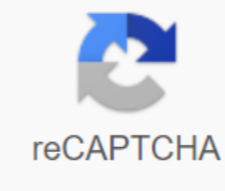




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Advances in computer-based computer technology in recent years have led to a wide variety of systems that adminese are now using make and applying decisions. By and large, these systems have been developed from scratch for specific purposes and differ significantly from standard system electronic data processing systems. Too often, unfortunately, managers have little to say in the development of such supporting decision-making; at the same time, non-manager-developers have a limited view of how they can be used. In spite of these disadvantages, the author found that a number of the 56 systems he studied are successful. And the difference between success and failure is the measure that administrators can use the system to increase their efficiency within their organization. So the author suggests that this is the criteria designers and managers should simultaneously ascribe to exploit the capabilities of today's technologies. What can administer really expect from computers other than a pile of reports a deep pit thrown on the desks every other week? Everyone knows, for example, these computers are great in reciprocal lists. But what about all the promises and all the speculation over the past decade some about the role of the management computer? While there has been progress in recovering basic information, processes, and display technologies, my recent study of 56 computer decision systems confirms the common wisdom that functions very few management cases have actually been automated dated with all the most clues that may not. Instead, my findings show what other researchers reported: their application being developed and used to support the manager responsible for making and applying decisions, rather than replacing it. In other words, those in a growing number of organizations are using what they often called decision support systems to improve their management efficiency.<sup>1</sup> Unfortunately my research has also bore out the fact that while more and more practical applications have been developed for use in decisions, making decisions, three ploychosis that stand sizzable still stand in the path of others who might benefit from them. First, managers and computer users in many organizations are familiar with only a few of the current system types of use. As a result, different types of innovative systems have often become pregnant and nurtured by internal or external contractors, not by the system users or their superior. Second, and almost related to my first finding, these entrepreneurs tend to focus on technical characteristics. Too often, this myopia means that they fail to anticipate the ways in which these systems can be used to increase the efficiency of individuals in organizations. Finally, the very innovative system—the very useful management should get more useful— offer a greater risk for are being implemented, especially when the impetus for change from one source other than the potential user. Quite simply, my goal in this article is to discuss, without entering the technology involved, the high potential of a variety of decision systems, the challenges and risks posed to adventures and applications, and a wide range of these strategies to meet challenges with these risks. Type Decision Support Systems While there are many ways to categorize computer systems, one practice is to compare them in terms of what the user does with them: recovering isolated data items. Use as a mechanism for hoc hoc analysis of data files. Get aggregation to specify in data in the form of standard reporting. Estimate of the consequences of the proposed decision. As my Exhibit indicates, EDP reporting systems usually perform only the third function in this list of operations, which I have organized alongside a dimension from data-orientation to model-orientation. Subsequently, unlike the EDP user who receives standard reports on a periodic basis, the user system supports decisions typically initiated each instance of system usage, either directly or through an employee intermediary. My Comparison display of Usage, Purposes, and features EDP Systems vs Decision Systems Although reporting system decisions that are oriented often grow in standard EDP systems, I will focus on seven different types, one tip describes an example of each type. Incident, it is interesting to note that external consultants developed the systems cited in second, fifth, and seventh examples, while those at first, third, and sixth were the creations of people who act as internal entrepreneurs in employee roles; only the fourth system was developed on direct placement by the user. This model is even initiation of innovative systems by people other than users being present in many of the 56 systems. 1. Retrieval only - A store floor information system. In order to help production improve the rate yield on a newly developed 50-step process for micro-circuit manufacturing, the management of one company has installed an on-line information system, stores floor information systems. Operators submit daily piece reports, including yield, release date, identification of the person who performs the job, and so on. Foreigners then judge this information to obtain productivity data by operations, operators, machines, and lots. So they are able to use the system in a number of ways. They can monitor work flow, tweezers yield problems, and solve day-to-day questions such as who worked on which many hours, and which operators are front or behind schedule, or below standard. The elders have standard commands 13 by which they can retrieve the data stored in the system and show them on a cathode tube rail terminal. Commandments allow them to tailor to their needs. 2. Retrieval and analysis— A portfolio analysis system analysis. Before you advise customers or make authorized trading decisions, the portfolios manager at a bank I study uses an online system to analyze individual records. Manager can bypass manual consuming methods and find portfolios information well organized in either graphics or shape charts. Troubleshooting about the situation, a manager can inspect both individual portfolios and groups of files from different views — for example, rank them in different ways, get hanged by industry level or risk, and so on. With this kind of flexibility, remotely the bank portfolios make more efficient use of a vast amount of information, most of which existed before the system, but were accessible only through manual tedious analysis. 3. Multiple data base plus analysis - Sales information system. Greater flexibility was also the reason that two consumer products companies and one manufacturing company I look at developing information sales systems that are quite similar. Standard EDP functions were too inflexible to produce ad sales hoc analysis reports in a time and cost-effective way for those in companies' marketing and planning areas. In each case, information extracted from the EDP systems is now kept separately in order to have it handy and, in two cases, to be able to analyze it in conjunction with external databases purchased proprietary and modeling. Basically, each system is a vehicle where a man or group tries to help mark decisions. Operandi modules are inercional: identify a problem; bring the current system and existing experience to carry on; develop a solution in the form of an analysis or additional system module; and incorporate the results of an expanded version of the system. 4. Assess decisions using an accounting model - a source-and-application-of-budget fund. To expedite operational decisions and financial planning on a two-year horizon, an insurance company will use an on-line, source-and-application-of-fund budget system. Inputs are projection of future business levels into various insurance lines and investment areas, plus assumptions regarding important numbers such as future money-market rates. The production is an overall cash flow by month. An investment committee uses the model to allocate funds across investment areas and to minimize the amount of cash left leave leaves in banks. The committee compares cash flow based on different perception decisions; the decisions that he actually adopted are those who produce adequate cash flow projects and are acceptable to the various groups of the company. Actually, the system is an accounting definition of the company. There's no question about the accuracy of the model's relationships, so the way project results may be in error is whether estimates at business activity levels or currency market rates are correct. 5. Assess decisions using a simulations model - a marketing decision system. In order to provide a more rational basis for repetitive marketing decisions, a consumer product consumer uses a level-related model of advertising, promotion, and pricing of levels of sales for a particular brand. The model was developed in a team environment by reconciled an analysis of historical brand information and a suggestive individual's feeling regarding the effects on sales of various levels and advertising types and other marketing actions. The model has been validated by following its accuracy of sales prediction based on the competitive actions that were taken. Unlike the accounting model I just mentioned, this is a simulation model in which some of the most important relationships are estimation at best. For example there is simply no rule by which it is possible to predict sales and certainty based on advertising levels. In fact, this was the heart of the problem of developing the model. Though it turned out to be useful for prediction, much of the value of the model lies in improved understanding of the market environment. 6. Propose decision-optimization of raw materials. Another consumer product company, faced with short-running equipment problems for many of its previous materials editing, has developed an optimization model to solve the math puzzle of choosing and balancing among various product recipes. The inputs in the model include a range of different recipes for many products, running raw supply levels, and production requirements for finished products. The output is the choice of recipes that maximize output using existing equipment. When the short-running situation changes supply changes, the template can be reviewed with a new set of selected recipes. The system had a bigger impact on how worship sees alloy policy. Initially, they are considered allocating raw materials by putting priority among the products. The model showed that it was more advantageous to start with production requirements and then assigned resource scars by optimizing the mixture of product recipes. 7. Make decisions—an insurance renewal rate system. As an outgrowth of an acreage of its group insurance information system, an insurance company has developed a system eliminating a part of the clerical burden associated with written renewal and helps ensure that rate calculations are consistent and accurate. Instead of calculating renewal rate by hand, superior filling out input code sheets for the system, which calculates a renewal rate based on a range of standard standards and actuarial assumptions. Since these assumptions might or might not apply to a particular regulation, review documents that accompany the regulations and decide whether the standard calculations are applicable. If they don't, the encoding sheet is modified in an appropriate and remedy manner. In effect, the decision-making system is in completely standard situations, while the superior decides whether the situation is standard and, if not, which adjustment is required. As a result, circumstances can focus on the substance of their work rather than the chorus related to. Spectrum of these seven system possibilities represents a wide range of approaches to support decisions. The first one helps asset production by simply providing quick access to historical information such as who worked on so much, and when the work was done. But pros must decide what should be done once they have the information. At the other extreme, the superior supporting system normally makes the decision in some cases. Between the two extremes, analysis systems and model-oriented systems help people organize information and also facilitate and formalize the assessment of proposed decisions. Although managers at most companies have used budget or planning systems similar to source-and-application-of-funds I mentioned, the spectrum of possibilities for other types of decision support systems is surprisingly wide. Obviously, some of these systems are no particular use in many environments. Still, Variety suggests that most companies should have a genuine number of genuine to apply the concept of computer support to decision-making. Motive in Manager What is the decision support system to do that actually helps users? What are their real impacts? In my survey, answers to these questions proved elusive in many cases since users were swallowing their systems for reasons that were completely different from initial ideas about what their systems had accomplished. In fact, a wide range of reasons exist for these systems. While many decision-making systems share goals in standard EDP systems, they go further and address other management concerns such as improving interpersonal communication, facilitating problem solving, promoting individual learning, and increasing organizational control. These systems can affect interpersonal communication in two ways: by providing people with tools to persuade and not provide organizations with a vocabulary and a discipline that facilitates negotiation across the extent of subunits. The Standard Text Tool persuades on fully neglected analysis systems the personal use of decision support systems as tools to persuade. But consider the following offending (persuading someone else to do something) to use which various companies have joined the following systems: The manager of a chemical plant tried to meet production goals (quantity by product) that was set by a marketing group. Unfortunately, the group has set goals without consideration of many of the previous materials under which the plant was operating. The plant used a model to calculate production mixing. At one point, it was designed by the facility manager that he was able to use this model to investigate whether marketing had set goals resulting in the use of poor plants and made him appear distinguishable. As he ran the model under a range of different mixes targets, it became clear that this was the case, and he used the results to persuade marketing to change his plant's production mix. A data recovery system and manipulation first receive wide exposure to a transport company when a number of the company's top executives use it to develop a rational good quantitative merging for a proposed merging. With the system, it was possible to explore and manipulate a large database of information about the industry. Although the merger was not approved, management thought the system helped it set up a good fight. The management of a shipping company found that a system it used to consolidate and fine-tune strategic investment plans also helped it negotiate with banks. Banks and other funding sources seemed to be uniforms impressed by the computer-based analysis based on its funding requests. The resulting edge of credibility was small, but in the management's views, unseen. Now that we've seen illustrations of the offending tools of persuasion, let's turn to the defence example (persuading someone who the user did a good job) use of these systems: When asked if he had ever made direct to a case tracking system, chief adjustment group from a government regulatory agency said he remembered one instance. This was when it spent an hour lunch generous a report to make its recent band performance appear as favorable as possible despite some unfortunate delays and problems that made standards reporting the bad report. The new president of a major conglomerate used a one-year budget model to lead existing budget choices, as well as to help him discount what people in many areas have claimed regarding their budget needs. The class scheduled at a training school for the service personnel of a company found its work frustrated because it was always difficult to justify the budget on being explicit. With a model that produced better training schedules, the schedule could protect itself very easily by saying: Use the following assumptions regarding attitudes, acceptable acceptable flurry of acceptable time, and other consideration, this is the best budget. If you (the budget knife) would like me to change these assumptions, I would gladly generate a new budget. What flurry level do you suggest? So the system doesn't helped the decision-making schedule, but also helped him defend them as well. Many people suspect that a new product venture into a consumer company might not be worth anything, but nobody knew exactly why. When a risk analysis was carried out with a pattern, the reasons became clear: the enterprise had a very substantial risk inside. In addition to sealing the decision, the analysis provides an understandable response to those who proposed the enterprise. A cynical might be contemplated that those in such situations have taken advantage of or abused their system. A more practical conclusion is that these systems simply serve to improve administrators' efficiency in their organization to help them communicate with others. My point is that a lot of the benefits of many of the decision support systems in my sample were of this sort. The help of communication decision support systems also helps managers negotiate across organizational units by standardizing their mechanics in the process and by providing a common conceptive basis for decision making. During my survey, administrators often comment that consistent definitions and formats are important help in communication, especially between those in different organizational units such as divisions or departments. In a number of cases, the development of these definitions and formats was a long and sometimes difficult task that accomplished gradually over the course of several years, but which was also regarded as one of the main contributions to their system. For example, one of the reasons some of the model-oriented systems in my sample was estimated before the overall result of various decisions people considered separately, by filtering those decisions into a single model. In these cases, the system became an implicit arbitration between different goals in various departments. Instead of discussing their own divergent views, marketing, production, and financial people could use the model to demonstrate the effect of a group's proposal to a group on the group's other actions and to result in total. As a result, the issues have been clarified and the negotiation process is reinstated. The asset production I mentioned earlier noted the same kind of facilitation. It helped them to discuss predictable job-scheduling and investigation issues by providing immediate access to information purposes on who did so, when, and how well about any production extensively in the shops. The values to use although applying them to a number of the successful systems I studied found it necessary to go through the motions of presenting a rational cost/benefit that attributed a dollar value to personal efficiency, they did not believe those numbers anyone else did. Management usually decided to continue on the basis that the proposed system seemed to make sense and would likely need to have a beneficiary in the way people interact with/or make decisions. Currency savings are obviously a very important and rational yield for developing computer systems, but it should be clear at this point that the EDP-style assumption that systems should still be justified in these terms are not sufficient in the area of support decision systems. Equally obviously, there is a definite danger of developing a system simply because someone thinks it makes sense, especially if someone is not the direct user of the system. In fact, the systems I cited as the first, second, and fifth examples began this way and encountered resistance until they were repository as something that users would want them to become more effective. Again, the general issue here is a common trend for technical people focusing on technical beauty in a system or idea and assume that nontechnical people will somehow see the light and will be able to figure out how to use the system to solve business problems. This sort of overoptimism was present in the history of almost every unsuccessful system in the sample. The message is clear: Try to take advantage of the creativity of technical experts, but make sure it is channel towards real problems. The challenge, of course, is how to accomplish both these goals. There are a number of ways I will discuss now. Models of development despite the common wiseness that the needs of users must be considered in developing systems and that users should be actively involved in applying them, their users didn't start 31 of the 56 systems I studied and didn't participate actively in the development of 38 of the 56. The findings, illustrated in Exhibit II, are not unusual. User intended neither initiated nor played an active role in implementing 11 of the 15 systems that suffered significant application issues. Conversely, there were relatively few issues in 27 of the 31 systems in which users had a hand in initiatives and/or played an active role in application. Exhibit I System resisted by Users but would be wrongly inferred from these results that systems should be avoided fully, if users intend neither initiate them nor play an active role in their application. For one thing, 14 of the 25 systems I studied in which this was the model ultimately successful. More importantly, many of the really innovative systems in my sample, including 5 of the 7 that I described earlier, have exposed this model. On the other hand, many of the systems initiated by users do little more than mechanized existing practices. While these mechanization may be very beneficial, and while I certainly don't suggest that major innovations must come from outside sources, the real challenge is able to use insights regardless of their sources. One way to do this is to unveil a strategies to promote user participation and participation in all developments of the systems regardless of who originally the concept. Example of successful strategy tracking. Impose thanksgiving: Marketing and production managers of a decentralized company had not relished the extra work (format changes and data submission requirements) needed for a yearly budget system, which head management was installed. First, they were especially unpredicted because they thought the system wouldn't really help them. So at every stage the designers made a point of developing subsystems to provide these average manager and sales and usage information materials that never were available. This sad quo worked out well: instead of seeing the system as a total imposition, the manager sees it as an opportunity to take part in something that would benefit them. Running a dog with pony shows: Central Planning Staff of two companies designed systems for budget and financial analysis. In one company, the system never holds on despite demonstration formation lengths for division employees and other potential users. These people seemed enthusiastic about the system's possibilities, but never really used it unless corporate planning people did all the work for them. Conversely, the training program for the system of the other company encourages immediate and active participation. In order to attend the workshops, people had to carry out their own financial analysis. They learned to use the system by working on these issues. When the workshops ended, many users were enthusiastic: not only were they aware of how to use the system, but they've also proved themselves that it could help them. Using a prototype: Two dangers ever present in developing a system will create a big, expensive one that solves the wrong problem or creates someone who some people in the organization cannot live with. Either can happen, not only when the system is performed without consulting the user with affected parts, but also when no one has sufficient experience with the particular type of system under consideration clearly visualizes its strengths and weaknesses before it is built. Applying to a number of systems in my sample avoids these traps by building small prototype, which gives users something specific to react to. As a result, the large-scale version can be developed with a realistic notion of both what was necessary and what would fly in the organization. A similar approach, also successful, was simply building the bits system that could be used, changed, or thrown easily. Hang the user with the responsibility: Each new module or application develops as an outgrowth of one of the three info sales systems I mentioned earlier going through three steps. The first step consists of general, discussion of any areas that are current issues with which user groups are concerned. After research by the management science staff, the second step is a brief formal issue statement written in contrast with the user group. In addition to describing the issue, this statement goes on the methodology and resources that will be required to respond to it. The third step is a formal request for authorization of out-of-pocket expenses. Selling the system: In one of the companies I study, a marketing analysis group utilizes a direct selling procedure to convince those of the merits of a prevailing sales system. The pitch was very simple: to compare the monthly manual forecast for one year and forecast the system. The system's forecast has proven to be more accurate within ten months from twelve, with fewer errors overall than manual ones. The system was adopted. At another company, management had a real-time system installed to control the automated liver production of an expensive consumer item in order to minimize material loss due to replacement disorder in car environments. During the first installation, the application team discovers suspicious, but already without substancy, copied by employees working pieces; more pieces they left many cars than they had entered. The discreet suggestions fell that the monitor had to check because it had enrolled impossible results. Employees were sold on the new system: They knew very well that it worked. Fundamental changes despite extensive experience with EDP, many organizations have been used by more than one or two of the seven types of decision support systems I've illustrated there. One reason for this is that justifying these systems can be difficult: quantifying the impact of replacing ten clerks with a computer is one thing, while quantifying the impact of improving individual efficiency in line personnel is quite something different. Another reason is that applications can be tricky: many of the ideas come from people other than users. But developing a decision support system makes sense when it becomes clear that a fundamental change may be needed in the way decisions are reached and implemented. Many times, the process of defining the system is every bit as valued as the product system. My final point is that the concept of decision support system itself can help administrators in understanding the role of computers in their organization. As the implication name, systematized data processing systematized and reinstated mechanics are in to carry on business activities by mass processing of data automatically. On the other hand, the decision-oriented extensions of these systems help people make and communicate decisions regarding administrative and/or competitive tactics and strategies. The decision support systems I discussed went a step further, from starting as extension to existing data processing systems, many decision support systems are built from scratch for the single goal of upgrading or making a decision-making process. The underlying philosophy is that the use of computers to help people make and communicate decisions is every bit as legitimate and vovhile as the use of computers to process mass data. There is evidence that this point has been taken over to a certain degree and is becoming more widely accepted. The implication is not that all organizations should get on the bandwagon, but rather that the admineseans should be aware of the opportunities and challenges in this area and should try to assess whether organizations should move in this direction.1. Steven Alter, A Study for Computer Aided Decision Making in Organization, Ph.D. Thesis, Sloan School of Management, MIT, 1978. A version of this article appeared in the November 1976 issue of Harvard Business Review. Review.

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