment

Case study instructors at Harvard were the school's supporters when Selznick founded it in 1957. A match between internal Strengths S and Weaknesses W and external Opportunities O and Threats T is the goal of SWOTed by strategy, as described by Mintzberg et al. The benefits of this viewpoint include being clear-cut and uncomplicated, requiring little preparation, and providing a framework for thoughts; yet, Mintzberg et al. claim that it has developed into a ritual that is often used but also exploited. The authors claim that while this school's intended message is fit, its actual message is thinking. Congruence, unique competency, competitive advantage, SWOT, formulation, and execution are the school's main words. This school's procedures are well-organized, its administration is strict and unforgiving, and its setting is convenient. This school's contextual component is distinct it may be broken down into economic, technological, social, etc. and stable. 'Machine-like' is a description of organisational structure that denotes a more centralized and regimented approach to strategy. There are drawbacks to the Design School as well. There is no consensus about SWOTs since there is no such thing as a general SWOT. For instance, would the current strengths and weaknesses also apply to other current and future activities? SWOT analyses overestimate possibilities and strengths, which supports the status quo. It breaks through corporate culture, defines strengths and flaws using many criteria, is motivated by anecdotes, and the statements are difficult to corroborate. The borders between Organisations and surroundings are sometimes unclear, the vulnerabilities are veiled, and the threats and weaknesses are often misinterpreted. Opportunities and dangers are unrelated to strengths and limitations. When metrics and criteria are made clear, when SWOTs are prioritized, when outside consultants are utilised, and when SWOTs are stated and supported, SWOTs may be improved. The Balanced Scorecard BSC, developed by Kaplan and Norton, is a component of the Design School since it places an equal focus on assessing both internal and external circumstances.

The BSC is founded on the idea that just financial performance indicators are unreliable and ineffective for making forward-looking management choices. The financial, customer, internal process, and innovation performance aspects are the four performance factors that make up the balanced score. Because firms have obligations to several stakeholder groups, including workers, suppliers, consumers, the community, and shareholders, it examines these aspects. Both forward and backward facing dimensions are included. The BSC has origins in organisational behaviour, strategic management, sociology, and other fields. It is the managerial counterpart of stakeholder theory. In the Design School, alignment refers to the process of comparing strengths and weaknesses, possibilities and rewards, or the four dimensions of financial, customer, internal process, and external process and creativity.

Positioning School and Alignment

The Positioning School views the development of a strategy as an analytical issue that requires data. Porter's work, which epitomizes this school, was inspired by the industrial Organisation theory and the behaviour of industries in economics. By extension, how to function or place oneself within that industry is the issue for each individual Organisation. The needed analysis comprises two components:

1. External to the Organisation and articulated as five industry factors that have an impact on a firm's operations: customers, suppliers, new entrants, substitutes which

have effects similar to those of the firm's goods, and competition between businesses in the industry.

2. Internal to the company in terms of value-adding operations carried out by a business's internal organisational components, such as logistics, marketing, and firm infrastructure.

The assessments provide three defendable generic tactics in comparison to other companies in the sector. Cost lowest cost producer, distinctiveness brand and other intangibles give value to consumers, and focus the scope of the targeted market - large or specific are these general tactics. By using the lowest cost manufacturer, products and services may be successfully priced below those of rivals.

According to Porter 1980, these tactics lead a competitive advantage that can be sustained. According to The Positioning School, developing a general strategy for the company requires top management to analyse the market.

This generic strategy is then executed at lower levels of the organization's business units and organisational roles, such as CRE or workplace management.

As a result, alignment is a top-down process. While this school's intended message is analysis, Mintzberg et al. 1998 claim that the actual message is calculate. Generic strategy, strategic group, competitive analysis, portfolio, and experience curve are some of this school's major phrases. Processes at the school are analytical, methodical, and intentional, and leadership reacts to the analysis. Here, the contextual dimension is elementary, reliable, and experienced. This suggests a more organized and centralized approach to strategy even if the organisational shape is described as a huge machine, ideally in mass or commodity manufacturing.

Workplace Alignment Models

There has not yet been a comparison of workplace alignment models, to the authors' knowledge. However, a number of models were created and used by design and consulting companies, with DEGW serving as the primary participant since 1973. Using the cutting-edge technologies of space budgeting, post occupancy evaluation POE, and participatory briefing, DEGW has been enthusiastic about architecture and integrated building and organisational design. As an early model for workplace alignment, their combined design and research efforts produced the so-called DEGW Den concept Figure 1.

Organisations are determined by the kind of work performed, the mostly used procedures, and the physical environments necessary. In *The New Office*, Duffy argued that flattened hierarchies, important information technology developments, the focus on collaboration and cross-functional contact, and service-led economies were fundamentally changing organisational work patterns.

The rationale of workplace layouts was altered as a result.

Prior to it, the design was mostly centred on organisational structure and hierarchy. Interaction and autonomy are the two main factors that influence the work of any Organisation as a result of the emphasis on work processes. These factors when combined resulted in the four primary labour patterns of hives, cells, dens, and clubs. This model is a part of the Positioning School methodology since it analyses how work processes result in work patterns, which alter office layout. The four fundamental work patterns are comparable to the general tactics taught at the school. The Human Experience Model HX is a more contemporary model for workplace alignment that was created in practise. According to this study, one of the fundamental differentiators in how people interact with an Organisation is the ability to decode, or comprehend, the human experience for real estate. Employee experience is similar to consumer experience in that it focuses on how a person interacts with their colleagues and their surroundings physical, virtual, and even spiritual. This design has three.

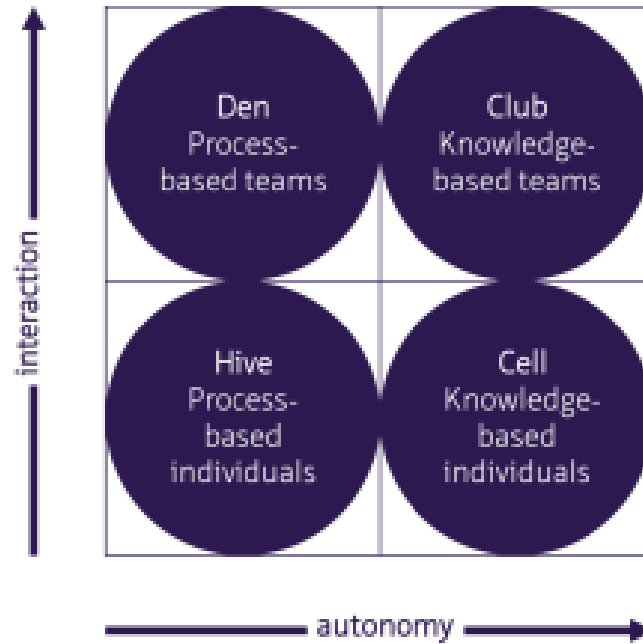


Figure 1: DEGW’s Den model organisational demands reflect the processes undertaken [Library Open].

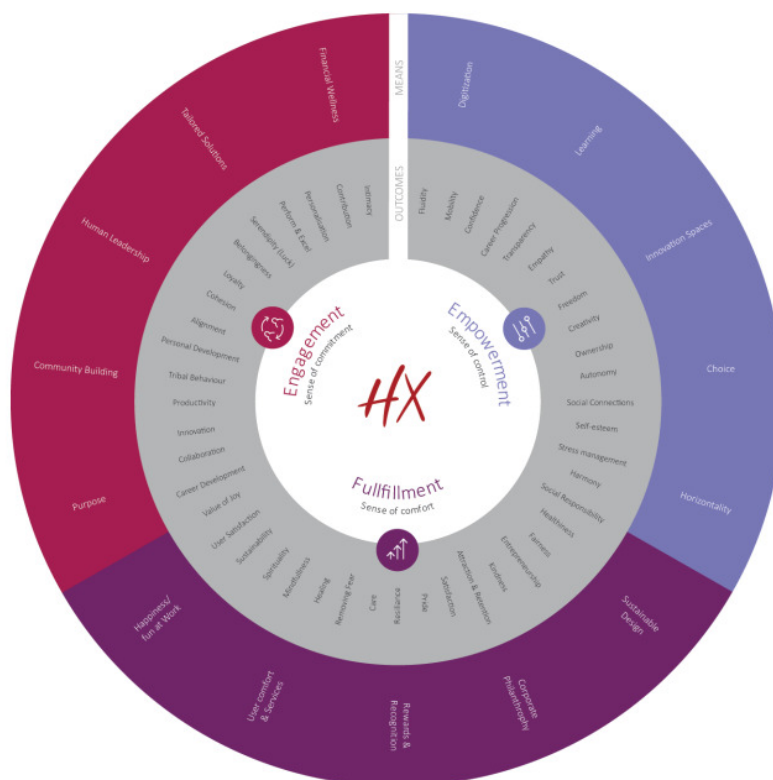


Figure 2: Representing the human experience model [Library Open].

Engagement, empowerment, and fulfilment are the experience pillars, often known as priorities see Figure 2. Engagement has to do with encouraging a feeling of commitment, which motivates workers' productivity and effectiveness. People who feel empowered in their workplace perform better because they feel in control of their surroundings. Work should feel comfortable beyond the degree of satisfaction on the surface. The results and methods associated with each of these pillars. The decoding of human experience may be understood

as analysing human experience and then connecting it to workplace components according to this concept from the Design School. Some distinctions are clear from these instances. The HX model emphasises on the methods and results to be taken into consideration while constructing the physical environment, in contrast to DEGW's model, which focuses on various work patterns that are related to the physical environment via the selected metaphors. These models aid practitioners in concentrating on the elements that they must take into account while aligning workplaces. Even though organisational performance is a key component of the CRE alignment models, not all fourteen of them share the same fundamental philosophy. Some models adopt a shareholder viewpoint and concentrate primarily on financial value, while others adopt a stakeholder perspective and concentrate on other views, or different sorts of values. Over time, the emphasis has evolved from efficiency, effectiveness, productivity, innovation, greenness, smartness, health and well-being, and pleasure to experience the emphasis in Organisations has changed from involvement to productivity and to experience now

CONCLUSION

The importance of coordinating the physical environment with organisational aims and strategies is highlighted by the Alignment Theory for Corporate Real Estate CRE and the workplace. The idea places a strong emphasis on the interconnection of the spatial, functional, cultural, and experiential alignment aspects and their effects on worker satisfaction, output, and wellbeing. Organisations may reap a number of significant advantages by using Alignment Theory in CRE and workplace management. First, better alignment results in happier employees since their demands are met and their working environment is enhanced. Increased productivity and efficiency result from this. Additionally, alignment encourages improved staff engagement and communication, dismantling organisational divisions and fostering a feeling of cohesion. Employees have a greater connection to their job and are more driven to contribute to the overall success of the organisation when the physical workplace reflects the organization's culture and values. Alignment Theory also emphasises the need of constant assessment and modification to preserve alignment as organisational demands change. In order to discover opportunities for development and make sure that the environment continues to support the organization's aims and objectives, regular evaluations of the physical workplace and employee input are helpful. Alignment Theory's use in CRE and workplace management results in a more strategic and goal-oriented approach overall. It helps businesses to design workplaces that are consistent with their mission, goals, and values, leading to improved productivity, teamwork, and organisational performance, among other favourable effects. For organisations looking to build a supportive and aligned work environment, Alignment Theory provides a useful paradigm for CRE and workplace management. Organisations may improve performance, encourage employee engagement, and realise their strategic goals by taking into account the numerous alignment factors and routinely assessing and modifying the physical workplace.

REFERENCES:

- [1] J. A. Laub, "Assessing the servant organization; Development of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) model. Dissertation Abstracts International," *Procedia - Soc. Behav. Sci.*, 1999.
- [2] D. Christopher Heywood and D. Waddell, "Pacific Rim Real Estate Society (PRRES) Conference The Cre Toolbox: Addressing Persistent Issues In Corporate Real Estate Management," 2009.
- [3] D. Christopher Heywood and D. Waddell, "The CRE Toolbox: Addressing Persistent Issues In Corporate Real Estate Management," 2009.
- [4] Ronald Beckers, "Corporate Real Estate Alignment Strategies in Dutch Higher Education," 2014. doi: 10.15396/eres2014_23.

- [5] C. Heywood and M. Arkesteijn, "Analysing fourteen graphical representations of corporate real estate alignment models," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2018, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-02-2017-0005.
- [6] R. Beckers, D. Van Der Voordt, and G. Dewulf, "Management strategies for aligning higher education accommodation with the user needs," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2015, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-10-2014-0025.
- [7] Heywood, "European Real Estate Society (ERES) Conference 2011 , Eindhoven , Approaches To Aligning Corporate Real Estate And," *Victoria*, 2011.
- [8] C. Heywood, "Approaches to aligning corporate real estate and organisational strategy," 2011.
- [9] R. Beckers, D. Van Der Voordt, and G. Dewulf, "Journal of Corporate Real Estate Management strategies for aligning higher education accommodation with the user needs," *J. Corp. Real Estate J. Corp. Real Estate Downloaded by Univ. GREENWICH*, 2016.
- [10] C. Heywood and M. Arkesteijn, "Alignment and theory in Corporate Real Estate alignment models," *Int. J. Strateg. Prop. Manag.*, 2017, doi: 10.3846/1648715X.2016.1255274.

CHAPTER 12

A BRIEF INTRODUCTION ABOUT CORPORATE REAL ESTATE ALIGNMENT

Dr. Nalin Chirakkara, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-nalinkumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Corporate real estate (CRE) alignment is the process of strategically matching a company's real estate holdings to its overarching corporate aims and objectives. An outline of the idea of CRE alignment and its importance in promoting organisational performance. the major ideas and factors to be taken into account while establishing CRE alignment. It emphasises how crucial it is for the CRE function to work closely with the overall organisational strategy and for real estate choices to be in line with the organization's mission, vision, and values., such as the financial, operational, and strategic components. The significance of coordinating the real estate portfolio with the organization's financial goals, enhancing operational effectiveness, and assisting in the accomplishment of strategic goals is emphasized. Achieve CRE alignment, which entails doing in-depth analyses of the organization's real estate requirements, creating a complete real estate strategy, and putting in place efficient portfolio management procedures. It emphasises the need for continuing review and monitoring to guarantee continued alignment as market circumstances change. The advantages of CRE alignment, including higher cost savings, improved operational performance, improved staff productivity, and improved organisational agility. Additionally, it discusses possible dangers and difficulties related to CRE alignment and provides advice on how to lessen them.

KEYWORDS:

Alignment, Business, Corporate, Estate, Strategic.

INTRODUCTION

Real estate holdings of the company in relation to its broader corporate aims and objectives. It entails making sure that the organization's facilities and real estate assets are used effectively and created to support its purpose, vision, and values. An overview of the significance and relevance of coordinating real estate with business strategy is given in the introduction to CRE alignment. The fact that operational effectiveness, staff productivity, and overall company performance are all directly impacted by real estate emphasises the critical role that real estate plays in an organization's success. The introduction also highlights the difficulties organisations confront in matching their real estate assets with their strategic goals and the complexity of managing a real estate portfolio. It highlights the need of a methodical approach to CRE alignment, which involves determining the organization's real estate requirements, creating a thorough real estate strategy, and putting in place efficient portfolio management procedures [1]–[3].

The introduction could also mention the advantages that CRE alignment can bring to organisations, including cost savings, higher operational performance, increased employee satisfaction, and a more unified and aligned organisational culture. In general, the introduction to CRE alignment lays the groundwork for understanding how crucial it is to match company

strategy with real estate. It draws attention to the possible influence of CRE on organisational performance and outlines the fundamental ideas and factors needed to achieve alignment. To maximize their real estate assets and accomplish their business goals, organisations must handle corporate real estate (CRE) alignment, a crucial component of strategic management. The successful integration of real estate with the entire company strategy is crucial for success in today's dynamic business climate, as organisations must deal with ongoing transformation and shifting market circumstances.

An thorough analysis of the organization's real estate requirements serves as the foundation for harmonizing CRE. Analysing present and future space demands, comprehending the unique requirements of various organisational units or departments, and taking into account variables like location, size, functionality, and sustainability are all part of this process. Decision-makers may choose the best distribution and use of real estate assets by having a thorough awareness of the organization's real estate needs. The next critical stage in CRE alignment is creating a thorough real estate plan. The larger business aims and objectives of the Organisation should be in line with this plan. Setting specific goals for the real estate portfolio, choosing the ideal ratio of owned to leased properties, and creating rules for buying, selling, and negotiating leases are all part of it. The real estate plan should also take into account elements like cost effectiveness, risk management, and adaptability to changes in the future. In order to align CRE, effective portfolio management procedures are essential. To make sure it continues to be in line with the broader company plan, organisations must regularly monitor and assess their real estate portfolio [4]–[6].

This entails performing routine performance evaluations, analysing financial and operational data, and spotting chances for real estate asset consolidation or optimization. Organisations may increase the value of their real estate assets and make educated choices about buying, selling, and renewing leases by adopting a proactive and data-driven approach to portfolio management. A key component of CRE alignment is financial alignment. Organisations must make sure that their real estate choices support their financial goals and are financially viable. This entails taking into account variables including rental rates, upkeep and running costs, property taxes, and the possibility for profit-making from real estate assets. Organisations may increase overall profitability by maximizing financial performance and reducing real estate-related expenses. This will free up funds for other company investments. In CRE alignment, operational alignment is equally crucial. Employee productivity, teamwork, and overall organisational success may all be strongly impacted by the design, structure, and functioning of the workplace. When harmonizing their real estate assets, organisations must take into account elements like space utilization, workplace design principles, technology integration, and employee well-being. Organisations may improve employee happiness, engagement, and retention by fostering a work environment that meets employee needs [7]–[9].

Strategic alignment makes ensuring that the real estate portfolio is in line with the organization's larger strategic goals. When making real estate selections, this involves taking the organization's growth strategies, market positioning, and industry trends into account. For instance, the real estate strategy should assist these growth ambitions by taking into account the availability of appropriate assets in desired areas if the company intends to expand into new markets or offer new product lines. The process of achieving corporate real estate alignment is complex and ongoing, and it calls for careful evaluation of the organization's real estate requirements, corporate goals, and market dynamics. Organisations may maximize their real estate assets, increase operational effectiveness, boost employee productivity and happiness, and ultimately promote company success by integrating real estate with the entire business plan. Collaboration across several organisational departments, such as facilities management, finance, human resources, and strategy planning, is necessary for this

continuous project. Organisations may use their real estate as a strategic asset and obtain a competitive edge in the market by putting a high priority on CRE alignment[10], [11].

DISCUSSION

At least fourteen models of CRE alignment have been created in the last thirty years. Heywood and Arkesteijn methodically mapped the various models in a meta-study on corporate real estate alignment. It was impossible to demonstrate CRE alignment as a single, unambiguous 'thing' since it turned out to be multifaceted and pluralistic, being several things at once. Heywood and Arestin investigated what the authors of the models meant when they used the word alignment, and Heywood and Arestin’s metatheory reconciled the observed variability of the CRE alignment models to more accurately represent CRE alignment as having four Building Blocks with twelve components, feedback loops between them, and underlying alignment aspects. Because so few model writers gave it a clear definition, alignment was not a single, definite thing. Although it was evident that this was intended, the writers typically did not mark their concept as alignment.

Some authors did, however, allude to the strategic alignment school they belong to. In the absence of definitions, three things occur reliance on dictionary definitions reliance on a general understanding of what is meant in the field and use of alignment synonyms to indicate the connection between CRE and organisational strategies. Heywood and Arestin reduced it to four unique components based on the widespread knowledge in the area since providing a succinct explanation would leave out some of the now-available, clearer understanding (Table .1). First off, there are numerous cognitive-objects that align when it comes to CRE (Figure .1). There are three on the business side business strategies and their context, business performance, and business demands, and three on the CRE side. Although other objects also required alignment, strategy level objects were the most important main alignment objects. However, as a result

Table 1: Checklist of four aspects of alignment in the models.

| Multiple objects (need to be aligned) | Multi-valent relationship between the objects | Multi-directionality (needed to achieve alignment) | (resulting in) Multiple forms of alignment |
|--|--|---|---|
| Business objects | A relationship | Internal | Artefact (plan) |
| Business (corporate) strategy | between these objects | Vertical | Process |
| Business performance | An awareness-based relationship | - top-down | State |
| Business needs | A derivation-based relationship | - bottom-up (corporate strategy informed by CRE) | Behaviour |
| CRE objects | A consistency-based relationship | Horizontal | |
| CRE strategy | A integration-based relationship | - together with other infrastructure support functions (HR, IT etc) | |
| CRE objects | A movement-based relationship | - across the business units for coherent portfolio approach | |
| CRE management | A assessment-based relationship | External | |
| | A usefulness-based relationship | | |
| | A strengthening-based relationship | | |

Second, Heywood and Arkesteijn discovered that several of the alignment synonyms used to represent the connection between these items captured various values. This demonstrated a multivalent connection many values or strengths with a hierarchy of importance within the relationship, indicating that higher-value terms nearer the bottom of that column in Table .1 are more significant in theorizing and describing alignment. Thirdly, alignment is multi-

directional; thus, alignment is required between demand and supply as well as vertically across organisational and functional levels and horizontally between business units and corporate infrastructure activities. This supply might come from the portfolio already in place or from the outside real estate market. Last but not least, four types of alignment were discovered, with three of them coming from the literature on corporate alignment: a state of being a strategy or plan and a sequence of steps that make up a process as a fourth kind, behaviour, which is having a strategic mindset was included. Process-based and behavior-based combinations were both present in these four types. Since alignment encompasses most of these four features, if not all of them, a suitable alignment model should conceptualize the phenomena as follows:

1. When explaining the connection, choose terms with more semantic meaning.
2. Being a process most of the time, as well as observing behaviors in strategic mindsets both resulting in better aligned states sometimes recorded in a plan.
3. Coordinating corporate and CRE initiatives with other related linked cognitive objects
4. Outlining every instruction.

Table .1 has all four components with their pieces and may be used as a checklist while working on CRE and workplace alignment (see Figure 2). In addition to the four dimensions of alignment in the models, Heywood and Arkesteijn presented a metatheory of CRE alignment that divides the twelve components into four building blocks.

1. Understanding corporate strategy.
2. Understanding real estate performance.
3. Making real estate strategy.
4. Implementing real estate strategy.

This is a summary of the steps that CRE managers and their organisations take, according to some. Each building block and its constituent parts are briefly detailed in this section, which is followed by the different feedback systems that were also visible between the parts.

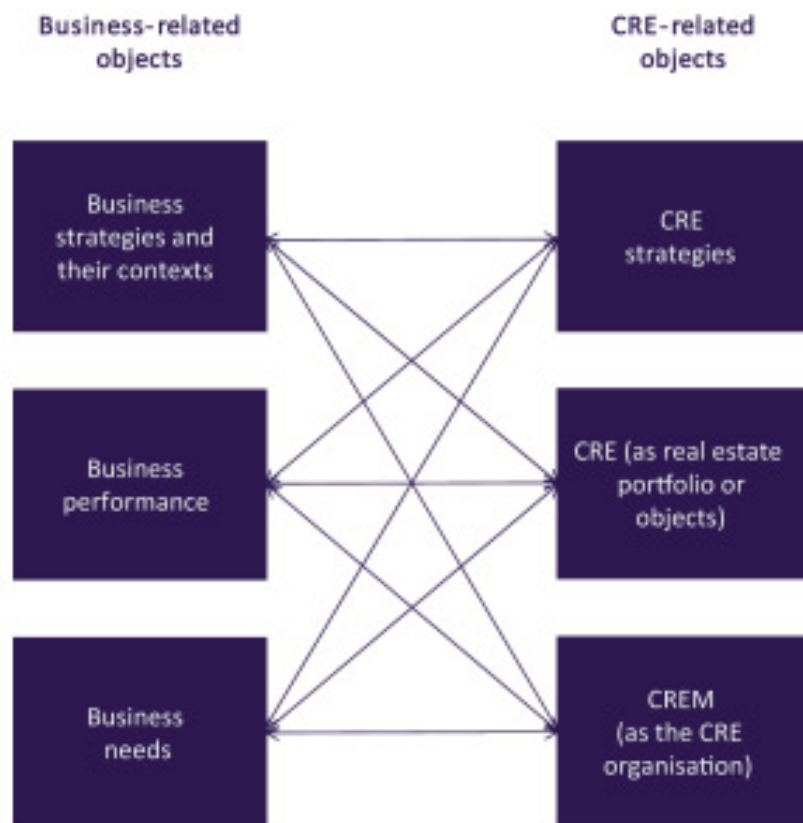


Figure 1: Representing the Business and CRE objects [Library Open].

Building Block 1

Understanding corporate strategy, the causes of strategies, and strategy-making itself are the topics covered in this block. In this context, alignment entails more than simply understanding the What is the business and its strategy or the needs of the business it also calls for knowledge of its strategic underpinnings, dynamics, and organisational strategy creation process. This is crucial in CREM, particularly as the service life of real estate structures outlast economic cycles. This block's constituents are external influences and business drivers determine the external consequences on the Organisation that call for strategic solutions. They generate something like a company's operational force-field since they are the underlying external operators that have an impact on the firm. Internal strategic forces and drives are analyzed in two different ways. One is related to those produced by internal support processes. Second, comprehending internal forces and drives is one of the so-called soft or social management elements, such as leadership techniques, organisational culture, and structures. Strategic triggers comprehend what, in the operational environment of the firm, causes organisational transformation. It is important to consider the underlying frequency of strategic triggers as well as particular changes in the forces and drivers changes in both size and timing. Corporate strategy is more than 'simply' understanding what the strategy is it also entails recognizing the corporate strategies and how the company creates strategy.

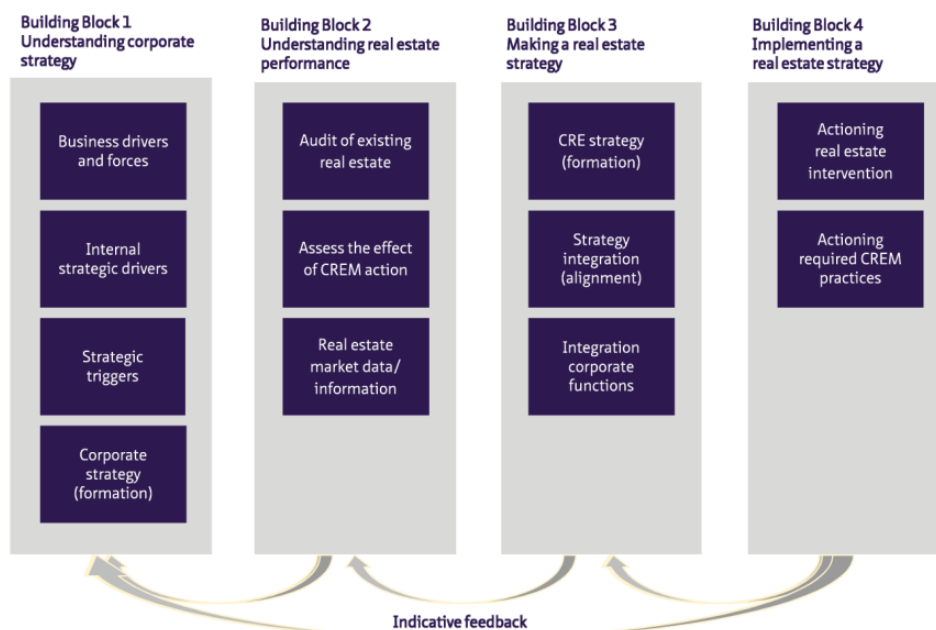


Figure 2: Representing the CRE alignment building blocks and components[Library Open].

Building Block 2

Understanding the alignment performance of the real estate items is the focus of this block. The items on the list below correspond to the current condition of the portfolio and each of its constituent real estate objects, understanding how CREM activities alter alignment states, and establishing the context of CRE alignment choices in real estate markets. CREM has a long history of measuring performance. This block's constituents are:

1. An audit of current real estate evaluates the portfolios and individual properties present conditions before alignment and serves as a standard for further evaluations.
2. Evaluate the impact of potential CREM alignment activities by assessing the impact of CREM actions. Building Block 3's CRE strategies and Building Block 4's used interventions are often decided upon after alignment but prior to learning the impacts of the CREM activities.

3. Real estate market data/information collects the necessary data to assess a portfolio's real estate assets. It lays the groundwork for developing commercially viable CRE strategies and demonstrates the possible accessibility of real estate goods in terms of locations and costs. Additionally, it pinpoints certain real estate items in the real estate market when applied to the whole portfolio.

Building Block 3

The three elements of this block stand for the development of CRE strategies as well as the strategy itself. Prior to execution, this is where the corporate and CRE strategies are truly coordinated, including their interactions with other corporate activities also known as enterprise alignment. This block's constituents are:

1. There are two related aspects to CRE strategy listing or recording different strategies the models include CRE strategies, and methods for developing CRE strategies without necessarily predefining them.
2. Strategy integration acknowledges the need to really connect corporate and CRE strategy. Either the CRE or corporate strategy change.
3. Compatibility with other company operations acknowledges that CRE strategy is seldom implemented alone and often requires the assistance of other corporate departments, such as HR and Finance, to accomplish desired strategic results.

Building Block 4

This block really implements the adjustments necessary to bring two components into alignment the management choices and real estate operations that are key to CREM practise. Changing the individual real estate items in the portfolio is part of putting the real estate intervention into action and achieving alignment. In order to acquire, control, manage, and dispose of real property interests, choices must be made concerning suitable real estate interventions. More aligned real estate items are thought to result in better portfolio alignment states. As circumstances and needs change, business dynamics raises the issue of whether attaining complete alignment is really conceivable. Portfolio alignment may only be somewhat accurate at best; however, it is more accurate for every one piece. Implementing the necessary CREM practises acknowledges the fact that alignment also necessitates CREM practises. There have been at least 162 identified, making them numerous. Another crucial component in visually representing CRE alignment was feedback. The majority of models explicitly contained some kind of feedback, with different strategies clearly distinguishable as happening between parts of one building block and another. Before discussing workplace alignment models, it can be said that all of the fourteen underlying models concentrate on a portfolio level, with the majority of models excluding the workplace entirely. However, other writers, like Haynes Scheffer et al. and Weatherhead, incorporate work environment and workplace innovation as part of their models. Haynes mentions the work environment as a component of the place sphere. Others have used work settings as operational decision-making strategies or as examples. While some models expressly declare that they may be used at many levels, some models concentrate on the portfolio level and zoom in on the workplace level.

CONCLUSION

Aligning corporate real estate (CRE) is essential for fostering organisational performance. Companies may maximize their real estate assets, improve operational efficiency, and foster a positive work environment by coordinating their real estate portfolio with their overarching company goals and objectives. In order to achieve CRE alignment, the CRE function must work closely with the overall organisational plan. It requires a deep comprehension of the organization's purpose, vision, and values, as well as its strategic goals and financial ambitions. Organisations may make sure that their real estate portfolio supports and helps to the attainment of business objectives by coordinating their real estate choices with these

variables. Assessing real estate requirements, creating a thorough real estate strategy, and putting it into practice are all steps in the process of obtaining CRE alignment. Maintaining alignment when business circumstances change and making required modifications to the real estate portfolio depend on ongoing monitoring and review. The advantages of CRE alignment are substantial. Through improved real estate utilization and effective operations, costs are reduced. By giving workers a comfortable and efficient work environment, it improves operational performance. Additionally, CRE alignment increases employee productivity and happiness since it fulfills their needs and is consistent with the organization's culture. While controlling risks and adjusting to changing business demands are difficulties that come with attaining CRE alignment, proactive management practices and constant review may help organisations overcome these obstacles. CRE alignment is a tactical strategy that guarantees the organization's real estate portfolio is in line with its corporate goals. Organisations may use their real estate assets, increase operational effectiveness, and create a work environment that fosters employee engagement and productivity by adopting CRE alignment. Organisations can react to changing conditions and keep a competitive edge in the market by regularly monitoring and analysing the alignment.

REFERENCES:

- [1] C. Heywood and M. Arkesteijn, "Alignment and theory in Corporate Real Estate alignment models," *Int. J. Strateg. Prop. Manag.*, 2017, doi: 10.3846/1648715X.2016.1255274.
- [2] T. Ntene, S. Azasu, and A. Owusu-Ansah, "Corporate real estate and corporate strategy alignment in South Africa," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2020, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-05-2019-0025.
- [3] C. Heywood and M. Arkesteijn, "Analysing fourteen graphical representations of corporate real estate alignment models," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2018, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-02-2017-0005.
- [4] R. Appel-Meulenbroek, M. G. Brown, and Y. Ramakers, "Strategic alignment of Corporate Real Estate," *Pap. Present. ERES 2010 Conf. Milan*, 2010.
- [5] M. Arkesteijn, R. Binnekamp, and H. De Jonge, "Improving decision making in CRE alignment, by using a preference-based accommodation strategy design approach," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2017, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-10-2016-0033.
- [6] H. Cooke, R. Appel-Meulenbroek, and T. Arentze, "Adjustment of corporate real estate during a period of significant business change," *Int. J. Strateg. Prop. Manag.*, 2019, doi: 10.3846/ijspm.2019.7954.
- [7] M. Arkesteijn, B. Valks, R. Binnekamp, P. Barendse, and H. De Jonge, "Designing a preference-based accommodation strategy: A pilot study at delft university of technology," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2015, doi: 10.1108/JCRE-12-2014-0031.
- [8] J. J. I. Scheffer, B. P. Singer, and M. C. c. Van Meerwijk, "Enhancing the contribution of corporate real estate to corporate strategy," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2006, doi: 10.1108/14630010610714862.
- [9] T. van der Voordt, "Facilities management and corporate real estate management: FM/CREM or FREM?," *Journal of Facilities Management*. 2017. doi: 10.1108/JFM-05-2016-0018.
- [10] M. Livingstone and B. Dibkey, "Utilising performance measurement to drive operational excellence in a post-merger environment," *J. Facil. Manag.*, 2002, doi: 10.1108/14725960310807917.
- [11] S. A. Fisher, "Value management: Raising CRE strategic relevance," *J. Corp. Real Estate*, 2009, doi: 10.1108/14630010911006710.

CHAPTER 13

WORKPLACE: PRINCIPAL-AGENT PERSPECTIVES AND TECHNIQUES

Dr. Pramod Pandey, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-pramodkumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The principal-Agent Theory offers insightful viewpoints and methods for realistic workplace transformations. The Theory of Principal-Agent analyses the interactions between principals decision-makers or employers and agents individuals or groups charged with carrying out certain duties or responsibilities in the context of organisational administration. The theory's application to improve workplace performance and accomplish desired results is the main topic of the chapter. According to the Theory of Principal-Agent, there may be information asymmetry, competing interests, and difficulties in coordinating the objectives of principals and agents. In order to close these gaps and guarantee that agents operate in the principals' best interests, it investigates different methods, incentives, and controls that might be put in place. Organisations may develop ways to improve decision-making, accountability, and performance at work by comprehending the theory's basic tenets. It further emphasises how the Principal-Agent Theory applies to actual workplace reforms. It explains how the theory might direct the creation of reward frameworks, frameworks for measuring performance, and contract forms that balance the interests of principals and agents. The chapter highlights the value of open communication, honesty, and trust-building in fostering a productive workplace where agents are inspired to provide their best efforts. The theory of Principal-Agent affects management and leadership techniques. It addresses how strong leadership can establish clear standards, provide direction, and keep tabs on agent performance. To promote a supportive and responsible workplace culture, it also highlights the need for continual feedback, coaching, and appreciation.

KEYWORDS:

Agents, Agency, Decision Making, Principle, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

The Theory of Principal-Agent is a paradigm that offers viewpoints and methods for implementing real reforms in the workplace. The theory examines the connection between principals' decision-makers or employers and agents individuals or groups charged with certain duties or responsibilities in the context of organisational management. The purpose of this theory's introduction is to shed light on how improving workplace performance and obtaining desired results may be improved by comprehending the dynamics between principals and agents. According to the Theory of Principal-Agent, there may be information asymmetry, competing interests, and difficulties in coordinating the objectives of principals and agents. Principals work to make sure that agents follow their best interests and make choices that are consistent with the organization's overarching goals. However, agents could have their own objectives, motives, and informational limitations that might influence how they act and make decisions [1]–[3].

The theory looks at numerous approaches and methods that may be used to close these gaps and improve workplace performance. It explores the systems, rewards, and checks that may be put in place to make sure that agents operate in the organization's best interests by balancing the interests of principals and agents. In order to have successful principal-agent interactions, the theory also emphasises the significance of good communication, trust-building, and accountability. The introduction of the principal-Agent Theory emphasises its use in enhancing workplace dynamics. It lays the groundwork for comprehending how this theory might influence organisational leadership practises, performance management plans, and decision-making procedures. Organisations may learn how to establish an environment that inspires agents to perform at their peak levels and guarantees that their actions are in line with the overall goals of the Organisation by looking at the underlying concepts and real-world implementations. The Theory of Principal-Agent introduction gives a general review of its importance in generating real workplace reforms [4]–[6].

It lays the groundwork for examining the theories' viewpoints and methods, and it emphasises how crucial it is for the best organisational performance for principals' and agents' interests to be in line. The Theory of Principal-Agent is based on the understanding that issues with delegation, information flow, and responsibility are often encountered by organizations. Organisations can identify possible causes of inefficiency, misalignment, or moral hazard and put plans in place to mitigate them by understanding the relationships between principals and agents. Principals are essential in establishing the goals, laying down the groundwork, and providing the tools and resources required for agents to complete their work. Agents could, however, have their own objectives and preferences, and there might not be flawless monitoring and informational systems in place to guarantee ideal performance. The Theory of Principal-Agent provides a variety of viewpoints and approaches to solve these issues. To align the interests of principals and agents, incentive mechanisms like performance-based compensation, profit-sharing, or bonus plans might be used. To guarantee that agents are held responsible for their activities and that their performance is monitored and judged appropriately, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms may be implemented [7]–[9].

The idea also emphasises how crucial it is for agents and principals to create trust with one another. A feeling of mutual understanding and dedication to attaining shared objectives may be fostered via open lines of communication, frequent feedback, and a collaborative work atmosphere. The Theory of Principal-Agent also emphasises the significance of choosing and assigning agents to tasks in accordance with their qualifications, propensities, and motivations. Organisations may improve performance and overall results by matching agent traits with task needs. The Theory of Principal-Agent is not a one-size-fits-all approach, it is crucial to remember, since organisational circumstances and dynamics may change. Organisations must carefully evaluate the particular issues they confront and adjust their strategies as necessary. For the theory's concepts to be effectively used, flexibility, adaptability, and constant assessment of the efficiency of initiatives are essential. The principal-agent relationship in the workplace presents unique issues that may be addressed with the help of the Theory of Principal-Agent. Organisations may put measures into place to align interests, enhance communication, build efficient monitoring methods, and foster a collaborative work environment by understanding the relationships between principals and agents. The use of this principle may result in improved organisational results, more responsibility, and better performance [10]–[12].

DISCUSSION

Principal-agent theory has seen significant development and application in recent years in the area of scientific research technique, such as in the fields of marketing, economics, political science, and organisational behaviour. According to Williamson, the New Institutional Economics, which is concerned with the economic analysis of the institutional environment

and institutional arrangements, is based on the fundamental question of the justification for the existence of companies, which dates back to Coase. What is often referred to as New Institutional Economics is made up of the three primary fields of transaction cost theory, principal-agent theory, and property rights theory. A technique that is closely connected to transaction cost theory is principal-agent theory. In contrast to transaction cost theory, which treats the examined service relationships as client-contractor relationships, principal-agent theory views them as client-contractor relationships.

Principal-agent theory's fundamental goal is to create the best possible contractual arrangements for the principal and the agent. The underlying assumptions, however, must be taken into account. These include the following actors behave as benefit maximizers, there are conflicting interests, actors have only limited rationality; and there is information asymmetries between principal and agent. The actors are able to exploit the discretionary latitude for actions that maximize their own advantage because to these knowledge asymmetries. The principle seeks to address this by modifying the agent's conduct via appropriate incentive systems or incentive agreements. The principal-agent theory's formulation of agency difficulties includes hidden characteristics, hidden action, hidden information, and the most difficult variation, hidden intention. Ex-ante, or before the contract is signed, the agency issue of concealed features already exists, and it has an impact on the principal-agent relationship. The agent's performance cannot be seen beforehand, and the principal is also unaware of the traits that the agent has. The principal cannot assess the fitness of the agent until after the contract has been signed or the service rendered.

He has limited or no disclosure options, giving the primary specific details, such as how well he performed, for instance. The selection of an inappropriate contractual partner may result if the contractual partner chosen by the principal is not based on accurate information. Contrary to hidden qualities, agency issues with hidden action and hidden information, which only arise after the contract is signed, are related to the agent's efforts. In the first scenario, the principal is either unable to monitor the agent's efforts and actions or can do so only at a significant expense. Contrarily, in the second instance of concealed knowledge, the principal may watch the agent's acts but cannot objectively evaluate them. Despite the two asymmetries indicated earlier, the principal is aware of the agent's performance result but is unable to differentiate between an external impact that may have favored the outcome and the agent's true performance share. According to Eisenhardt, Picot et al., and Voigt, moral hazard occurs when an agent takes advantage of this knowledge imbalance. The risk grows as the actor's scope for conduct or control expands. When an agent's objectives are hidden from the principal until after the contract is signed, this is referred to as a scenario of hidden intention. The agent's opportunistic attitude is apparent to the principal. However, he has little to no chance of reversing this, and to compel the agent to alter his or her conduct. The probability of concealed intention for the principal and the ensuing hold-up issue increases with the strength of the dependent connection between the principal and the agent.

Methodology

On the one hand, descriptive or positive agency theory which is also used here, which has a stronger empirical reference and a less mathematical formulation; and on the other hand, normative theory, which is characterised by a strong mathematical reference, can be seen as two different types of directions within agency theory.

With the help of the positive agency theory, the underlying governance processes and conflict situations between principal and agent are the main topics of discussion. To demonstrate how these mechanisms limit the agent's self-serving behaviour, they are examined and described in a descriptive manner. The contractual links are methodically examined and organised utilising different success and premium curves using the mathematical reference. The objective is to identify the principle-agent relationship that will enable the agent to make

choices that will maximise the welfare of the principal. This is supported by incentive structures that have been mathematically defined.

Knobloch has thoroughly researched and meticulously reviewed previous investigations of various coordination mechanisms. He comes to the conclusion that agency theory's normative approach is mostly used. On the theoretical foundation given by the principal-agent theory, the contributions of, for example, Geringer and Woodcock, Lafontaine, and Fosberg deduce numerous context-dependent hypotheses. These are then verified or disproved by the use of mathematical models like regression analysis.

The assumptions are evaluated using information from databases like LexisNexis Academic or readily accessible data from ministries of economics or other organisations. Knobloch implies that the normative method is used often since information can be acquired in a reasonably straightforward and economical manner.

Hass and Boivie et al. examine their generated hypotheses utilising data obtained via surveys in addition to the pure application of mathematical models based on database information. The hypotheses are tested using both statistical analysis and mathematical models.

Overall, these contributions may be attributed to the quantitative research approach because of the characteristics of hypothesis testing.

According to Buchanan et al. principal-agent theory and qualitative research both have merits: They attempt to determine the degree to which the agency theory's assertion is supported in the setting of companies in their research with 43 interviewees and, based on their results, to provide an evaluation of the theory's propensity to evaluate interactions inside a business. Beyond a theoretical understanding, it is now clearly obvious that the implementation of new, creative workplaces, which should promote the productivity and creativity of the core company, combines a large number of participants and, above all, needs a unified and focused approach.

Otherwise, there are also inaccurate ways to determine what caused a project to succeed or fail.

The conceptual and theoretical foundation for structuring that the principal-agent theory may provide can assist both functional areas better comprehend one another and define project goals and implementations in the context of realising the goals of the company. The rigid assumptions of agency theory within this framework seem to be amended, expanded, and most importantly, moulded more realistically by means of behavioural economic techniques.

This is notably true with respect to internal demand models between core and CREM company.

In light of this, it would be groundbreaking to examine effective models for the implementation of new working environments in relation to the principal-agent theory's solution mechanisms because, according to this theory, concrete actor behaviour patterns and preference structures could be gathered and derived as best practise to expand the solution instruments described here.

With the behavioural-economic enrichment of agency theory, qualitative designs would be the best suitable for this particular subject. These findings would be a significant enrichment because they would, on the one hand, eliminate the need for solution instruments to be derived descriptively and empirically in accordance with agency theory's assumptions and asymmetries, but more importantly because they would give internal actors application-oriented solution instruments to create user-centered work environments.

Limitations

At this point, it should be highlighted that a transfer to the interorganizational domain is conceivable, but that further changes are required, particularly with respect to the estimation of agency costs. The benefit of a contractual agreement is assessed using the agency costs. Their usage might sometimes result in assessment constraints since it could be challenging to

establish the reference line of agency expenses against which the final evaluation is done. Furthermore, it shouldn't be disregarded that CREM and the business unit already share a pastone that may be both advantageous and disadvantageous.

The hidden characteristics in regard to the internal accomplishment relations are to be judged differently, especially in light of this context. Regardless of this, the potential solution mechanisms aid in improving understanding of the performance connection and laying a strong basis for change. Specifically at this point that behavioural economics ideas may be included into agency theory.

Theory Relevance to Practice

In actuality, the contracts between organisational units are primarily based on the contractual relationship of exchange against the backdrop of task specialisation and labour division. It is typical to see organisational units function as benefit maximizers, at least in relation to management, in actuality. Each function, however, strives to maximise its own objectives and, therefore, its own gain, even at the expense of the established business objectives - if carried out in an ad hoc manner.

However, agency theory establishes a wide-ranging conceptual framework that may be used to align goals. The execution of specific initiatives, including the remodelling of workspaces, as well as CREM seem to benefit from its use. Additionally, it has been shown that the principal-agent theory has only recently been used and used, both in theory and in practise, to address the organisational issue in real estate management.

The agency hypothesis is often only employed outside of the corporation, in constellations involving external contracts.

The application of agency theory to the constellation of internal contracts opens up a number of avenues for improving our comprehension of and ability to establish internal contractual relationships. However, the options and possibilities discussed in the context of the solutions may be utilised, for instance, in pilot projects involving the design of new working environments, to come to specific project agreements between the functional areas in which the objectives, requirements, and framework conditions, costs, times, etc. are recorded. Thus, they would operate as internal standards for behaviour and game rules.

When designing new working environments, which often have a greater strategic relevance, complexity, specificity, unpredictability, and limited reversibility, intensive teamwork and an active and trustworthy interchange of information are required.

Project agreements, clearly stated objectives, tools, and other elements may be useful as ground rules in its execution.

By comprehending the internal contractual connection, the CREM department might, for instance, incorporate user-confidence-boosting measures, provide platforms for information and communication, and provide already-running experimental projects, among other things. CREM would provide process standards for related projects and, more importantly, create instruments, such as those that would explain the needs and framework conditions, with a thorough grasp of the agency concerns.

CREM's own solutions might always be used as a reference and reviewed to see whether they adequately fulfil the primary business goals by using reference values or benchmarks, or by incorporating outside expertise and experience.

So it seems that there are a lot of applications that may be made, but they all need some grasp of the potential agency issues.

Consequently, agency theory may be seen as a structural and conceptual foundation for the creation of new work environments.

Additionally, internal communication and an objectified measurement of the workplace solution's created goal amount are necessary derivable bundles of measures that often depend on the trust that the partners have in one another.

CONCLUSION

The principal-agent theory provides insightful viewpoints and methods for realistic workplace transformations. Organisations may improve decision-making, accountability, and overall performance by comprehending the interactions between principals and agents and tackling the problems of information asymmetry and competing interests.

Organisations may develop and execute efficient incentive programmes, frameworks for measuring performance, and contract structures that balance the interests of principals and agents by using this approach.

In order to create a work atmosphere where agents are driven to perform at their best, it is essential to have open lines of communication, be transparent, and develop trust. Setting clear standards, offering direction, and keeping an eye on agent performance are all crucial components of effective leadership.

In order to promote a supportive and responsible workplace culture, ongoing feedback, mentoring, and appreciation are crucial.

The Theory of Principal-Agent has real ramifications for enhancing workplace dynamics and is not only a theoretical idea.

Organisations may enjoy increased productivity, efficiency, and employee happiness by putting its concepts into practise. It's crucial to recognise that the Theory of Principal-Agent does not apply to all situations.

To meet their own issues, many organisations and environments may need tailored methods. In order to modify and improve the theory to suit the changing demands of contemporary workplaces, further investigation and study are required. The Principal-Agent Theory provides insightful perspectives and methods that may result in useful workplace reforms. Organisations may build a more productive, responsible, and effective work environment by taking into consideration the views and using the tactics suggested by this theory.

REFERENCES:

- [1] S. Menzo, K. Marinelli, P. Bagnarelli, S. Rolla, and M. Clementi, "Human papillomavirus infections: New perspectives for prevention and treatment," *New Microbiol.*, 2007.
- [2] A. van Mossel, F. J. Van Rijnsouwer, and M. P. Hekkert, "How theories of organization inform transition studies," *Conf. Pap.*, 2014.
- [3] J. R. Knapp, T. Dalziel, and M. W. Lewis, "Governing top managers: Board control, social categorization, and their unintended influence on discretionary behaviors," *Corp. Gov. An Int. Rev.*, 2011, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8683.2011.00845.x.
- [4] S. Gowrishankar, B. Poornima, and S. K. Pandian, "Inhibitory efficacy of cyclo(l-leucyl-l-prolyl) from mangrove rhizosphere bacterium-Bacillus amyloliquefaciens (MMS-50) toward cariogenic properties of Streptococcus mutans," *Res. Microbiol.*, 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.resmic.2014.03.004.
- [5] J. Laugesen, K. Hassanein, and Y. Yuan, "The impact of internet health information on patient compliance: A research model and an empirical study," *J. Med. Internet Res.*, 2015, doi: 10.2196/jmir.4333.
- [6] C. R. V. Matheus, L. H. Chagas, G. G. Gonzalez, E. S. Falabella Aguiar, and L. G. Appel, "Synthesis of Propene from Ethanol: A Mechanistic Study," *ACS Catal.*, 2018, doi: 10.1021/acscatal.8b01727.
- [7] J. C. Acosta-Prado, D. E. R. Ospina, and N. J. S. Landazábal, "Values and control of agency problems in family businesses," *Rev. Lasallista Investig.*, 2019, doi: 10.22507/rli.v16n2a10.
- [8] G. V. F. Brunoro *et al.*, "Differential Gel Electrophoresis (DIGE) Evaluation of Naphthoimidazoles Mode of Action: A Study in Trypanosoma cruzi Bloodstream Trypomastigotes," *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.*, 2016, doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0004951.

- [9] O. Zuberi and S. I. Mzenzi, "Analysis of employee and management fraud in Tanzania," *J. Financ. Crime*, 2019, doi: 10.1108/JFC-01-2018-0012.
- [10] N. Neymark, P. Lianes, E. F. Smit, and J. P. Van Meerbeeck, "Economic evaluation of three two-drug chemotherapy regimens in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer," *Pharmacoeconomics*, 2005, doi: 10.2165/00019053-200523110-00007.
- [11] C. A.J. and B. G.L., "Postoperative delirium: Risk factors and management: Continuing Professional Development," *Canadian Journal of Anesthesia*. 2012.
- [12] B. M. Delattre *et al.*, "Intravoxel Incoherent Motion applied to Cardiac diffusion weighted MRI using breath-hold acquisitions in healthy volunteers," *J. Cardiovasc. Magn. Reson.*, 2012, doi: 10.1186/1532-429x-14-s1-p261.