

Unit-9: Organisational Behaviour

9.0 : Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- understand the basic concepts of organisational behaviour, origin, goals and levels of analysis of organisational behaviour;
- discuss factors comprising the human behaviour;
- learn theories like Hawthorne studies and McGregor's theory X and Y;
- discuss the content theories of motivation and process theories of motivation;
- discuss conflict in organisation, different types of conflict, positive and negative consequences of conflict and methods to resolve it; and
- discuss organisational behaviour in library and information centre.

9.1 : Introduction

Organisations are becoming complex and diversified. Earlier management studies concentrated on the efficient performance of the employees and the main purpose was improvement of the productivity of workers. Hawthorne studies were among the first studies that highlighted the significance of the human element in the organisation. Organisational behaviour emerged out of human relations and management fields. It draws significant ideas from psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science and economics. Whenever people interact in organisations, many factors come into play. Organisational studies attempts to understand and model these factors. Perception, learning and motivation are various factors that shape human behaviour. Motivation is the major drive behind human action. Various theories of motivation have been given by researchers. These theories fall into two groups: Content based and Process based theories. Content based motivation theories focus on explaining the nature of individual needs and process based theories highlight the psychological and behavioral processes involved in motivation. Organisational behaviour has become significant in the management of library and information centres as they are becoming complex organisations providing a wide range of information services.

9.2 : Organisational Behaviour

Organisational behaviour can be defined as the study of the behaviour of people and their relationships in organisations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving organisations effectiveness.

In this field of study the main focus is on the three determinants of behaviour in

organisations: individuals, groups and structure. Organisational behaviour applies "the knowledge gained about individuals, groups and the effect of structure on behaviour in order to make organisations work more effectively". The emphasis is on the development of human relations skills for analysing behaviour so as to understand and anticipate behaviours and prevent or resolve any behavioural problems within the organisations.

Most views we hold on human behaviour are based on intuition rather than fact. This necessitates the need for a systematic approach to the study of human behaviour. This provides a basis to make more accurate predictions of human behaviour.

Origin of Organisational Behaviour

Organisational behaviour emerged as a unique field of study during the early 1960s. It is built upon contributions from a number of disciplines like psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology, political science etc.

Psychology is a discipline that has had the greatest influence on the field of organisational behaviour as it seeks to understand and predict individual behaviour. Most of the psychological theories concerning perception, learning, personality, training, leadership effectiveness, needs and motivational forces etc. have been applied in organisational behaviour for understanding of how people behave in organisations and various other factors like job satisfaction, decision making processes, performance appraisals, employee selection techniques, job design and work stress etc.

The discipline of sociology is concerned with the study of social systems and the interactions of people within a social setting. It studies people in relation to their fellow human beings. Group dynamics, organisational culture, organisation structure, communications, power, and conflict are some of the areas within organisational behaviour where sociologists have made valuable contributions. The fields of sociology and social psychology have added to our understanding of group behaviour in organisations.

The field of anthropology is concerned with the study of relationships between individuals and their environments. Groups of individuals living together create a body of shared ideas called culture, which is reflected in their language and beliefs. Anthropologists study cultures and environments that has contributed to the understanding of differences in fundamental values, attitudes, and behaviour between people in different countries and in different organisations.

Economics, political science and history are other disciplines which have added to the field of organisational behaviour. Political science is concerned with the study of behaviour of individuals and groups within a political environment. It has helped in understanding structuring of conflict, allocation of power, and how people manipulate power for individual self-interest. Economics has helped in our understanding of individual and organisational decision making processes.

Goals of Organisational Behaviour

The goals of organisational behaviour, as suggested by Cherrington et. al. (1989) are description, explanation and control of behaviour in organisations.

Description - Description of a problem is the first step towards understanding or explaining it. The first goal in studying organisational behaviour is to recognise and describe events that are predictable and occur

with regularity. The focus is on labeling and defining organisational events.

Explanation and Prediction - The second goal of organisational behaviour is to explain and predict the events that occur. The identification of the forces contributing to these events helps us to predict their occurrence in future. Explanations are generally more complicated than descriptions. Theories are developed to explain various observances. These theories represent the various efforts to explain the relationships between variables and motives behind people's behaviour.

Control - The third goal of organisational behaviour is to control the behaviour that occurs in organisations. A variety of techniques and interventions to change the behaviours of individuals, groups, and organisations are there in organisational behaviour. However, controlling of behaviour has certain ethical issues attached to it. Idea of using organisational behaviour knowledge to control the behaviour of people at work is not well accepted by people, and is often criticised as coercion or manipulation. The managers should attempt to control behaviour in a way that contributes to both individual growth and organisational goal behaviour.

Levels of Analysis in Organisational Behaviour

There are three levels of analysis for conducting the study of organisational behaviour. The three levels are like building blocks and each level is constructed upon the previous level. These levels are:

- i) **Individual level** - At this level events are diagnosed in terms of individual behaviours and interactions in given situation.
- ii) **Group level**- At this level, the focus is on group dynamics, group roles, and status.
- iii) **Organisation level** - At this level the events occurring within the context of organisation structure are analysed.



Fig. 9.1: Three Levels of Analysis in Organisational Behaviour

(Source: Cherrington)

In addition to this, the effects of the external environment are also considered.

9.3 : Human Behaviour



Determining the factors that make individuals co-operate in an organisation and shape their attitude to work, is a key element in management. This necessitates the study of human behaviour and motivation. Behaviour is the result of complex interactions between an individual and his or her environment. The mental make-up, heredity, environment, education, social customs, cultural traditions and many other factors shape an individual's thinking and actions. Since these factors vary from individual to individual and are influenced by the surroundings, behaviour is situational. In spite of this uniqueness, there are a few common elements that generally affect the behavioural pattern, in a common way in most people. For managers, it is necessary to study these forces, which influence the behaviour, and to understand the individual personality or uniqueness of the people they have to deal with. Major factors that shape human behaviour are perception, learning and motivation.

Perception



The behaviour of an individual and the decision making process are invariably linked with his or her perception of a given problem or situation. It provides a unique picture or understanding of the subject that may or may not be real. A manager's perception of a subordinate's needs, qualities and abilities might be quite different from what the subordinate himself/herself thinks, which itself might be far from the actual truth. The nearer a manager's perception of a situation to reality, the more likely it is to lead to proper decision making as well as leadership qualities. In perceiving one should be aware of certain psychological deceptions, such as the formation of general impressions that adversely influence judgment (halo effect), attributing one's own characteristics to other people when things go wrong (projection), and identifying a person as belonging to a single class with attributed traits, a variant of the actual (stereotyping).

Learning



Learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour which results from reinforced practice or experience. Reinforcement or satisfaction that accompanies or closely follows the response to the same situation is considered to be the single most important factor in learning. A powerful reinforcement that affects learning is reward or punishment. A growing number of theorists and researchers in organisational behaviour believe that learning is a major concept in the study of human behaviour. Behaviour of an individual in an organisation is directly or indirectly affected by learning. A worker's skill, a manager's attitude, a secretary's mode of dress are all learned.



Motivation

Motivation is the inner drive that moves and directs an individual's behaviour towards satisfying his needs and attainment of goals. Motivation to work has been defined as, "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration" (Pinder, 1984). The meaning of, and relationship between needs, drives and goals are the key elements to understanding the meaning of motivation.

Fig. 9.2: The Motivation Process (Source:

Adapted from Robbins)

Robbins (1991) has suggested that motivated employees are in a state of tension. This tension makes them exert effort. If the effort results in the satisfaction of the need, tension is reduced. In context of organisation and work environment, the individual's needs should be consistent with the objectives of the organisation. Otherwise, individuals can be found exerting effort which is in juxtaposition to the objectives of the organisation. To understand this we can consider the example of employees who spend a lot of time talking with friends at workplace in order to satisfy their social needs. This effort goes against the interest of the organisation.

There are two distinct types of motivation theory: content based and process based motivation theories. Each of these theories highlights a different facet of Motivation. Content theories concentrate on what motivates people. They attempt to explain motivation in terms of needs and specify a variety of needs. Process theories focus on how motivation occurs, "these theories explain motivation in terms of the individual's perceptions, beliefs, and expectancies about the attainability and need-satisfying value of work rewards" (Hampton, et al., 1986).

Motivators

In organisations several motivating factors are normally employed. These include:

- Setting sufficiently challenging goals that inspire a sense of commitment among employees
- Genuine appreciation and encouragement of good work done
- Creation of wider opportunities for self-improvement and participation in decision making
- Arousing the feeling of achievement v Lessening anxiety

- Job enrichment
- Various types of financial incentives
- Skilful exploitation of group affiliations
- Allowing greater freedom and responsibility
- Impact of personality, integrity, and fair treatment of subordinates by the manager
- Reward and punishment.

9.4 : Human Factor in Management

Hawthorne Studies

Hawthorne studies were carried out by George Elton Mayo at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago between 1924 and 1927. Elton Mayo's research has become a landmark in modern concept of effective human relations. These studies have contributed to organisational development in terms of human relations and motivation theory.

When illumination was increased at the Hawthorne Plant, the productivity increased and when illumination was decreased, the production continued to increase. When illumination was not changed, the same increase in production was noticed. Mayo was asked to examine the situation.

Mayo conducted the studies in two parts. In the first part he constituted special six-women team of workers. In order to determine worker fatigue and production, working conditions for these teams were constantly changed. Various factors such as illumination, rest periods, coffee breaks, length of the work day were used to study the worker output and behaviour. But the production continued to increase, even when the original conditions were restored. The reason was found that the experiments had brought a change in the way the workers felt about themselves. Their needs for affiliation, competency and achievement were fulfilled and this led to an increase in the productivity.

In the second part of the studies, approximately 20,000 workers were interviewed. It was found that the work in the factory was dull and most employees accepted it passively. There were informal groups of workers, which gave an employee feeling of belonging. These groups were considered as threats by the Management, as the groups also provided a means of safe retaliation for poor managerial techniques. Mayo emphasised that it could be made a positive force if management used it for positive action.

Conclusions drawn by the Hawthorne Studies are:

- 1) Work places are social environments and within them, people are motivated by much more than economic interest.
- 2) The need for recognition, security, and sense of belonging is more important in determining the morale and productivity of the workers than the physical conditions in which they work.
- 3) Employees respond to managerial efforts to improve the working environment.

- 4) Informal groups within an organisation exercise strong social controls over the work habits and attitudes of the individual workers.
- 5) The informal group can be a positive force helping management in achieving its goals.
- 6) The informal groups should be recognised as constructive force in the organisation to develop a sense of dignity and responsibility.

These studies were the first to recognise that organisations are social systems and led to the origin of the human relations school of management which is now developing in new forms as participatory management, quality circles etc.

McGregor's Theory X and Y

Douglas McGregor, in his book, "The Human Side of Enterprise", 1960, proposed two distinct assumptions about behaviour of individuals at work. He referred to these as Theory X and Theory Y. These theories presented the managerial perception of workers.

McGregor's Theory X assumes:

- i) Average human beings inherently dislike work and will avoid it, whenever possible.
- ii) Since people dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to put in necessary efforts to achieve goals.
- iii) Average human being dislikes responsibility, prefers to be directed and desires security above everything.

Theory X presents a very pessimistic assessment of human nature and shows major reliance upon the use of authority to control workers.

Theory Y presents an alternative set of generalisations about human nature and the management of human resources. Theory Y assumes•:

- i) Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.
- ii).Control and punishment are not the only ways to make people work. People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives of the organisation.
- iii) The average man learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
- iv) Employees have the capacity to use a relatively high degree of imagination, creativity and ingenuity to solve work problems.
- v) Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potential of the average man is only partially utilised.
- vi) Job satisfaction will eventually lead to commitment to the organisation.

Theory Y presents a more positive picture of people. The assumptions indicate that human beings have a tendency to grow and develop. It emphasises that management should create an atmosphere that is conducive to the positive development of individual employees and

enables participative problem solving.

McGregor himself held Theory Y assumptions more valid than Theory X assumptions. He further proposed that participation in decision making, responsible and challenging jobs and good group relations are some approaches that can be used to maximise an employee's motivation. Through his theories he makes a pertinent indication to the managers that employees contribute more to the organisation if they are related as responsible and valued employees.

9.5 : Content Theories of Motivation

Content Theories of Motivation enable us to understand the basic needs that people satisfy by their action. These theories highlight the types of needs that can motivate people. These theories stress that an unsatisfied need results in a driving force toward satisfaction of the need. These theories are concerned with the types of incentives or goals that people strive to attain in order to be satisfied and perform well.

Fig. 9.3: Major Content Theories of Motivation

(Source: Randolph and Blackburn)

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow hypothesised that within every human being there exist some basic needs. This he presented in a hierarchy of five levels, and each level of need has to be gratified to some extent before the next level assumes importance.

Maslow's hierarchy distinguished five levels of human needs, ranging from basic, lower-order needs to social and psychological needs of a higher order. The five levels of needs suggested by Maslow are:

Physiological Needs - These are the most basic of all needs and comprise food, shelter, clothing, water and other bodily needs. These are essential to human survival. If these needs are fulfilled we become aware of the need in the next level of hierarchy.

Fig. 9.4: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Safety Needs - These consist of the need to be safe and secure. Safety needs include physical safety and mental safety i.e., feeling free or having job security. It motivates to seek out stability, freedom and removal of fear and anxiety.

Social Needs - These include need for affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship i.e., a need to belong, to love and be loved, to be social and to participate in activities that create a feeling of togetherness.

Esteem Needs - These include the status needs i.e., need to have a higher position relative to that of others. Self esteem needs are internal feelings of self-worth. These needs are produced through recognition, achievement and trust and lead to a feeling of power and prestige. Some people reach this level of hierarchy and do not *move* further.

But in some people, fulfillment of the status and self-esteem needs gives rise to the need to self-actualise.

Self-Actualisation Need - This is the highest level and involves reaching one's highest potential. Self-actualisation means maximising one's potential to become everything that one is capable of becoming, this need is rarely completely satisfied.

Maslow divided these needs into lower-order needs i.e., physiological and safety order-needs, and higher order needs (i.e., social esteem and self-actualisation needs). Maslow's hierarchy of needs can be utilised for understanding motivation in workers. In today's times of economic plenty, the lower order needs of most of the workers are substantially met. Maslow's hierarchy has been criticised for being simplistic as Maslow "provided no empirical substantiation". It was also stated that needs often overlap. Though Maslow's model is not free from criticism, it makes a significant contribution in terms of making managers aware of the various needs of humans at work. What makes Maslow's work significant is that it highlights the fact that humans have diverse motives, which affect their work behaviour. Maslow's theory is still meaningful because it is simple to understand and because individual needs are critical to understanding individual behaviour.

ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer developed a modified version of the Maslow's theory. This is known as the ERG theory of needs. He stated that there are three basic human needs -existence, relatedness, and growth.

Fig. 9.5: Alderfer's Model

Existence need include physical and material human needs such as food, water, safety-security factors, and decent working conditions. Related needs involve an individual's relationship with others. The growth needs consist of the desire for self-esteem and Self-realisation. ERG theory is different from Maslow's theory as it demonstrates that any or all three of the levels might be significant at any given time and if the satisfaction of a higher-level need is hampered, the desire to satisfy a lower-level need increases.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

Frederick Herzberg, a psychologist, proposed the motivation-hygiene theory. This theory dealt with the question, "what people want from their jobs?" and focused on the motivation of employees in a work environment. Herzberg asked people about the situations that made them feel happy and satisfied about their jobs and what made them feel dissatisfied. Their responses were tabulated and analysed. It was found that a group of factors contributed to the employees feeling good about their jobs. Herzberg termed these factors motivators. These factors include achievement, recognition by supervisors, peers, subordinates or customers, etc. These factors lead to job satisfaction and motivate individuals for better performance. Herzberg concluded that the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to dissatisfaction. He characterised factors such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, salary, job security, status, working conditions, as hygiene or maintenance factors. These factors do not contribute to satisfaction on the job. However, when inadequate they lead to dissatisfaction. It is the work itself that makes people satisfied with their jobs. The dissatisfaction with the jobs arises out of the unhappiness with the environment of work.

It suggests that managers must emphasise achievement, recognition, and growth to motivate people. In order to motivate the employees, managers must ensure that jobs are interesting and challenging to them. He stated job enrichment as one of the most effective methods of motivating employees. But this must involve making a job more responsible and challenging rather than adding tasks to it.

McClelland's Three Needs Theory

David McClelland proposed a Three Needs Theory for understanding motivation in organisational settings. These three needs are:

- i) **Need for Achievement** - Which is the drive to excel and achieve in relation to a set of standards.
- ii) **Need for Power** - Which is the need to be influential and have an impact on others in the organisation
- iii) **Need for Affiliation** - Which is the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

High Achievers have a desire to do something better and more effectively than others and therefore, they seek situations where they can attain personal responsibility for finding solutions and where they can set moderately challenging goals.

Individuals with a high need for power want to influence and control others. They enjoy being in competitive situations and are more concerned with prestige and influence over others than with effective performance. This theory helped in making well-supported predictions based on the relationship between achievement need and job performance.

People with high achievement need are more interested in how they perform personally rather than influencing others to do well. Therefore, they cannot be good managers. Manager's

can use McClelland's theory to match various aspects of work with the employee's need

9.6 : Process Theories of Motivation

These are theories, which define motivation as a choice process for individuals "These theories are more concerned with the cognitive antecedents that go in to motivation and effort and, more important, with the way they relate to one another." (Luthans, 1985). The process-based theories of motivation thus focus on how motivation occurs.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

This theory was proposed in the 1960s. It suggests that when extrinsic rewards are used by organisations as payoffs for superior performance, the intrinsic rewards, which are derived from individuals doing what they like, are reduced. When extrinsic rewards are given for performing an interesting task, it causes intrinsic interest in the task itself to decline (Robbins, 1991). This theory helps managers to analyse the effectiveness of extrinsic rewards as motivators.

It has implications on the way individuals are paid in organisations.

Goal Setting Theory

The goal setting theory, highlighting the effects of goal setting on performance, was proposed by Edwin Locke. According to Locke, "intentions to work toward a goal are a major source of work motivation" (Locke, 1968). He further stated that "specific goals increase performance and that the difficult goals, when accepted by employees, lead to higher performance than do easier goals" (Locke, 1978).

Feedback also affects the performance of employees as it helps "to identify y discrepancies between what they have done and what they want to do".. (Robbins, 1991)

Goals are like values only more specific, people set goals in order to attain values and pursue values in order to fulfill needs. For example, an employee, based on the need for income and self-esteem may choose ambition (getting ahead in life) as a value, and then set goals to do well in a number of specific tasks (both in school and in jobs). The goals help achieve the value that helps satisfy the need. The full sequence is as follows; goals => values => needs. Since there are many paths to a given value, many different goals can be set in relation to it.

Locke, Edwin A. "Motivation by Goal Setting" states:

When goals are difficult, people also tend to resist it. Participation of people in goal setting ensures the acceptance of even a difficult goal than if it is assigned to them by their superior. To get people committed to a goal, it is important to convince them that the goal is important and is reachable or partially reachable. Setting of a specific and difficult goal helps to get high performance. Achieving a set goal is very satisfying and fulfills the need for self-esteem and the need for achievement. For example, if an original cataloguer in a library is asked to do original cataloguing of at least fifteen English language books a day. This will motivate him

to improve his performance to meet this set goal.

Reinforcement Theory

The Reinforcement theory is a behaviouristic approach and emphasises that behaviour is conditioned by reinforcement. In simple words, the theory suggests that "people tend to do things that lead to positive consequence and avoid doing things that lead to unpleasant consequence" (Cherrington, 1989). It provides powerful means of analysis of what controls behaviour and it is for this reason that it is typically considered in discussions of motivation (Steers and Porter, 1979).

Some type of reinforcement can be used to produce a change in behaviour. It can be used as a managerial tool for shaping the behaviour of employees in organisation. Positive reinforcement i.e., praising an employee for a job well done, giving some reward etc., strengthens a response.

Equity Theory

This theory has been used to explain motivational problems and levels of job satisfaction. This theory examines "the expectations individuals have about the outcomes they receive as a result of their contributions of time and effort" (Cherrington, 1989). According to this theory, people evaluate their impacts to the job relative to the outputs they receive (Adams, 1965). And then compare what they receive for their inputs relative to what others receive for theirs. If they think/feel their outcome - input ratio to be equal to that of the relevant others with whom they compare themselves, a state of equity is said to exist. If they find the ration as unequal, they experience equity tension

"Equity theory recognises that individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of rewards they receive for their efforts, but also with the relationship of this amount to what others receive. They make judgment as to the relationship between their inputs and outcomes and the inputs and outcomes of others" (Cherrington, 1989). Individuals compare outcomes such as salary, recognition, increments etc. with inputs such as effort, education, experience and competence. If they perceive their output-inputs ratio as unequal relative to others, then tension is created. "This tension provides the basis for motivation, as people strive for what they perceive as equity and fairness" (Cherrington, 1989).

Equity theory has enabled us to look into aspects of pay, remuneration and rewards and how these motivate the employee behaviour.

Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory was first presented by Victor Vroom in a comprehensive manner in his book "Work and Motivation" in 1964.

The expectancy theory, states that people are motivated to perform to achieve a goal if they believe in the worth of the goal and if they feel that their action will contribute to the

achievement of the goal.

Fig. 9.6: Simplified Expectancy Model

(Source: Robbins)

The expectancy model introduces four variables:

- 1) Force is the motivational drive to achieve a goal.
- 2) Valence refers to the value of the outcomes and the extent to which they are desired by an individual.
- 3) Expectancy refers to the probability that effort will lead to performance.
- 4) Instrumentality refers to the relationship between performance and outcomes.

Force Valence X Expectancy X Instrumentality (Motivation)

This formula is multiplicative, as soon as the value of any element decreases to zero, the motivational force also becomes zero.

Vroom's theory highlights how people's goals influence their efforts. It recognises the importance of various individual needs and motivations. The emphasis is on "the understanding of an individual's goals and the linkage between effort and performance, between performance and rewards, and finally, between the rewards and individual goal satisfaction" (Cherrington, 1989). The theory enables us to understand why some people exert a minimal level of effort in carrying out their job responsibilities.

9.7 : Individual Interaction and Conflict

Conflict is a part of organisational behaviour. Conflict occurs as the result of a disagreement, threat or opposition between individuals or groups, or within an individual or group. Although it is not possible to avoid conflict altogether, it can be reduced through remedial actions if we know the courses. Conflict may be defined as the condition of incompatibility of values, goals or interests of one individual with those of other individuals or organisations. Conflicts

lead to disfunctioning and cross-functioning of organisations. Conflict could be intra-individual, interpersonal, intergroup or organizational.

Intra-individual Conflict

Every individual has a number of competing needs and roles, which are expressed in a variety of ways. Many types of barriers can occur between the drive and the goal. This results in conflict. Domineering attitude towards peers or subordinate, instances of anger, aggressive behaviour, sarcastic and critical attitude indicate an underlying conflict which must be resolved. Absenteeism from work, apathy, absentmindedness, overindulgence in food, drink, drugs etc. are some other signals of conflict. In this situation, the manager of library and information center must attempt to understand the cause behind the conflict and then try to help resolve the conflict either by providing advice or by referring the individual to an appropriate source of advice. Intra-individual conflict arises in the form of frustration, goal conflict, role conflict and, role ambiguity.

i) Frustration

Frustration occurs when a motivated drive is blocked before reaching a desired goal. The behavioural response of an individual to such a situation may take the form of aggression, withdrawal, fixation, or compromise. Fixation implies continuing attempts to reach the goal under the self-delusion that a hindrance to reaching the goal does not exist. These reactions may also manifest themselves in many other ways. Frustration generally affects organisational behaviour in a negative way. A frustrated library staff member is likely to direct his/her pent-up emotions towards colleagues, subordinates and patrons; adopt a negative attitude towards work; rebel against library authorities, or withdraw by assuming an attitude of indifference.

ii) Goal Conflict

This refers to situations where an individual is confronted with more than one mutually exclusive goal and is forced to make a selection. The goals may be compatible or have features of both compatibility and incompatibility, or be totally incompatible. There are no easy solutions to goal conflict. Creation of a healthy organisational atmosphere, a positive managerial attitude, and maturity on the part of individuals, contribute to lessening the effects of goal conflict.

iii) Role Conflict

A role is defined as a position that has expectations evolving from established norms. A role conflict arises when the individual is expected to play a role but is unable or unwilling to fulfill the role expectations due to social, moral, organisational or personal compulsions.

Often, a clash of roles results in conflict. The organisational role in libraries has two aspects: (a) what the patrons and society expect from librarians as professionals and (b) what the organisation expects from them as its functionaries. The first aspect deals with services and the second with managerial functioning and organisational responsibilities. Role conflict

occurs in areas of participative decision-making and organisation structure variables such as supervisory span of control, span of subordination and formalisation. Managerial actions like increasing the participation of staff in decision-making or the introduction of formalised rules and procedures could reduce role conflict and ambiguity among the people involved.

iv) Role ambiguity

This arises when an individual or members are not clear as to what precisely their role is at any given time. This role ambiguity results in anxiety and intra-role conflict. Role ambiguity can be overcome by defining and using proper job descriptions in library and information centers.

Interpersonal conflict

Interpersonal conflict arises when two or more persons interact with each other. These interactions may take the forms of cooperation, conflict, adjustment and response. It is also believed that certain psychological mechanisms come into play in an individual's adaptation to the environment. These mechanisms- sublimation, compensation, compromise, rationalisation, withdrawal, regression, projection, neurosis and many others - will result in positive or negative actions. Understanding the dynamics of interpersonal behaviour should enable a manager to act effectively with organisational personnel. It also furnishes the necessary awareness of his/her own attitude towards others. Dynamics of interpersonal behaviour can be analysed using Johari window, which has been explained later in this unit. The intergroup and organisational conflicts, discussed later in this unit have interpersonal implications, but in this section we will discuss the conflict that arises in interaction of two or more people. There are three basic strategies that can be used in interpersonal conflict situations. These are:

- i) **Lose-lose:** In this approach both the parties lose. Compromising, taking middle ground, using an arbitrator or buying the other part are some approaches followed to resolve conflict.
- ii) **Win-lose:** In this one party always closes. It creates a competitive drive to win. It is usually found in superior-subordinate relationships, union-Management relations.
- iii) **Win-win:** In this approach the needs of both the parties in conflict are met and both receive rewarding outcomes.

Intergroup Conflict

Formal and informal associations of people in an organisation lead to the formation of social groups. The formal association is nurtured by the organisation's culture, the behaviour and practices of managers and colleagues. The formation of a trade union can be traced generally to an informal group, later transforming itself into a formal association. Formal groups wield influence collectively and informal groups affect an individual's attitude towards work and behaviour. An important characteristic of a group is the pressure it exerts on its members to conform to its standards, routines and values. Cliques are small groups formed among persons to promote some cause. A study of the behaviour of groups will help a manager to

avoid or reduce conflicts and try to harmonise the objectives of social groups with those of the organisation. Concepts of integrated task teams and group practice are some of the methods tried to bring about harmony.

As a result of formation of groups in an organisation and interaction between these groups conflict can occur. Groups, even though they consist of individuals, act synergetically. It has been observed that even when individuals in the group are normal and well adjusted, intergroup conflict and hostility may arise because of group interaction.

Groups are the major determinants of attitudes and behaviours. Hence, they can be used as powerful instruments for constructive as well as destructive actions. Groups may be formal or informal associations of persons. As an instrument of discharging organisational activities, groups offer certain unique advantages, such as providing collective wisdom, effecting discipline, inducing a sense of participation, bringing about changes in behaviour, attitudes and values, and helping communication.

Intergroup conflict usually occurs when members of a group feel that the actions of another group are hampering the achievement of their group goals. Conflict, can also occur between hierarchical levels over issues of power, authority and control.

Organisational Conflict

The major causes of conflict in today's organisations are increasing complexity and interdependence. Relationship between two or more organisations is becoming more common. These interactions are multidimensional and complex due to the involvement of several groups. Organisational conflict occurs between organisations, which in some way are dependent on each other. This conflict may be on policy issues, objectives etc. Inter-organisational conflict can also occur between government agencies that regulate certain organisations and the organisations that are affected by them, and, between unions and organisations employing their members.

Poor communication also sometimes leads to conflict. Here the intent of the message sent is different than the interpretations of the message received. Structural aspects of an organisation like size of the organisation, relationship between line and staff, poorly defined tasks, misuse of authority etc. can also lead to conflicting situations.

These conflicts can be resolved by introducing changes in the organisational structure and taking steps such as decentralisation of power and authority, reducing interdependency of groups upon each other. All the policies, procedures and rules in the organisation should be clearly set and the communication in the organisation should be free and open. Manager of a library and information centre should try to develop a healthy work environment built on trust among staff members.

Negative and Positive Consequences

The origin of most organisational conflicts can be traced to the organisation structure, resource allocation, incompatibility of goals and difference in perceptions. Typical relationships of groups could be either competitive or cooperative. Healthy competition adds

to organisational viability and cohesiveness and helps in increasing production. Conflict is not always bad. It can lead to innovation and change. In fact, a certain degree of conflict is considered necessary to maintain organisational health. Conflict has both negative and positive outcomes. Negative outcomes of conflict are:

- a) It leads to wastage of time and effort.
- b) It decreases interaction and increases distance between conflicting individuals or groups.
- c) It increases stress among employees and diverts attention from the work.
- d) The morale and motivation to work are affected.
- e) It decreases productivity
- f) It leads to break down of communication.

Conflict must be distinguished from competition, though at times intense competition leads to conflict. Conflict plays a useful role and leads to innovation. Some advantages or positive consequences of conflict can be summarised as:

- a) It helps in analytical thinking. It brings forth such views, opinions, policies and plans, which require critical analysis, and results in generation of new, better and innovative ideas.
- b) Conflict leads to increased cohesion. Cohesion between groups or individuals with an organisation leads to the development of a sense of group identity and thus gives rise to greater commitment to organisational goals.
- c) It promotes competition, which in turn leads to a high level of effort and output.
- d) It leads to organisational development. it provides ground for creativity and innovation thus challenging the status quo.
- e) It provides certain problems to come forth into the open and thus paves way for clearing and solving these problems.
- f) Conflict serves as a signal that a problem exists and encourages its correction. It motivates people to find solution to problems causing the conflict.
- g) Conflict helps in correcting various organisational problems. As a result of conflict power differences, if any, come into view.
- h) It strengthens linkages between certain groups and increases flexibility in the way groups interact.
- i) Conflict also leads to introduction of structural changes that reduce the negative impact of conflict.

Managing Conflict

To minimise the adverse impact of conflict on organisational effectiveness, managers can design and modify the organisational structure to prevent conflict provoking work patterns (Thompson and Van Honten, 1970). More open and rational handling of conflict is more important today. Negotiation or bargaining are some techniques which are useful in resolving differences. For effective management of conflict three basic steps can be followed:

- i) **Perceiving or experiencing unacceptable conflict-** The first step in the resolution of conflict involves the manager to accept that a certain amount of conflict is inevitable within any organisation.
- ii) **Analysing the sources of the conflict** - This step involves dealing with the conflict. The manager must not try to suppress conflict. He/she must try to understand the main causes underlying the conflict. The conflict and the various underlying causes and issues should be brought out into the open, discussed and a mutually beneficial solution must be arrived at.
- iii) **Intervening** -Manager should try to resolve a conflict in a way that it creates a positive feeling among the participants about the outcome. This can be achieved by mediating between the conflicting parties.

Five primary strategies employed for handling conflict have been identified. These are:

- i) **Avoidance:** In this strategy the attempt is to deny the existence of conflict or simply avoid the issue. The managers try to ignore the conflict and try to remain neutral. This strategy should be adopted only if the conflict is on a trivial issue.
- ii) **Smoothing:** In this strategy, an attempt is made to minimise the perceived differences in conflict while trying to smoothen the hostilities of the people or groups involved. In this the common interests are stressed while playing down the magnitude of the conflict. The manager tries to enthuse a feeling of cooperation among the conflicting parties. This strategy is suitable only on a short-term basis in situations where avoidance of disruption is vital and the groups have a mutual goal to accomplish.
- iii) **Compromise:** In this the emphasis is on negotiation and seeking a middle ground for the resolution of conflict. This strategy is appropriate when both, parties are interested in exploring the possibilities or reaching on agreement. It also helps in situations where there are conflicting goals.
- iv) **Collaborative:** In this strategy, the manager tries to identify the various underlying causes of conflict and tries to explore mutually beneficial alternatives. All issues are brought into the open and discussed by the conflicting parties in an attempt to reach a mutually agreed solution. This strategy is appropriate when there are no time limits, no shared values and norms.
- v) **Forcing:** In this strategy, the manager uses his/her power, authority to resolve the conflict. The differences are suppressed and the dominator enforces his/her own view over the

opposing party in conflict. In this strategy one party is a loser and the other is a winner. This approach causes resentment and hostility and could aggravate the conflict.

Conflict brings the issues to the surface, which may otherwise never arise and generates pressures to reduce conflict. However, chronic conflict, which persists for longer duration, is not good for any organisation. It is therefore, important for the manager of library and information centre to take note of any kind of conflict that arises and try to resolve it. Some methods, which can be used, for detection of conflict in library and information centres are:

- i) **Grievance procedures:** In this method any kind of dissatisfaction is communicated to the management through official channels. The manager must provide proper environment where any complain could be made and then discussed.
- ii) **Direct observation:** This helps in identifying interpersonal or intergroup conflicts.
- iii) **Suggestion boxes:** Through suggestion boxes employees can make suggestions or complaints whilst maintaining their anonymity.
- iv) **Exit Interviews:** These can be used for identifying subversive conflicts that exist within library and information centers. Employees can discuss freely their dissatisfaction, if any, when they have no affiliation with the organisation.

Tracing the causes of conflicts, eliminating them, and adopting a positive approach towards subordinates and their work, go along way in building harmony of purpose among people in an organisation. Ego, motivation and perception largely shape the attitude of co-operation in an individual.

Johari Window

Lack of understanding between interacting individuals is at the root of interpersonal conflict. Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham have studied this in terms of knowledge about self and knowledge about the other party in a two-person interactions model, popularly known as the *JOHARI WINDOW*. In any interpersonal interaction between two persons X and Y, the situations listed-in Table 1 are possible.

Table 9.1: Johari Window



Johari Window is used even today because of its simplicity. In this model a square, divided into four parts A, B, C, D is used to represent the changes of self-perception and foreign perception in a group process.

Fig. 9.7: Johari Window

(Source: <http://www.augsburg.edu>)

Quadrant A: This is the open area of a person's life where things are known both to the person and to others.

Quadrant B: This contains things unknown to individuals about themselves, but known to those around them. By being open to feedback from others we can learn a great deal about ourselves and change this blind area into open area.

Quadrant C: This is the hidden area of a person's life where things are known to the person, but not to others. By sharing this hidden area can be decreased and changed into open area.

Quadrant D: This is the unknown area of a person's life where things are not known to that person or to others. This area can be reduced by sharing and receiving feedback.

Group interactions can be studied and analysed using Johari Window. As a large part of the

relations become free and open **Quadrant A** enlarges and other quadrants reduce. This highlights more openness for information, opinions and new thoughts about an individual's own situation and also group process. As more personal needs are realised, work satisfaction and sympathy for group activities also increase.

By self-disclosure i.e., making the other person know about yourself and giving and receiving a feedback from the other, conflict can be reduced. Increasing the area of open self reduces the possibility of conflict. Johari Window can be employed in libraries to understand user library interaction in terms of interpersonal relationship. X and Y in Table 1 maybe taken to represent users, their needs and attitudes; and library facilities and operation, respectively.

9.8 : Organisational Behaviour in Library and Information Science

Organisational behaviour can be defined as the study of the behaviour of people and their relationship in organisations for the purpose of applying such knowledge towards improving an organisation's effectiveness. Organisational behaviour is specifically concerned with employment related environments. It emphasises behaviour as related to jobs, work, absenteeism, employment turnover, productivity, human performance and management (Robbins, 1991). It helps in the development of human relations skills thus enabling the managers to analyse individual behaviour to deal with behavioral problems within the organisation.

Various psychological, technical, sociological and political changes affecting the library and information centres highlight the need for successful and effective management. Manager of a library and information centre must study organisational behaviour to know about individual behaviour and thus apply it to make the organisations work more effectively.

In library and information centres, as in other organisations, management can be divided into three levels.

- i) **Top Level** -This comprises the director, the assistant and associate directors. Top management is responsible for the overall functioning of the entire organisation.
- ii) **Middle Level** - This involves the department heads who are or concerned with the effective functioning of individual areas of the Library.
- iii) **Lower Level**-This level includes supervisors who lead the activities of individual workers to accomplish the organisational objectives

In last few years, as a result of organisational changes, the high pyramid style has changed and flattened. However, the managers at all the levels have to perform the function of leading and directing. This is a difficult job because it involves dealing with human behaviour. Understanding human behaviour is not easy as people are complex and complicated. Keith Davis and John Newstrom have stated, "There are no simple formula for working with people. There is no perfect solution to organisational problems. All that can be done is to increase our understanding and skills so that human relations at work can be upgraded." A library and

information center manager should be aware of four basic assumptions about people as suggested by Davis and Newstrom:

- 1) **Individual differences:** Each person is unique. Though people have much in common there are individual differences and because of these differences, no single standard method of dealing with employees can be used.
- 2) **A whole person:** A person's traits and qualities are part of his entire personality. Any management technique to develop a better employee should also be concerned with developing a better person in terms of growth and fulfillment.
- 3) **Motivated behaviour:** Behavioral sciences have enabled us to understand the causes behind individual behaviour. People are motivated by their needs, and desires.
- 4) **Value of the person:** This states that people working in an organisation must be treated with respect and dignity and not just as machines.

Motivation is the drive behind all human action. As Locke has stated:

"The issue of how to understand and influence human motivation has proven to be one of the most recalcitrant problems in human psychology. The fundamental reasons for this are that motivation at root comes by the individual. Since motivation is "inside" the person, it cannot be observed directly, and since individuals possess freedom of choice ... people cannot be controlled directly from the outside."

Staff motivation is being considered as the most important condition for an effective and efficient library and information centre. Library and information centre managers should try to explore the various motivational issue. The satisfiers, or the motivators, are those aspects of job, which are concerned with the actual context of the job. The dissatisfiers or the hygiene factors, pertain to the context of the work. Manager should motivate employees by providing them an environment that makes them work towards the goals of e-organisation. Thus by motivating the employees manager can improve the employee performance and organisational effectiveness. Understanding motivation helps in analysing employee's behaviour.

Today, the emphasis is on the reduction in the hierarchical structure of organisations. As library and information centres are becoming more diversified and complex, they should try to maintain a relatively small hierarchical task differentiation. Consultation and discussions should be encouraged. Katzell and Thompson have stated that a manager should try to:

- i) Ensure that worker's motives and values are appropriate for the jobs assigned to them.
- ii) Make jobs attractive to and consistent with worker's motives and values;
- iii) Define work goals that are clear, challenging, attractive, and attainable;
- iv) Provide workers with the personal and material resources that facilitate their effectiveness,
- v) Create supportive social environments;

- vi) Reinforce performance;
- vii) Humanise all of these elements into a consistent socio-technical system.

All the research done in the field of organisational behaviour and the various theories proposed, provide a framework for managers that can be used in dealing with individuals in the organisation. The manager of a library and information center must know about the research relating to motivation, leadership, and communication and use this knowledge as and when required.

Organisational behaviour enables the managers of library and information center to apply the knowledge gained about individual groups and the effect of organisation structure on individual behaviour so as to improve the efficiency of organisations. Organisational behaviour helps them to gain knowledge about motivation leadership skills, communication process, attitude development, conflict handling etc.

In view of the constraints of finances, global competition, changing trade policies there is a need for organisations to use their resources, including human resources', effectively. A manager's knowledge and understanding of motivation and employee behavior can be helpful in achieving organisational goals effectively. The significance of the study of organisation behaviour in the field of library and information centre cannot be ignored.

9.9 : Summary

In this unit we studied about organisational behaviour and its importance in today's changing organisational set up. We studied how human behaviour is an important aspect of organisation. The major factors contributing to human behaviour are perception, learning and motivation. We discussed various content based motivation theories i.e., Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two factor theory, ERG theory, McClelland's three needs theory. We also discussed process-based theory like Cognitive evaluation theory, Goal setting theory, Equity theory and Vroom's Expectancy theory. Interaction of individuals in organisations often leads to conflict. Conflict could be intra-individual, interpersonal, inter-group or organisational. Johari Window, conceived by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham in 1995, speculated upon interpersonal relations and helps in analysis of interpersonal and group interactions. We also discussed the various negative and positive consequences of conflict. In order to resolve conflict in organisations a manager can use various approaches like avoidance, smoothing, compromise, forcing and collaborative approach. Organisational behaviour enables manager of library and information centre to apply his/her knowledge on individual behaviour in increasing the overall performance of the organisation.

Unit-10: Managerial Quality and Leadership

THE PEOPLE'S
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10.0 : Objectives

After reading this Unit, you will be able to:

- understand the importance of performance review, managerial quality and leadership;
- explain what is leadership;
- distinguish between a leader and a manager;
- describe leadership activities and functions;
- outline the qualities of effective leadership;
- elaborate the important leadership styles, theories or models with their merits and limitations;
- interpret the application of leadership theories in library and information areas;
- discuss the Indian scenario about leadership; and
- choose appropriate leadership styles for managing library or information centres.

10.1 : Introduction

This unit examines managerial quality and leadership. This theme is closely related to the managerial functions of motivating, directing and communicating. The performance, efficiency and effectiveness of any organisation including libraries and information centres depend significantly on the managerial quality of the organisation, The managerial quality in turn depends substantially on the quality of the leadership in the organisation.

10.2 : Performance Review and Managerial Quality

One of the important aspects of management of an information centre or library is to review the programme and measure its performance against the set goals. Such an assessment is necessary for knowing how the library or information centre is performing as well as to meet the accountability requirement to the stakeholders. It is not easy to review and evaluate service-oriented not-for-profit organisation like an information centre or a library. Normally, an information centre's performance is measured through its outputs and outcomes (i.e., the information centre's impact on its target markets and the environment). Outputs also become

outcomes when an attempt is made to measure the impact of the output on the environment. Outputs allow management to measure the effectiveness and efficiency of the information centre's systems, policies, procedures, leadership, resources, etc., in meeting the needs of the defined target market. Though both quantity and quality of outputs are important, it is quality and not quantity that distinguishes service of a library or information centre. The performance of a library or an information centre depends upon the effectiveness of its policies and practices, knowledge, resourcefulness, competence and morale of staff and above all the managerial quality. It is the appropriate leadership skills of the management (which includes technical, human relations and conceptual skills) depending on the levels of management and the effective leadership, which facilitates reconciliation of the goals of the organisation with management and employees.

It is desirable to assess a leader's performance to determine whether or not he or she is doing the job expected by his or her superiors and group, satisfactorily. The criteria for measuring the effectiveness of a leader depend on his/her primary functions and thrust areas. If goal attainment is the thrust, the time required to achieve the goal becomes a prime criterion and if practising human relations and engaging in certain behaviour is his/her main function, then a comparison of the desired behaviours with the actual ones should help in assessing the leader. One such example is the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire developed at Ohio State University which has nine dimensions related to leadership behaviour i.e., initiation, fraternisation, representation, integration, organisation, domination, communication, evaluation and production. It is not sufficient if leadership and managerial quality are assessed for a past period of time. Sometimes, it may be desirable to apply assessment to the future and predict potential leadership effectiveness. One such method is Leaderless Group Discussion (LGD) wherein a leaderless group is formed to discuss some problem and each member is evaluated on his/her leadership abilities by researchers. Then this leadership score is correlated with his/her leadership performance in real-life situation. If the correlation is significantly high, the LGD technique is used as a predictor of future leadership abilities.

10.3 : Definition of Leadership

It is difficult to qualitatively define leadership. It is easier to give examples of leaders than to define leadership. Leadership involves various dimensions and attributes. It requires vision, courage, understanding, determination, decisiveness, sense of timing, capacity to act, ability to inspire, etc. A leader is often judged by his/her mettle in a crisis. For example, Winston Churchill during the London Blitz, John F Kennedy during the Cuban missile crisis, Indira Gandhi in the 1971 Bangladesh war, Margaret Thatcher during the miner's strike, Mikhail Gorbachev's break with communism and the cold war. In these turning points, leadership made a crucial difference in the modern history. It is the same in case of leadership in organisations.

As an effective human being, a leader should have identity, authenticity, open

mindedness, independence, responsibility, communicating, reasoning and problem solving abilities, concern for others, rest for life energy, maturity, courage (guts), strong sense of obligation, clarity of mind and expression, integrity, etc. Leadership is a highly complex and elusive trait. The above description does not clearly define what leadership is. A leader is one who has followers; is too simple a definition. Leadership is often defined as the art of influencing others (people) to strive willingly; to do what the leader wants them to do (often to do the mutually compatible objectives) with zeal and confidence. It is encouraging and inspiring individuals and teams to give their best to achieve a desired result. Leaders work with and through people to accomplish goals. It is a psychological process of providing guidance for followers. Leadership is one of the most effective tools of management and organisational effectiveness depends on the quality of leadership. To lead is to guide, conduct, direct and precede. Earlier we have seen that the management is defined as the process of getting things done through the efforts of other people. Both the definitions overlap and since managers get all sorts of things done through the efforts of other people, they must lead. In other words, by definition all managers are leaders.

10.4 : Leader vs. Manager

'Leadership' focuses on human interactions and on 'influencing others' whereas 'management' is concerned with procedures, results and the 'process of getting things done'. 'Manager' often refers to a formal position in the organisation. Such roles are created only in organised structures. On the contrary, there could be leaders of completely unorganised groups. In addition, a 'leader' may not have a formal title and he/she depends on his/her personal qualities to influence followers. A person emerges as a leader but a manager is always appointed to his/her position. Naturally, a manager will always have some formal authority which he/she exercises through a rational-intellectual process to establish the internal environment in which work will be done and objectives achieved. A leader need not have formal authority, only informal power. There is always a mutuality of objectives between a leader and his/her followers but clash of objectives are likely between a manager and his/her subordinates. To influence subordinates a leader relies on his/her leadership power. Five basic sources of leadership power identified, are, coercive power, reward power, legitimate power, expert power and referent (charismatic) power. The first three are based on formal organisation role and the last two are individual oriented. One aspect that distinguishes an effective leader is how the leader uses the instrument of power.

A manager must accomplish some lowest level of acceptable performance in terms of quantity, quality and timeliness. Manager's tasks become easier, and they will achieve their goals more successfully if they have the charismatic quality of leadership. Leadership spurs people into spirited action; it transforms indifference into enthusiastic action. Managers will be able to inspire their subordinates by their leadership abilities. Leadership is only a part of

management but it is an important and essential ingredient. Management and leadership are not synonyms. All managers are expected to be good leaders but not all leaders are expected to be good managers. In other words, leadership is both a narrower and a broader concept than management. It is narrower in the sense that it is only a part of the manager's job, i. e., the area of human responsibilities. It is also a broader concept as individuals who are not managers also exercise leadership as informal leaders. Much of what we know about leadership applies to informal leaders as well as formal leaders.

Hitt interestingly distinguishes a leader from a manager in his statement, that "managers do things right while leaders do the right things". He supports the statement by stating that a good manager is the right choice to maintain a department at state A and a leader is required if it has to be successfully moved from state A to state B.

10.5 : Functions and Activities of Leadership

From the definition of leadership discussed earlier, it is obvious that leadership implies an existence of followers, unequal distribution of authority among leaders and group members and commonality of interest between the leader and his/her followers. Further, leaders have to influence and direct their followers or subordinates. Therefore, the main function of leadership is to induce or persuade all subordinates or followers to contribute to organised goals in accordance with their maximum capability. Two major ingredients for skilled art of leadership are the ability to invent and use appropriate motivators and the ability to inspire. This is very obvious if we look into the reasons for such few subordinates working with continuing zeal and confidence. Motivators are concerned with man's need for identity and stimulation and appear to be centered about the subordinate and his/her needs, whereas to inspire, depends on the rate ability of a leader and inspiration emanates from him/her. Inspiration depends on the charismatic qualities of a leader. Often, the inspirational ingredient in leadership is likely to lie dormant, only to become a potent art in times of crisis. Hence the fundamental principle of leadership is "since people tend to follow those in whose they see a means of satisfying their own personal goals, the more a manager understands what motivates his/her subordinates and how those motivations operate, and the more he/she reflects this understanding in carrying out his managerial actions, the more effective as a leader he is likely to be". Theories and knowledge about people and their motivations can be taught but plans of action based upon this knowledge are largely a matter of art. The inspirational ingredient as a dynamic process is even less amenable to teaching and the techniques vary with circumstances and with the people involved.

Let us now look into other functions and activities of leaders. To a large extent the functions and activities of leaders are contingent upon the situation in which leaders work and they are found to vary with a number of factors. All the managerial functions are applicable and a majority of them are carried out by formal leaders. Some of the common activities and functions are mentioned below:

- i) *Arbitrating and mediating*: Resolving the disagreement by arbitrating or making the

decision on the course of action to be taken.

- ii) *Suggesting*: Suggesting often permits the subordinates to retain dignity and a sense of participation
- iii) *Supplying objectives*: A leader defines and supplies objectives that will allow members to work together
- iv) *Catalysing*: Where some force is required to start or accelerate movement, a leader acts as a catalyst and prods subordinates into action.
- v) *Providing security*: A leader provides some sort of personal security to workers by maintaining a positive, optimistic attitude even in the face of adversaries.
- vi) *Representing*: A leader as a representative serves as a symbol of the organisation and speaks for the organisation, clarifies the organisations position and hence compels outsiders to think of the whole organisation in terms of their impression of the leader. In essence, he/she represents the organisation.
- vii) *Inspiring and Zeal building*: Appreciating the works of the subordinates, a leader inspires them to enthusiastically accept organisation goals and contribute more towards goals.
- viii) *Praising*: Having the interest of workers sincerely at heart a good leader pats them for their good work.
- ix) *Goal setting*: A leader contributes significantly in establishing goals and objectives of the organisation.
- x) *Executing*: As a manager, a leader not only contributes for planning but also takes responsibility for executing the plan,
- xi) *Expertise*: A leader is supposed to be an expert in the principal activities of the organisation.
- xii) *Bearing Group Responsibility*: A leader acts as a surrogate for individual responsibilities of his or her subordinates,
- xiii) *Purveying Rewards and Punishments*: Leaders not only are required to encourage, upgrade and promote deserving workers but also to disapprove, transfer and fire poor workers.
- xiv) *Exemplifying*: A leader serves as a model for others to emulate and functions as an ideologist.
- xv) *Father figure*: As a father figure, a leader serves to fulfill an emotional role for the members of the group.
- xvi) *Scape goat*: A leader provides; a ready target for the aggressions of the members of the group.

As mentioned earlier, in addition to above the common functions and activities, a leader also carries many of the managerial functions like planning, executing, policy making, coordinating and controlling. Further, a leader may have to cultivate several attitudes and qualities including empathy, objectivity, self-knowledge, identity, authenticity, open

mindedness, independence, responsibility, reason, concern for others, zest for life, energy, maturity, courage or guts (moral and physical), a strong sense of obligation, clarity of mind, integrity, vision, etc.

10.6 : Effective Leadership

Leadership is not by itself good or desirable. Leadership is a means and hence the crucial question is what end results are achieved through leadership. From history we know that there are many charismatic leaders like Hitler, Stalin and Mao who have been successful in their our missions but they have inflicted quite a lot of evil, misery and sufferings on humanity and hence could be called successful 'misleaders'. Apart from the importance of goals, it is equally important to note that not all successful leaders are effective leaders. The subtle difference between a successful leader and an effective leader lies in the "fact that a successful leader merely changes the behaviour of his/her followers (the change is short-lived) and not their attitudes but an effective leader brings about an enduring change in the behaviour and attitudes of his/her followers by largely using his/her personal power. (Attitude is the way one looks at things mentally; attitudes are caught, not taught and at times one's attitude speaks so loudly that others may not be able to hear what one says!)

Four sets of forces are believed to contribute to effective leadership. They are leader, subordinates, general situation and organisational system. Firstly, the nature of the leader himself/herself particularly his/her attitudes, values, knowledge, skill, experience, maturity, emotional flexibility, etc., acquired since birth, influences his/ her feelings, assumptions (about man), perceptions and behaviour. A leader's assumptions about subordinates like that of Theory X and Theory Y will have quite different implications on their style and effectiveness. Secondly, the subordinates with their knowledge and skill, their needs for independence, their acceptance of the management's objectives, their tolerance for ambiguity and their expectations that they should share in decision making also affect the style and effectiveness of their leader. The situational forces which have a bearing on the style of leadership include the style of the leader's supervisors, complexity and demands of the job and pressure of time (e. g., emergency or crises vs. normal). Lastly, the forces in the organisation system which determine the style and effectiveness of the leadership include division of work, organisation structure and the production technology being adopted by the organisation.

The general working conditions which are conducive to effective leadership from the angle of subordinates are grouped as leadership conditions that provide for security of subordinates and leadership conditions that provide for independence for subordinates. Conditions relating to security include an atmosphere of approval (i.e., the freedom to make a mistake and allowing for an honest mistake), knowledge of subordinates (that is letting subordinates know in clear terms about procedures, rules, regulations, duties, responsibilities overall policy of the organisation, performance evaluation procedure, personal peculiarities of his/her superior)

and finally the consistency of discipline indicating clearly both desirable and undesirable behaviour. The conditions about independence are concerned with opportunity for participation, responsibility and the right to appeal.

Interestingly, Peter F. Drucker feels that it is neither charisma nor personality traits nor qualities which guarantee effective leadership. He feels, what distinguishes effective leadership is, thinking through the organisation mission, defining it and establishing it, clearly and visibly. The leader sets the goals, priorities and sets and maintains the standards. Effective leaders are painfully aware that they are not in control of the universe and hence make compromises. It is only the 'misleaders' who refuse to make compromises. Another factor which distinguishes a leader from a misleader is his/her goals. In case of an effective leader, the compromises he/she makes with the constraints of reality are still compatible with his/her mission and goals and he/she holds fast to a few basic standards. An effective leader sees leadership as a responsibility, rather than as rank and privilege, and squarely takes the ultimate responsibility stating that 'the buck stops here'. He/she also sees the triumphs of his/her associates and subordinates as his/her triumphs rather than as threats. An effective leader knows that there is a risk and sees that he/she is not indispensable to the system, by creating a system with human energies and human vision. Finally, effective leadership is to earn trust. To trust a leader, does not necessarily mean liking him/her or agreeing with him/her. Trust is the conviction that the leader means what he/she says.

Two sets of factors which are important in evaluating the effectiveness of a leader are- i) the output factors (i.e., end results) which indicate how well the organisation is accomplishing its objectives; and ii) human factors which reflect the state of human resources in an organisation, indicate the extent to which people are working effectively together and are receiving satisfaction from their work and job. Output factors include productivity, quality, profitability, cost-effectiveness, etc., and human factors, include morale, amount and type of communication, level of motivation, commitment to objectives, level of interpersonal and inter-group conflict. An effective leader is one who has a positive impact on both output and human factors. Failure to achieve output factors lead to failure in accomplishing goals of the organisation. Similarly failure to achieve human factors will lead to communication breakdowns, disagreement, decreased motivation, absenteeism, turnover, and hence negative impact on output factors.

Yet another way of looking at essence (effectiveness) of leadership is to consider two key dimensions, namely, giving an organisation its vision and ability to translate vision into reality. Depending on low or high performance on these two dimensions four 'pure' types are identified: i) the Victim, who is low on both vision and implementation ii) the Dreamer, who is high on vision and low on implementation, iii) the Doer, who is high on implementation and low on vision and finally, iv) the Pragmatic Idealist called the leader-manager who is high on both vision and implementation. In other words the ideal is neither a mere dreamer nor a mere doer.

In a nutshell, effective leadership is associated with high employee performance, high

employee morale and with the development of human resources rather than their dissipation, results from a complex combination of traits behaviours and conditions. Effective leadership is a multidimensional matter, involving attention to a wide variety of factors.

10.7 : Leadership Styles, Theories, Approaches and Models

There has been considerable research on the leadership process (or in the context of library or information centre management) seeking to determine characteristics of a good leader, essence of leadership, effective leadership style, etc., which resulted in vast literature on the subject of leadership and multiplicity of theories and approaches to leadership. There has been a hunt for a useful leadership model. Many of them have used the terms 'styles', 'theories', 'approaches' and 'models' almost interchangeably in the literature. It is also true that none of the styles, theories and approaches are fully satisfactory.

At the broad level, we see the following theories or approaches to leadership study.

- i) Great man theory,
- ii) Trait theory
- iii) Behavioural approach
- iv) Situational theory
- v) Contingency approach
- vi) Life cycle theory
- vii) Path goal theory
- viii) Continuum of leadership and Likert's systems 1, 2, 3, & 4.

10.7.1: Great Man Theory

The Great Man Theory proposes study of biographies of such leaders as Churchill, Gandhi, Lincoln and others with the hope that we can gain an understanding of leadership process and qualities. Hitt says that "great man theory has been more entertaining than enlightening and we do get some insight into personalities of these individuals and how they functioned as leaders". But we do not get a futuristic and usable generalised model of effective leadership from the GreatMan Theory.

10.7.2: Trait Theory

The Great Man Theory assumed that leadership is a rare born gift and yet each great man is a unique leader. Trait theory, as an extension of the historical approach of great man theory, still partly believed that leaders are born. The purpose of this approach is to identify the common traits of effective leaders.

Traits refer to individual personality characteristics that are major determinants of a person's behaviour and success in life. Here, the leader is presented as one superior to the rest and to be followed by virtue of his/her personal qualities and abilities. Extensive research into the psychology of leadership lead to the result that there are a group of traits and characteristics possessed by effective leaders. By induction or correlation, it is concluded that individuals who possess these traits and characteristics have leadership potential. Despite the belief that traits are carried in the genes and leaders are born, later research has modified this belief and concluded that traits can be acquired, not only by inheritance but also by learning and experience. Even though some successful leaders indicated the presence of nearly similar personality and character traits, others also possessed these traits in varying degrees.

Numerous physical, mental and psychological characteristics have been identified as leadership traits in these studies. Some of the important traits found to be associated with effective leaders include mental and physical energy, intelligence, supervisory ability, need for occupational achievement, decisiveness, self assurance, initiative/ inner drive self-motivation, intuition, dominance, aggressiveness, judgment, communicative ability; emotional balance, technical competence, teaching ability, knowledge of human relations; empathy, objectivity, moral courage, social skills and maturity, some physical characteristics, etc. The list is endless and the search for new traits is on.

Unfortunately results of research on traits of leadership are not consistent. No trait of leaders has been found to relate consistently to group achievements and hence group achievements do not depend solely on these traits. This approach has failed to establish any trait as absolutely essential for effective leadership. Hardly 5% of the traits identified are common to effective or successful leaders. There have been problems in defining, measuring and predicting traits. Most of the traits are overlapping in definition (i.e., not mutually exclusive). Even the methodology of research on traits is difficult and questionable. Cause and effect relationship between traits and leadership cannot be established. This approach ignores the contingency or situational nature of leadership qualities. Further, trait studies describe, but do not analyse behaviour patterns. It is difficult to distinguish traits which are required for acquiring leadership from those needed for maintaining it. Trait theory is based on a debatable assumption that personality is a mere summation of a collection of traits. On the other hand personality is a function of the total organisation of the individual.

The phenomenon of charismatic leadership appears in part to confirm the trait theory of leadership. Since charisma is a mystical and inspirational quality that some persons possess in their social relations, charisma does not seem appropriate for conceptualising the leadership process in the accomplishment or work or in the development of groups and in individual growth. By and large, the trait approach to leadership has left many questions concerning what is required for effective leadership unanswered. The large list of traits of leadership looks like a set of abstractions. If we select one of the great leaders and evaluate him/her on this list of traits, he/she is found not rated well in several of them. Hence, the validity of the list of traits of leadership is questionable.

10.7.3 :Behavioural Approach

Realising the inadequacies of the Great Man Theory and Traits Theory in explaining the qualities of effective leaders, then, came further investigations leading to identification of various leadership styles and their correlation with measures of effectiveness. While Great Man Theory and Traits Theory predominantly focused on the intrinsic personal characteristics of leaders, the behavioural approach is based on the leader's beliefs, values and interpersonal relations. In other words, a leader's attitude, behaviour, opinion and concern about his/her followers, organisation, others, etc. are considered very important in this approach.

Beliefs are ideas that people have about the world around them and how it operates. People tend to behave according to their beliefs. Values are assessments of the goodness or badness of various features of one's life. Values form attitudes that guide a person's conduct. Beliefs and values have close interaction. Beliefs become values when they lead to certain favourable or unfavourable consequences.

According to this theory, researchers studied leadership behaviour from the point of view of motivation, supervision and authority. A leader's typical way of behaving towards group members is classified as a 'leadership style'. In other words, the typical or consistent behaviour that a leader tends to use while interacting with subordinates is termed as 'leadership style'. There have been a number of significant developments like Mc Gregor's theory X and theory Y, Likert's systems 1,2,3 and 4, Blake's Managerial Grids, etc. which enabled us to identify different leadership styles.

Laissez-faire

Laissez-faire means "allow to act". This style is also called Free Rein or theory L leadership. This style is essentially one of non-interference or non-involvement in the work of the unit and based on the philosophy of "leave them alone or free and there is not much that I can actually do to influence the overall operation". In this style of leadership, planning and organising are done by top management, staff assigned to the leader is accepted, and least control or no control prevails. There is very little or no influence over the group members, very little task direction, no appraisal or regulation of the performance of the subordinates, no coordination and no concerted group action. In such a situation the group acts autonomously, setting random goals, making individual decisions, without much contact with the leader and the leader makes very little contribution to the group effort. The disadvantages of this style of leadership are frequent turmoil, confusion, lack of group cohesion and unity and lack of achievement. The advantages of the style is the ample opportunity for individual development, freedom for expression and independent functioning offered to group members. It is difficult to defend this leadership style unless the leader is an expert supervisor and subordinates are highly motivated specialist like scientists.

Autocratic Leadership

An autocratic leader is a person who typically believes in theory Y and tells subordinates what does he/she expects them to obey and be informed without question. Autocratic leadership is usually synonymous with authoritarian, leader centred and directive due to its

high degree of direction from the leader and minimum or no participation in planning and control on the part of subordinates. This kind of leadership will have concentration of power, authority and decision making and does not tolerate deviations from the decisions. In autocratic leadership, decisions are enforced by the use of rewards and the fear of punishment. Here the organizational patriotism is the chief motivating force. Communication tends to be primarily in one direction, from the leader to subordinates. As a theory Y leader, an autocrat focuses primarily on productivity, adopts carrot and stick approach for motivation and considers controlling as his major job.

Autocratic leadership could be exploitative wherein subordinates work under fear or threats of punishment with least trust and confidence with leader, or benevolent, wherein leader takes paternalistic attitude towards subordinates and the subordinates work cautiously under the leader with constant gratitude.

The main advantage of autocratic leadership is quick decisions due to intensive use of power, efficiency and quick results, particularly in a crisis or an emergency situation. Ideology of authoritarian leadership is that the ends justify the means. Chain of command and division of work are clear. Benevolent autocratic leadership goes well with employees who have a low tolerance for ambiguity, feel insecure with freedom and thrive under clear, detailed and achievable directions.

The disadvantages of autocratic leadership are sharp differences between those who have power (i.e., leader) and those who do not (i.e., subordinates), massive resistance, low morale, low productivity, misunderstanding, communication breakdowns, costly errors, lack of participation and input from subordinates, etc. The authoritarian style may even degenerate into simply rule through brutality. Authoritarian leadership tends to be as effective as the leader is competent.

Dictatorial leadership (a variation of authoritarian and autocratic leadership) tries to get results through fear. It is also called negative leadership where leader intimidates his/her followers. Generally, dictatorial leadership does not get maximum results. Subordinates comply grudgingly with dissatisfaction and ill will.

Democratic Leadership

A democratic leader is one who tries to do what the majority of subordinates desire. As opposed to autocratic leadership, democratic leadership is based on decentralisation or authority and decision-making. Democratic leadership is also referred to as employee centered, equalitarian, consultative, participative, or person/ people-oriented leadership. In the strict sense, a participative leader is one who involves subordinates in decision making but may retain the final authority. There is a substantial difference between democratic leadership and participative leadership. Unlike democratic system, participatory mode may not require constituencies, representatives and a voting procedure for reaching decisions. Participatory system emphasises on power equalisation so that subordinates too have a say in the making of decisions and is characterised by free and frank discussions, sharing of ideas and information, right to participate and speak and reaching consensus decisions. The important link between a democratic system and a participating system is that a democratic system does require participatory mode otherwise it would quickly degenerate into an

authoritarian system. Democratic or participative leadership is also called theory Y leadership as these leaders assume theory Y. In other words, they believe that people are the most important resource and a leader's role is to facilitate subordinates and help them to achieve their goals. It is basically a human relations approach. As a result they extend a good deal of encouragement right from planning and provide organisational structure which accommodates people. As truly people oriented leaders, they assign work to people which they like most and they involve the entire group in decision making and show greater concern for people than higher production. A democratic leader encourages and reinforces constructive interrelationships among members and reduces intra-group conflicts and tensions. A democratic leader serves more as a coordinator or agent for the group.

The word 'democratic' implies a high degree of group participation in decision-making and a high degree of support from the leader. The degree of democracy can be judged by the number and significance of the decisions made by subordinates. Democratic leadership has the advantages of encouraging the group to act as a social unit, promoting the full use of the talents and abilities of the group, consistent availability of best information, ideas, suggestions and talents from the members of group, giving a feeling of belongingness, recognition, individual dignity, etc., to the subordinates (which in turn spurs them to higher levels of achievement) better decisions through shared information and ideas, increased morale and support for the final decision, encouragement for subordinates to develop, grow and rise in the organisation, etc. Further a group can make a better decision than an individual due to availability of more information, brains and skills than a single individual. People work hard to implement something they have collectively designed or decided. As the control and coordination of the task also rest with the group and the feeling of belonging to a group, as well as helping to decide the fate, work as major sources of motivation to members. Participative mode is specially relevant and useful where decisions are complex and has multiple angles to them and also where collective motivation and commitment are important for implementing decisions. It works when taking significant policy decisions and innovations in apathetic systems. It also works well in organisations of equals like cooperative societies, professional associations, etc.

On the other hand, democratic leadership requires a higher quality of leadership. The major disadvantages of democratic leadership include slower decisions, diluted accountability, avoiding responsibility, delays in implementation, loss of leader's control and possible compromises to please everyone (and hence the solution may not be the best). People may even engage in irresponsible behaviour, muddling, back biting, raising trivial issues to stall implementation, etc. Such slow democratic and participative mode processes are not favoured in situations that require real time, instant reactions such as crises and emergencies and also tough decisions. The participative mode is not appropriate when the competence differential between the leader and the led is very large.

The Employee Centred/ Job Centred Approach

This approach, also referred to as concern for people/concern for production approach, is based on the two basic dimensions of management identified by Abraham

Maslow, and subsequently extensively studied by Likert at University of Michigan Survey Research Centre. Employee centred leaders tend to develop personal interest in subordinates, behave in demanding and positive manner towards subordinates and become personally involved in their worker's tasks.

Likert's (1961) study revealed that employee oriented style brought high producing performance compared to production or job oriented style. However, the satisfaction of employees was not directly related to productivity. Other researchers have also reinforced this finding that employee centered style was found in most production units.

By representing concern for people and concern for production in a graph with high and low on either dimensions we could find four distinct types of leaders- (i) Laissez-faire (low concern on both dimensions), ii) Autocratic (low concern for people and high concern for production), iii) Benevolent (high concern for people and low concern for production), iv) Team leader (high concern for people and low concern for production).

Consideration/Initiating Structure Approach

Extensive and in depth research beginning from 1945 at Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University by psychologists on the behaviour of leaders (across a variety of organisations) on directing the efforts of others toward group goals, revealed that two basic dimensions of leader behaviours overlapped to a great extent. They are 'Consideration' (similar to employee-centred) and 'initiating structure' (similar to job centred). Consideration refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, approachable, listening to subordinates, showing concern to their needs, obtaining approval of subordinates, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and his/her subordinates. Consideration means playing a supportive role for his or her subordinates. Initiating structure refers to the leader's behaviour delineating the relationship between himself or herself and members of the work group and in trying to establish well defined goals, roles, patterns of organisation, channels of communication, methods and procedures. The dimension of initiating structure essentially means task or production orientation.

Researchers have found that the group's productivity was not affected in a usual way by leadership style. It appeared that those two dimensions varied according to situation and depended on expectations of subordinates, technology, time pressure, degree of interpersonal contacts between leader and subordinates, influence of the leader outside the group, style of leader's superiors, etc. Thus Ohio State Model did not suggest one most effective combination that meets the needs of all situations.

It is important to note that these two dimensions of leadership are orthogonal, i.e., independent of each other but not opposite. These two dimensions can also be presented on a graph with consideration increasing from low to high on the vertical axis and initiating structure increasing from low to high on horizontal axis. Ohio State Group has found that leaders in organisations are distributed throughout the diagram.

One important result of this study was that the immediate supervisor would give primary weight to initiating structure, whereas the employees would focus primarily on consideration.

Managerial Grid Theory

Managerial Grid Theory is one of the most widely known leadership theories. This theory, developed by Robert Blake and Jana Mouton, is a logical extension of Michigan and Ohio State studies. Managerial grid is a two dimensional matrix that shows concern for people on the vertical axis and concern for production on the horizontal axis. The theory asserts that any leadership style is a combination of the two dimensions. The two dimensions on the 9 x 9

grid are labelled 'concern for people' and 'concern for production'. Leaders increase their concern for people and/or production, their score on the grid goes up from 1 to 9 on each dimension. A lot of attention has been paid to the following five major combinations of leadership styles represented at four concerns and centre of the 9 x 9 grid.

- i) 1, 1 *Impoverished Management*: The manager (leader) has little concern for either people or production.
- ii) 9, 1 *Authority-Obedience*: The manager stresses operating efficiently through controls on situations where human elements can't interfere.
- iii) 1, 9 *Country Club Management*: The manager is thoughtful, comfortable and friendly, and has little concern for output.
- iv) 5, 5 *Organisation Man Management*: The manager attempts to balance and trade off concern from work in exchange for a satisfactory level of morale a compromiser.
- v) 9, 9 *Team Management*: The manager seeks high output through committed people, achieved through mutual trust, respect, and a realization of interdependence. Naturally
- vi) 9, 9 position of maximum concern for both output and people is the most effective style.

There appears to be an inherent conflict between the two dimensions, but the task of a leader is to bring a marriage between the goals of the organisation and the goals of the employees. The best strategy to do so is team approach to achieve organisational objective.

10.7.4: Situational Theory of Leadership

The situational leadership theory, developed by Paul Harsey and Kenneth Blanchard, is based, on the notion that the most effective leadership style varies according to the level of maturity of the followers and demands of the situation. In other words, leadership is specific and it is relative to the situation (including the leader, the followers and a host of other factors) in which it occurs. If the leadership is a function of the total situation, then either the leader must be flexible and adaptive to the changed situation (i.e., change of leadership style) or leadership will change (from one individual to another) with changes in the group environment. Thus no one individual will remain as a permanent leader for all the time.

Like Ohio State and Managerial Grid models, situational model uses two dimensions of leadership behaviour, namely, task and relationship. An effective leader is one who can diagnose the demands of the situation and the level of maturity of the followers and use a leadership style that is appropriate. The relation between the following three factors become the basis of this theory: i) the amount of task behaviour the leader exhibits, ii) the amount of relationship behaviour the leader provides, and iii) the level of task relevant maturity that followers exhibit toward the specific goal or task to be performed. The task behaviour is the extent to which leaders are likely to organise and define the roles of their group. The relationship behaviour is the extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group. The maturity is the capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness to take responsibility and/or experience. The maturity level of the followers is the task specific and is based on their (a) desire for achievement (b) willingness and ability to accept responsibility and (c) education and/or experience and skills relevant to the particular task.

Hersey and Blanchard have also developed an instrument called Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) for measuring the leadership style and effectiveness (Mondy, et. al., 1988, p 408-410). As such this theory provides a useful and understandable framework for situational leadership. But having failed to take into account that leadership is a complex process in which the traits of individuals may well play apart, the contingency and situational theories represent a limited and incomplete explanation. Further, pure situational approach appears vacuous and it is impossible to develop an educational programme for effective leadership covering all possible situations. It does not provide a central core to capture the essence of leadership.

10.7.5: Contingency Theory of Leadership

Because of their closely related philosophy the situational theory and contingency theory are often mentioned together. The contingency and path goal approaches are an extension of behaviour approaches in the sense they also stress on motivational aspects of the leader and followers. However, they equally stress on the interactional aspects of leadership particularly the interaction of individual and organisational factors. Further, situational and contingency theories overlap to a great extent. The contingency model of leadership suggests that individual and organisational factors must be correctly matched for effective leadership and the group effectiveness is contingent upon the match between leadership style and the extent to which the group situation is favourable to the leader's effectiveness depends on the interaction of the leader's behaviour with certain organisational factors. To understand this theory we should examine the individual leader, the organisational factors (or leadership situation) and the interaction of these factors.

The individual leader factor is considered by examining the leader's need hierarchy consisting of two important leadership needs, namely, interpersonal relationship needs and task achievement needs. Fiedler suggests that these needs can and do vary from leader to leader. Normally, the individual seek satisfaction of higher-order needs when environment is pleasant and seek satisfaction of lower-order needs when environment is harsh and threatening. A questionnaire called "esteem for least preferred convener" (LPC) is used to determine which needs are more important to a leader.

The three organisational factors which determine whether the leadership situation is harsh (unfavourable) or pleasant (favourable) are: i) leader/member relations (i.e., group respect and support to leader), ii) task structure, iii) position power (i.e., leader's ability to reward, punish or promote). For example, in a favourable situation, often a group will have high respect for the leader, when the task is simple or routine and the organisation gives strong power to the leader.

As far as interaction factors are concerned, Fiedler has found that low LPC (task oriented) leaders are more effective on very favourable or very unfavourable situation, while the high-LPC (person oriented) leaders are more effective in moderately favourable or intermediate favourableness situations. So the managerial strategy should be assigning leaders to the leadership situations that match their needs or redesign the leadership situation to match the leaders need.

Within the situational approaches to leadership the contingency theory has acquired a significant place. This is a more promising model but further research into areas like why high LPC leaders are more effective in intermediate favourableness situations is required. It

is very obvious that leaders can vary their leadership styles depending upon the situation and leadership styles need to be adjusted to the particular technological and task demands of the organisation

10.7.6: Life Cycle Theory of Leadership

Life cycle theory is yet another contingency view of leadership process. Like Fiedler's model, this approach recognises that different leadership styles are appropriate to different situations. But unlike Fiedler, the life cycle theory puts considerable emphasis on the leader's style flexibility and ability to accurately diagnose a situation and select a proper leadership style.

Life cycle theory suggests that these are two factors that make a leader's style. They are task orientation and relationship orientation. These two aspects are not seen as opposite ends of a continuation but exist on the following four combinations:

- i) High task-low relationship: which requires close supervision and puts little emphasis on warm, supportive relationships.
- ii) High task-high relationship: which retains close supervising style and a frequent reinforcement by the leader for work that is done well.
- iii) Low task-high relationship: which requires close interpersonal relations with considerable delegation of authority over the task.
- iv) Low task-low relationship: which involves both task delegation and infrequent, interaction.

Leadership style is expected to shift among four quadrants of the graph depending on group or individual maturity, relative to the tasks to be performed. The specific style to be used will be a function of the degree of structure and interpersonal support needed. A leader should attempt to develop those being led into higher stages of maturity. The conclusion of the model is that a person or group quite low in maturity would be most effectively supervised with a high task-low relationship style while those with a great deal of maturity would respond best to a low task-low relationship style.

10.7.7: Path Goal Theory of Leadership

Unlike the contingency theory of leadership which focused on a leader's motivation and needs, the path-goal theory developed by Robert House and M.G. Evan looks at the motivation and needs of subordinates. This theory is closely related to Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation and examines the way that the leaders behaviour affects subordinates motivation to perform well, that is, a leader's behaviour is more important than characteristics.

The essence of the path-goal theory of leadership is that managers can facilitate job performance by showing employees how their performances directly affect their receiving desired rewards. In other words, manager's behaviour causes or contributes to employee satisfaction and acceptance of the manager if it increases goal attainment by employees. Like expectancy theory, individuals are motivated if they believe that working hard (the path) will lead to certain outcomes (the goal) and if they value those outcomes, path-goal theory links behaviour with characteristics of task, environment and subordinates including their expectations, valence, effort and satisfaction (the desirability of each outcome is called its

valence). Subordinate satisfaction or dissatisfaction is aligned/ related to the intrinsic benefits and costs experienced by employees on performing tasks.

According to path-goal theory a leader has to: i) identify and determine rewards associated with a given task goal attainment, ii) use the reward which has highest valence (value), interact with subordinates to increase their expectation of receiving the rewards for achievement, iii) provide necessary support to employee after matching his/her skill with the requirement of task, and iv) increase personal satisfaction associated with doing a job and accomplishing job goals of the employee by assigning meaningful tasks, delegating additional authority, setting meaningful goals allowing subordinates to help set goals, reducing frustrating barriers and being considerate of the subordinate's needs.

Four distinct leadership behaviour are described to be associated with the path-goal theory. They are directive, supportive, participative and achievement orientedness. Directive leadership is more appropriate when task demands are ambiguous and clarification does not come from elsewhere. Similarly, supportive leadership is successful where tasks are stressful, tedious, boring, dangerous, frustrating or highly repetitive. The achievement oriented leadership which gives more confidence in subordinates is useful when subordinates undertake ambiguous and repetitive tasks. Lastly, participative leadership is appropriate for unstructured tasks and such leadership results in increased effort from subordinates.

Path-goal theory appears similar to Rensis Likert's four systems theory. Unlike Likert's theory where only system 4 was found appropriate, in case of path-goal theory a manager can use all four of the behaviour in different situations. In this theory, both personal characteristics of the subordinates and environmental influences, determine the appropriate leader behaviour in a given situation. The personal characteristics include an individual's belief about meaningful control over the environment and subordinate estimate of personal ability to perform the task.

10.7.8: Continuum of Leadership and Likert's Systems 1, 2,

Several leadership styles, have been identified so far and it is important to note that they are not discrete styles but they form continuum of leadership styles ranging from very (exploitatively) authoritarian at one end to a very democratic (free rein) at the other end, as suggested by Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt. The position on the spectrum of leadership depended on the degree of authority used by the leader and the amount of freedom given to the subordinates in making decisions. In other words the extreme left of the spectrum emphasises the interest, view points and feelings of the leader and the extreme right emphasises that of the subordinates. Some of the points on the spectrum can be described as follows (in the order from left to right): i) The leader makes the decision and announces it, ii) The leader tells his/her decision like a diplomat and persuades his/her subordinates to accept it, iii) The leader presents his/her ideas and invites questions, iv) The leader presents his/her tentative decisions, subject to change and permits subordinates to exert some influence on the decision, v) The leader presents the problem, get suggestions from subordinates, develops a list of alternative solutions and then makes his/her decision, vi) The (participative) leader defines the problem and limits of action and lets the group make a decision, vii) The leader permits the group to make a decision within limits defined by the situation.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt emphasised that one style on the continuum is not necessarily better or superior to the other. While choosing a leadership style one has to consider a number of factors or forces as discussed earlier. The successful leader is one who is keenly

aware of those forces which are most relevant to his/her behaviour at a given time and accurately understands himself/herself, subordinates and the group in dealing with, as well as the organisation and its environment. The successful leader is one who is able to behave appropriately on the light of these perceptions.

Rensis Likert envisaged the following four leadership styles on the continuum:

- i) **System 1 - Exploitative Autocratic** : which is characterised by 'you do it my way or you are fired' i.e., lack of confidence and trust, extensive use of fear, threats and punishment plus occasional rewards, emphasis on downward communications, little interaction, most decisions made at the top and little or no subordinate participation.
- ii) **System 2 - Benevolent Autocratic** : which is characterised by 'I will take care of you if you perform well' i.e., leader takes paternalistic attitude in an atmosphere of fairly low level of trust which causes employee to use caution in dealing with the management.
- iii) **System 3 Consultative** : In this situation, employees have a considerable degree of freedom on making their own decisions. This is characterised by the use of rewards rather than punishment to motivate employees, feel relatively free to discuss any issue.
- iv) **System 4 : Participative Team or Group**: characterised by full involvement of employees in setting goals and making decisions, a high degree of trust and confidence, a lot of interaction between leader and subordinates, economic rewards based on high participation and involvement, extensive upward, downward and lateral communications. System 4 is Likert's Principle of Supportive Relations. In this model he has envisaged that the work will be done by a series of overlapping groups and the leader provides a link between the group and the other units at higher level in the organisation. This concept is often referred to as the **Linking Pin Theory** and Likert extensively supported/ recommended this style.

10.7.9: Other Leadership Theories/Approaches

Having studied some important models, approaches or theories of leadership it should be noted that there are many other theories of leadership which are similar to one or more of the approaches discussed above. Time and again, the multiplicity of leadership theories has been confirmed in the literature. It is equally important to note that many of them are either just another name to already mentioned theory or a slight variation from a known theory. For example, the situational and contingency theories are also called *environmental theories of leadership*. Similarly *group and exchange theories* suggest that, as a result of group interaction, leadership is conferred upon the person whose efforts best represent the group's interests and are most likely to bring rewards to the group. *Humanistic theories* suggest that leadership will be given to those who grant maximum freedom to enable group members to achieve a high level of self-actualisation. *Expectational theories* believe that a leader should be able to maintain the goal direction and role structure of the group. *Social learning theory* states that there is a continuous reciprocal interaction between person, environment and behaviour of the leader and the subordinates with negotiable and interactive relationship which jointly attempts to discover ways in which they can manage their individual behaviour to produce mutually satisfying as well as organisationally productive outcomes.

10.8 : Leadership in Library and Information Centre Manag

Based on the confidence of long practice, libraries were managed for a long time with autocratic or paternalistic style. There was a general acceptance that power and authority rested naturally at the top of the library hierarchy. It is very much doubtful whether the same autocratic or paternalistic leadership style would be viable today. There has been steady and observed movement away from the autocratic, paternalistic and hierarchical style of leadership into an era of participation, consultation and delegation. The process of decision-making is more widely spread through the organisation than before.

The external influences such as increased power of unions, economic pressures, labour and industrial relations legislation have substantially influenced managerial style. Even the general political climate is more hospitable to participation and consultation styles of management based on newer developments in theories of human behaviour and vehemently opposed to autocracy and authority. As a result "Hard orders are frequently displaced by acts of persuasion and suggestion; authority by influence, and autocratic control by a participation matching of interests, skills and ideas.

Good results and `high performance were occasionally achieved by strictly adhering to orders and following directions from the top, but often such styles led to resentment from those who wished to make a larger contribution to decision-making. While firmly directed, non-consultative methods are required from special occasions like crises, generally the planning and direction of library teams requires recognition of the value of member participation. "The situation in the modern library is such that expertise, creativity, intelligent and constructive thought and qualities of leadership can be found at all levels".

10.9 : Indian Scenario

Traditionally Indian business management was termed as `management by inheritance', or `management by chromosomes' with highly centralised and family oriented organisation structure and authoritarian approach towards employees. Researchers have found that: i) many top Indian managements are relatively authoritarian in their relationships with lower managements and with labour, ii) most of the superiors believed that subordinates can only work with a supervisor and have no sense of responsibility, iii) need for high degree of control, and iv) posed little faith in the capacity of workers for taking initiative and responsibility.

The overall experience of participative management practices like joint management councils, works committees, etc., in India has been unsatisfactory. Researchers have also found that an average Indian worker feels more comfortable in nurturing than in participating relationship, too much under the sway of the `master and servant' relationship, shows the sign of dependence, need for approval and seeks protection for his/her self concept from

people in authority. The causes for such attitude and behaviour on the part of workers are traced to the typical characteristics of Indian middle class management, namely, lack of commitment, preference for personalised relationship, dependence proneness, lack of team orientation, a strong hankering for 'aaram' and a preference for showing off even at "the cost of essentials. The reasons for failure of participative management also include politicalisation of labour unions, fear of union about workers being brainwashed by management, disadvantageous position of workers due to lack of expertise in management, suppression of information by managements, hostility of middle management and supervisors to workers. Hostility of middle management and supervisors to workers' participation, etc. One important issue to be noted here is that the leadership styles are represented in a continuum and there is a tendency of Indian management style moving away from autocratic style and toward participative management like what is seen elsewhere but at a slower pace than others.

Management of libraries and information centres in India is not only a very small subset of overall management in India in terms of leadership styles and managerial quality, but also a logical extension of management of early libraries. The significant difference in managerial quality and leadership styles of libraries and information centres from that of the rest of the stream could be traced to certain basic differences in the nature of libraries and information centres themselves. Firstly, they are not-for-profit service organisations. Secondly, information centres are of very recent origin. Thirdly, a very large proportion of libraries and information centres are supported from public fund. For these reasons, the styles of management of information centres are more likely to be democratic and participative than gigantic Indian business houses. Unfortunately, there is no worthwhile research in library and information science on these aspects to pinpointedly understand the situation.

10.10 : Summary

Extensive research in leadership and managerial qualities has confirmed that leadership is an important ingredient for managerial quality and success. Leadership is not only related to managerial behaviour in complex organisations but also deals with relationship among persons. Main variables of such leadership relationship are: i) Personal characteristics, attitudes and behaviour (both task and relationship behaviour) of leader, ii) Maturity, attitudes, needs and personal characteristics of subordinates, iii) Characteristics of the organisation such as its basic purpose, habits, culture, customs, traditions, structure, nature of tasks performed, time available, nature of leader's boss, etc., iv) The social, economic and political milieu.

From the above discussions, it is clear that despite numerous empirical studies conducted to ascertain relative effectiveness of different leadership styles no one theory of leadership has been proven conclusively as most effective and correct. Each one is instructive but does not provide a fully dependable model. We need a generalised model of leadership with

leadership defined in terms of results achieved, how results were achieved and in what time frame. Since no single style of leadership is appropriate in all situations the contingency theory appears to be the most promising. The practical difficulty is in determining what sets of circumstances call for which approaches or leadership styles. This problem is more complicated by issues like a lack of clear understanding about relationship of the leader with peers and superiors, ability of the leader to adjust to the situation, non-availability of accurate feedback concerning the effect of leader behaviour, etc., in the current leadership theories. Leadership theories concentrate almost exclusively upon the leader-follower relationship and give little attention to lateral and upward-directed interactions. A typical manager may spend half or less than half of his/her time with his/her subordinates and hence more research into the effects, of his/her interactions with his/her subordinates and his/her interactions (which consume equal time) with peers and superiors, on effective leadership is required. Actual interactions of a leader with his/her followers are quite brief and to change his/her style from one interaction to another is difficult, if not impossible. A leader probably has neither the time nor the energy to make a careful analysis of each set of conditions. Adequate and accurate feedback concerning the effects of leader behaviour may not always be forthcoming, except the obvious cases of failure, and hence a leader may not have enough data to determine accurately whether or not his or her leadership style is working well. Further, there are a host of other environmental factors like poor equipment, inadequate training of subordinates or uncooperative persons in other parts of the organisation, etc.

From the results of the research done so far it is clear that: i) leaders are both born and made, ii) there are some situations where even Theory X and autocratic leadership are effective, iii) development of leadership ability is a long-term task and iv) it is not easy to change one's leadership style. Further, in government agencies with bureaucracy, it is Free Rein and Theory L. appears to be predominant. In public schools, hospitals, research laboratories, libraries and other service institutions appear to be having such situations often described as 'missing management' (non-management) because of various characteristics of bureaucratic and service institutions discussed earlier.

Performance of a library or an information centre depends substantially on the managerial quality and the leadership. Leadership is the art of influencing others to strive willingly to do what the leader wants them to do, with zeal and confidence. By definition, all managers are leaders. Management and leadership are not synonyms. A manager is, a formally appointed person with authority in a structured system. He/ she is expected to be a good leader. A leader emerges even in an informal situation with or without organisation structure. The main function of a leader is to induce or persuade or inspire all subordinates to contribute to organised goals in accordance with their maximum capability by using appropriate motivators.

Four sets of forces which contribute to effective leadership are leader, subordinates, general situation and organisational system. The conducive conditions for effective leadership from the angle of subordinates are: (1) leadership conditions that provide for security of

subordinates and (ii) leadership conditions that provide for independence for subordinates. It is the goals and trust that distinguishes effective leaders from successful misleader. A successful leader could just bring temporary changes in the behaviour of his/her subordinates. An effective leader relies on his/her personal power and brings enduring changes in both behaviour and attitudes of his/her followers. Effective leaders have a positive impact on both output and human factors. They give vision to organisation and ability to translate the vision into reality.

Many styles, theories, approaches and models of leadership have been identified by researchers in their efforts to find out the ideal model. The great man theory suggests a historical study of well acknowledged leaders to find out what makes effective leader. On the other hand, trait theory of leadership sought to know the common traits of effective leaders with the intention to correlate the results to predict effective leaders. Both approaches have left many doubts unanswered as they suffer from several limitations. Extensive research carried out by behavioural scientists about a leader's beliefs, values, attitudes, behaviour, opinion, concerns and interpersonal relations lead to identification of several leadership styles like Laissez-faire, autocratic, democratic and participative. The most promising theories of leadership are situational theory, contingency approach, life cycle theory, path-goal theory and Likert's systems 1, 2, 3 and 4. These theories have taken into account maturity of aspects of leadership, environmental aspects, leader's style flexibility and ability to diagnose a situation, motivation and needs of subordinates and how leader's behaviour affects them and presented leadership styles as a continuum.

As far as leadership in library and information centre management is concerned, there has been steady change from autocratic, consultation and delegation. However, the tendency in India is much slower than elsewhere. Librarianship in general and Indian librarianship in particular totally lack significant research in this area.

No single style of leadership is best in all situations. The contingency approach appears to be more promising in the study of leadership. Some of the practical difficulties which need serious attention are what sets of circumstances call for which approaches, a clear understanding of a relationship of a leader with peers and superiors, leader's ability to adjust to situation, availability of accurate feedback and a host of environmental factors which affect leadership style.

Unit-11: Human Resource Planning and Development

11.0 : Objectives

After reading this Unit, you will be able to:

- comprehend the value of human resources in management;
- define and explain the components of human resources management;
- describe the macro and micro approaches to human resources management;
- comprehend the need and purpose of Human Resource Planning (HRP);
- describe the different aspects and techniques of HRP;
- attempt planning for HR for Libraries and Information centres;
- delineate the facets of human resources development; and
- perceive HRD in perspective in the Indian context of library and information centre management.

11.1 : Introduction

Of all the resources available to any developmental process, human resources are the most vital and valuable ones that enable utilisation of all the other resources effectively. It is a comparatively recent perception of management specialists to view human resources management as requiring greater attention than looking at it merely as control and deployment functions of personnel. In recent decades, the facets of Human Resource Management are studied at depth, and new and innovative methods and techniques to utilise optimally human capital in all organisations are being developed to ensure success, in any productive activity.

This unit attempts to study the vital and valuable role of human beings in organisations with a brief historical perspective to grasp the essentials of its importance.

We shall discuss, in depth, the necessity and reasons for human resource planning (HRP) which is an essential pre-requisite for management of human resources in an organisation. Defining human resource planning and its scope, draws attention to the different elements that together constitute the several activities of HRP. These management elements are explained along with the techniques and tools required to implement the process. This Unit also discusses the developments of HRD and examines them in the context of library and information centre management with particular reference to the Indian situation.

The modern approach is to introduce a new work culture in organisations to achieve desired goals and results, by motivating the staff and enabling them to acquire the necessary new and

innovative skills, giving recognition to best performances and appropriately rewarding such performances. The strategies to introduce methodologies and techniques to develop human resources to reach their optimum level of efficiency and effectiveness are the areas of management science that have received considerable attention beginning from the eighties.

The current scenario of HRP in libraries/information centres in India is briefly sketched, with suggestions for applying these concepts of planning of human resources to improve the quality of library and information services.

11.2 : Human Resources

Human beings constitute the most important and valuable resource of an organisation, based on the belief that employee commitment to work in an organisation is a fundamental prerequisite to organisational success. Such commitments can be ensured only if actions towards personnel are undertaken with the highest degree of integrity and respect. This presupposes a continuing healthy relationship between employees and employers. Consequently human resources management places an emphasis on strategic thinking towards employees, personnel planning, extensive personnel and organisational development and such others.

11.2.1: Historical Perspective

Historically, before the advent of the Industrial Revolution, attention given to human resources in organisational management was generally attributed to the organisation of workers' guilds constituting masons, carpenters, leather workers and other crafts persons to protect their interests. The field was further developed with the arrival of the Industrial Revolution in the later half of the 18th century, which laid the basis for a new and complex industrial society. A new kind of relationship with the employees and the boss, who was not necessarily the owner, as had been the case in the past, became a power broker in the new factory system. With these changes came a widening gap between workers and owners which were not conducive to higher productivity.

The drastic changes in technology, the growth of organisations, the rise of labour unions and professional associations, government concern and intervention in working class welfare, etc. resulted in the development of personnel departments in organisations. There is no specific date assigned to the appearance of the first personnel department in organisations, but round the 1920s more and more organisations seemed to take note of and do something about the conflict between employees and management. Early personnel administrators were known as welfare secretaries. Their jobs were to bridge the gap between management and operating workers.

All these developments necessitated, at the turn of this century, initiation of in-depth studies in manpower, their behaviour and full utilisation in organisations. Beginning with Taylor's attempts to improve manpower productivity by time study, research efforts moved through the period of Frank and Lillian Gilberth's techniques for recording motion patterns, leading to

work simplification on the assembly lines of the 1930s. All these made work measurement possible by introducing the concepts of rating the speed with which employees work and the need for fatigue allowances, culminating with the establishment of work study functions in large organisations. These are the beginnings or the initial genuine attempts to increase the effectiveness of manpower, largely confined to shopfloor workers in factories. However, the establishment of organisation and methods of techniques in 1960s for manpower utilisation, moved the study into offices and other fields of management.

During the 1960s, the importance of planning and then integrating personnel strategies within a coherent framework was emphasised, which highlighted the need to earn employee commitment to deliberate management action. However, many practitioners found the somewhat idealistic tone, difficult to apply to the prevailing environment of the period.

In the 1970s, work to improve the application of planning and a strategic framework to personnel management found expression in manpower planning. These theoretical frameworks demonstrated the gradual emergence of a cultural focus to managing people at work. There was the need felt by personnel of organisations to overcome the tensions and contradictions within their jobs.

During 1980s, further research was carried out to find new methods of managing human resources effectively. Firstly, it was essential that organisations identified a need for people-oriented approach. Secondly, the theoretical framework had to be seen in practical operational contexts.

The need for a people-centered approach arose after 1973, when organisations began to come to terms with two devastating economic experiences. The first was the oil price shock of 1973, which stunned many organisations into a recognition that they were vulnerable to outside events to an extent that had not previously been imagined. Now they had to be managed in a way that recognised uncertainty as inevitable and therefore, placed emphasis on flexibility to meet the unforeseen.

The second experience was the recognition of the discerning customers who look for quality. The Japanese saw before others the customers' yearning for quality, so their products swept away old European and North American products and methods.

This led to the twin pillars of modern organisations:

- creativity and flexibility to meet the unforeseen;
- customer service and the need for quality.

These ideas were accentuated by the seminal writing of Peters and Waterman in 1982, in their book 'Search for Excellence.' New words appeared in personnel literature such as quality, service, customer, objectives, trust, leadership, integrity. These were to be new jargons, summed by the term 'excellence'. These objectives, however, could not be implemented without the support and participation of the workforce. The achievement of such excellence would be the new approach to managing people at work - human resource management.

Management Specialists call the 1980s, a decade of computers and human resources development. It is generally believed and expected that new technologies and human

resources management are likely to dominate study and research in management sciences also in the 1990s and thereafter.

11.2.2: Applications

The objectives of any Human Resources Management(HRM) programmes are to build human competencies to create an environmental climate and to improve employee satisfaction with work. In other words HRM aims to build up competency development in the employees, create a work culture and introduce innovative developments.

A good number of industrial and commercial establishments in India, have HRD departments and specialists manning them. In other types of organisations, this role is performed by chiefs of personnel who hold senior level positions in the organisation. HRD in government departments and public systems also are attempted for improving work culture and efficiency. Similar efforts are made in defence, police, voluntary organisations; etc.

It is said that while there is considerable progress in HRD in the past decade in India, there is a good deal more to be done. Even this has been done mostly at large scale industries and profit sectors. These also have been confined largely to personnel at executive levels not at the workers levels. Service sectors in government and industry, by and large, appear to conceive HRD as merely a provision for training.

In libraries and information centres, especially in India, these concepts of HRD are yet to penetrate, largely because no such thinking has yet started in their respective parent organisations, although some semblances of HRD appear to be operating for promotional avenues, pay scales, education, training, deputing persons for professional conferences, etc.

11.3 : Human Resources Management

Expressions such as personnel, human resources management, industrial relations, employee development are used by different writers to describe, units, departments or groups concerned with people in organisations. The term though many people still prefer instead of management. The more modern and accepted expression, however, seems to be human resources management.

A formal definition of Human Resources Management is that it is a function performed in organisations that facilitates the most effective use of employees to achieve organisational and individual goals.

HRM comprise a number of activities that includes the following:

- Equal employment opportunity programmes
- Task analysis
- Human resources planning
- Employee recruitment, selection and orientation
- Career development and counselling, performance evaluation, and training and development
- Compensation and benefits

- Safety and health
- Labour relations
- Discipline, control, and evaluation of personnel function
- Work scheduling
- Quality of work

Three aspects of HRM are usually stressed as being fundamental to this thinking. They are that HRM should be : i) action oriented; ii) individual oriented, and iii) future oriented.

Action oriented: Effective HRM focuses on action, rather than record-keeping, written procedure, or rules. Certainly, HRM uses rules, records, and policies, but it stresses action. It emphasises the solution of employment problems to help achieve organisational objectives and facilitates employee development and satisfaction.

Individual oriented: Whenever possible, HRM treats each employee as an individual and offers services and programmes to meet the individual's needs.

Future oriented: Effective HRM is concerned with helping an organisation achieve its objectives in the future by providing for competent, well-motivated employees. Thus, human resources need to be incorporated into an organisation's long-term strategies.

The systems approach is applied to HRM. Effective HRM can be planned and executed at macro (strategic) and micro (operational) levels. We shall discuss these two levels in the next two sections.

11.3.1: Macro Approach

The macro approach to HRM refers to human resource planning and forecasting. Overall organisational objectives are converted into specific personnel policies, plans, strategies and executive actions. The recruitment, development and utilisation of human resources invariably depend upon these activities of the organisation for its future growth, diversification, contraction and similar others.

The macro approach of HRM is therefore, largely confined to defining objectives of the organisation, preparing policy guidelines, evolving pragmatic plans, strategies for executive actions, establish appropriate procedures, rules and regulations for implementation, etc. at every level. These activities are the concern of the top management, of course with the cooperation, participation and consent of the line managers who have the responsibilities to implement all these. Every factor has to be taken into account while evolving these activities and plans. Figure 11.1 gives an idea of this approach for a library/information centre (L/IC).

The overall benefit of this approach is that it would ensure professionalism, personnel involvement in work in achieving targets, formalisation, enhancement of work skills with increasing application of Information Technologies; eventually leading to a corporate culture, highly conducive to progress and further development.

The macro approach to human resource management encourages organisations to plan for their future staffing structures and to take into account changes in services and technology. Exercised properly, and on a continuing basis, it should eliminate problems of oversupply or

undersupply of particular skills within an organisation. It also aids the determination of training needs in relation to new skills required.

11.3.2: Micro Approach

While the macro approach lays the directions in which the organisation should move, the micro approach takes care to implement and execute the activities and programmes to achieve the targets, objectives and goals. Executing as part of the operation planning, it handles personnel recruitment, selection, placements and deployment, personnel skill development through training and skill acquisition through hands-on experience. The distribution of personnel to the various units, divisions and departments is done through task analysis, job analysis, job description, job specification, etc. The implication of this exercise is that a right person should fit into a right job that would not only ensure work efficiency and quality output but also give the person job satisfaction.

Job Analysis, Job Description and Job Specification

Job analysis is the process of studying and collecting information relating to the operations and responsibilities of a specific job. It is fundamental to the preparation of job specification and description.

Job description is a factual statement of the duties and responsibilities of a specific job. This usually includes job identification, job summary, duties to be performed, achievable results, reporting-supervising functions, combination, correlation and relationship of tasks to other jobs, specification of machines, tools, materials and their applications, working conditions.

Whereas, job description describes the job, job specification describes the desired attributes of the person doing the job. It is a statement of the minimum acceptable human qualities required to perform a job properly. Such requirements are usually established for individual jobs on the basis of judgments made by staff analysts, but in some instances they are based upon statistical validation procedures.

Job specification generally includes the following aspects

Information inputs to the position, mental processes required, work-output, relationships with other persons, job context, other job characteristics.

Job specification should be used as a guideline to the knowledge, skills and aptitudes required to perform a specific job.

Job analysis, job description and job specification, together form the basis of recruitment, selection and placements of persons in the organisation.

Personnel Recruitment

In building human resources, there are two potential sources for prospective candidates for a position - internal and external. Filling a position with a suitable internal candidate has the advantage of increasing the general level of morale of the staff that a career path development is available for a worthy and deserving candidate. Indeed, it is a reward mechanism for good work and therefore, may stimulate others to greater achievements.

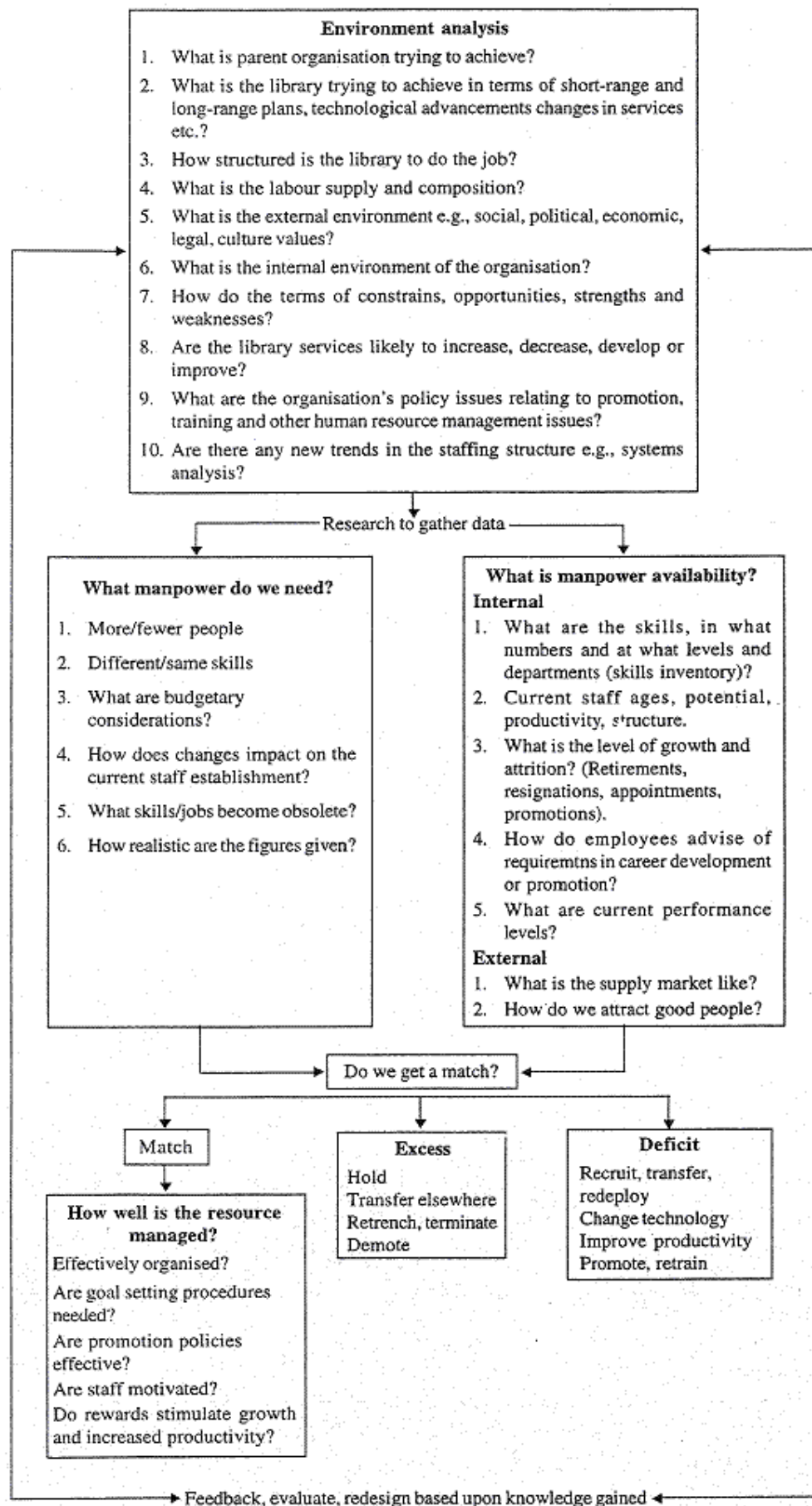


Fig. 11.1: Macro Approach to HRD (Source: Bryson)

Recruitment and selection from external sources may provide more highly skilled persons than candidates available internally and also bring to the organisation new blood and strength. This process may also result in healthy competition, but may possibly inject dissatisfaction and disharmony if an internal deserving candidate is overlooked.

Procedures and rules for recruitment and selection of personnel for Libraries/ Information Centres in India have been reasonably well established, although there may be some room for improvement. The normal methods are advertising posts in newspapers and professional journals, inviting applications from candidates who fulfill the qualifications and experience asked for, written tests if necessary for short listing or screening by a committee for the received applications for calling suitable candidates for interview, selection of candidates by a statutorily approved committee and offers of appointment with necessary conditions, etc. Once the candidate accepts the offer and joins the organisation, the person is placed in an appropriate section.

The development of personnel or what we have been discussing about human resources development has to commence at this stage. This is, seldom given full attention it deserves, particularly in most libraries and information centres in India..

We shall discuss the different aspects of human resources development in the next section.

We shall sum up the micro approach to human resources management in figure 11.2:

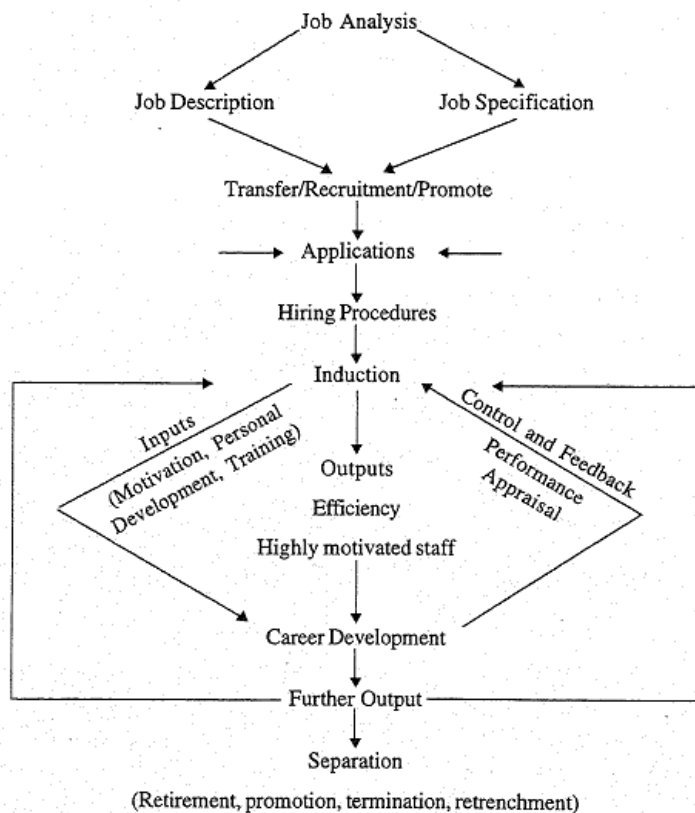


Fig. 11.2: The Micro Approach to Human Resource Planning (Source: Bryson)

It must be stated at this point that these macro and micro approaches are not mutually exclusive. In fact, they are interactive and interdependent. It is only for the sake of

convenience of learning, these are being projected in this way. Another point to be noted, is that while most operational aspects are the concern of the line managers, the major policies and programmes are laid down by the top management.

11.4 : What is Human Resource Planning?

Human resource planning is the process that helps organisations to provide adequate human resources to achieve their current and future organisational objectives.

11.4.1: Nature and Scope

HRP includes present as well as future needs for employees of various types in an organisation, comparing these needs with the present workforce, and determining the numbers and types of employees to be recruited. Persons can be recruited and selected from outside the organisation or selected out of the organisation's potential group and fit them into the organisational set up to get the best out of them. While extracting the best out of the employees, the organisation has also a responsibility to protect the interests of employees in terms of their career prospects, adequate compensation for their work, providing the best work environment and developing a culture of interpersonal, intrapersonal, employee-employer relationship and introduce quality consciousness among everyone to produce the best.

11.4.2: Planning, an Analytical Process

But before we discuss human resource planning, we shall recapitulate what we have learnt about planning. Planning is an analytical process involving:

- determination of desired goals, objectives, and set targets of achievements within a time frame in a phased manner; all these with a vision of the organisation's future growth and development;
- an assessment of the fixture in relation to environmental changes, professional A trends, technological advances, and their influence on all aspects of developments;
- selection of activities, programmes and projects to accomplish set goals and targets, from among alternatives available, fixing priorities;
- an estimation of resources required in terms of finance, equipment, machinery, manpower and others;
- preparation of a written plan document;
- providing an action plan for execution.

These plan exercise will have to be done for the mobilisation of human resources in a library/information centre, use these resources effectively, to produce quality products and offer services of the highest quality.

11.5: Need and Purpose of Human Resource Planning

The major reasons for a formal exercise on human resources planning are:

- to be more effective and efficient in the use of human resources;
- to evolve a more satisfied and better developed employees;
- to be prepared for meeting any unforeseen circumstances to carry out the plan without sacrificing targets to be achieved, allowing for essential changes, maintaining performance quality.

Human Resource Planning should, obviously, precede all other HRM activities. Recruitment scheduling, selection of candidates to match the requirements, deployment and related placement decisions, training, personnel development, etc. cannot be properly done, if there is no planning of human resources. As stated earlier, a plan serves as a guide in every one of these activities that together constitute personnel management.

Employees who work for an organisation that use good human resources policy and planning have a better chance to participate in planning their own careers and to share in training and development experiences. It can be safely assumed, therefore, that employees are likely to feel that their talents and professional competencies are important to the organisation and in consequence, they would have a better chance of utilising their proficiencies.

This situation is sure to result in greater employee satisfaction. This will be reflected in higher turnover, lower absenteeism, fewer breakdowns, and more than anything else higher quality of work.

Unanticipated problems very often arise when implementing even a very well designed plan. Organisations invariably work in an external environment over which they don't have any control. In all plan implementation, there is always a provision for rerouting and restructuring plan activities when there is an emergent situation to handle. This deliberate provision is essential to keep targets to be achieved on schedule, without abandoning any well conceived activity or project.

11.6 : Elements of Human Resource Planning

Human Resource Planning has to reckon with a set of elements, constituting the different component parts of HRP. These are:

- Estimating manpower requirements quantitatively and qualitatively;
- Recruitment and selection of personnel;
- Induction and deployment;
- Personnel development;
- Overall assessment of performance and fine tuning

11.6.1: Estimating Human Resource Requirements

With the expanding dimensions of the library and information field and its complexities, estimating manpower requirements for library and information centres assumes very crucial importance. Personnel of most of these information institutions has to be composed of persons with different educational backgrounds and skills, competent to hold responsibilities of varied nature. Besides a basic background in a subject field, every professional person should have a computer and communication background, in addition to library and information science qualifications, to fit into the different managerial positions. Persons holding a blend of these qualifications and experiences have become essential to manage and offer innovative user oriented services in fact this blend, if available would be ideal.

The higher level professionals are to work at predominantly intellectual, managerial and non routine tasks, those requiring: a) a special background and education on the basis of which the needs of libraries/information centres are identified, problems analysed, goals set, and original and creative solutions formulated for them; b) integrate theory and practice; c) ability to plan, organise, communicate, and administer successful programmes of service to different levels of users.

The supporting staff of most libraries/information centres, consists of workers with a wide range of skills from paraprofessional to administrative and clerical. This group of persons usually constitute the largest of full-time employees. The activities of these employees cover a wide range of essential duties on input, coding, and verifying bibliographical data; maintaining book funds; ordering; circulating materials; serial handling; and such others.

The process of estimating manpower requirements has to keep in view, the current changing context of information which necessitates the introduction and planning a variety of new services such as literature search using online databases and CD ROMs, sales and marketing of L/IC products and services, besides the in-house operations of database creation, maintenance, updating and other related computer based operations.

Estimates of staff requirements of a library/information centre, have to be based upon the activities, programmes, projects and targets to be achieved over a period of time. The quantitative assessment of requirements over a period of time, say, three to five years, would on most occasions, constitute a particular phase of growth. The qualitative nature of persons required have to be simultaneously assessed, through techniques such as job analysis, job description and job evaluation.

11.6.2: Recruitment and Selection

'Recruitment' or (employee resourcing) is the process by which an organisation secures the required persons by attracting sufficient number of the required types. The assessment of those who apply for employment, by one or more methods, as to their suitability for particular positions and the choice of the most suitable candidate is generally called as 'Selection'.

The steps involved in recruitment and selection are : i) Initiation by concerned line managers to fill in posts, ii) Advertisements in appropriate newspapers and professional journals of the types and number of posts, job requirements, conditions of employment, opportunities to professional advancement and career prospects and other related aspects.

There are several types of agencies who provide consultancy services to select right type of persons for organisations. They operate with different names such as Employment bureaus, Placement agencies, Advertisement agencies, Personnel consultants.

These agencies carry out the whole recruitment and selection process to the point of final choice, for a fee, acting essentially as a personnel unit of an organisation, engaged in an adhoc capacity on a contract basis.

The practice of selecting suitable candidates by organisations through their personnel managers, visiting professional education and training institutions and holding campus interviews is slowly taking roots in India. This practice enables institutions to catch youngsters at the right age, train, mould and fit them into responsible positions.

The routine operations involved in recruitment and selection of persons are usually conducted by personnel departments. Screening applications to short list candidates for interview (if necessary holding a written test for short listing), conducting personal interviews or other methods to find out the suitability of persons for different positions, are some of the steps of recruitment and selection.

11.6.3: Induction and Deployment

One of the several sure ways to retain the best persons selected for employment in an organisation, is to induct them properly into the organisation to make them feel that they have come to the right place to work. Unfortunately, inducting an employee is not given the attention it deserves in most libraries/information centres in India. The methods and techniques normally practised in organisation which takes this aspect of work seriously is explained in the next section on methods and techniques of HRP.

Once the employee gets his/her orientation to the organisation reasonably well, posting the person to the right place wherein he/she would fit in, most appropriately, is referred to as deployment. The skills, responsibility, ability to work in a team and such other qualities of individuals are important considerations in the deployment of staff.

If deployment of personnel is not done carefully, serious problems of conflicts would arise which would nullify all the efforts made in getting potentially competent persons.

11.6.4: Personnel Development

To achieve the organisational objectives, targets of growth, and development, the human resources department of an organisation has to make a plan to get the best out of its carefully selected employees. Of several aspects that an FR plan may have to incorporate into it, we would be discussing the following more important ones:

- a) Performance Appraisal of staff-,
- b) Training and Development;
- c) Changing perspectives and attitudes;
- d) Communication.

Performance Appraisal

Performance Appraisal is the systematic evaluation of an individual employee's job related strengths and weaknesses. The assessment of performance against standards is identified by a variety of labels which are used interchangeably; performance measurement, evaluation, appraisal, assessment, review, monitoring or data feedback are the expressions currently in vogue.

Performance appraisal embraces a multitude of techniques which are used to determine whether the amount and quality of the person's effort, contribution; or results meet the standards laid down in some prior analysis of the work and its purposes. It tries to answer the question whether the amount of work effort or contribution put out by the person concerned is adequate or satisfactory in relation to the established performance standards; is the person working hard or effectively enough at the assigned task?

The substance of performance appraisal is that all work in a library/information centre has to conform in form and amount to some preset standards. But differences in the nature of work may require different methods of defining them. While measurement of performance is judged quantitatively by work output, higher turnover, etc. the qualitative performance results have to be measured through some accepted yardstick of personnel qualities, disposition, behaviour pattern, etc.

All these kinds of assessment of performance of personnel may be expected to serve a variety of purposes; some would relate to performance improvement, some to remuneration and promotion, some to organisational concerns, such as communication or manpower planning.

A well designed plan is likely to help in controlling judgment processes involved in performance appraisal and may identify the factors affecting ratings and scales to be used. Such a plan would also indicate the type of conclusions to be reached.

Training and Development

Education, training, acquisition of skills, etc. are learning processes that help an organisation to improve the abilities and competencies of its personnel which will enable the organisation to perform better and deliver high quality products and services.

Education and training imply a discipline and development by means of study and learning. Education is the development of the general and special abilities of the mind, learning to know; whereas training is practical education, learning to do or practice, usually under supervision, in some art, trade or profession. Education provides the necessary faculties to think and evolve theories and methods of planning, operations and other related aspects with respect to the growth and development of an organisation. Training is the practice of applying methods and techniques to execute plans and programmes effectively.

In personnel planning, recruitment and selection would normally take care to choose persons of good general and professional education, particularly at senior levels, so that these persons have the necessary mental faculties and abilities to evolve a philosophy and culture of work for the organisation.

Training is a process which personnel in an organisation are deliberately offered, to enable them to absorb some new perspectives, understanding, value, attitude, technique or skill with reference to the activities and programmes of an organisation.

Development is a method of preparing persons to perform work beyond that which currently engages them and to accept responsibilities far greater than they now have.

Training and development in this broader sense, therefore, rest on a perception that a person learns both to be and to do largely through experience which may be actual or simulated.

The general inference that could be gleaned from this perception is that an individual will learn effectively if favourable conditions exist or created for the purpose. These conditions may be that the individual -

- is motivated to learn something new to understand or cope with some general or special aspect of his or her environment;
- understands something of the relationship between what is to be learnt and some acceptable goal which he or she possesses or of which he or she has been convinced of the relevance to the achievement of these goals;
- has the capacity and ability to learn what is required for the purpose. This in turn depends on the individual having the capacity to learn from experience.

Training activities and programmes flow from the analysis of need and should be defined prior to embarking on training exercises.

Another important aspect of training is that it entails the deliberate and structured presentation of experience, which may be considered in aiding to change person's knowledge, understanding, attitudes or behaviour. In the field of library and information studies, change of perception, attitudes, approaches has become extremely necessary with the emphasis on knowledge and information as vital resources for any development, increasing application of information technology, user demands, information opulence, obsolescence, etc. and fast growing information industry as stiff competitors in information business.

Changing Perspectives and Attitudes

An organisation growth, prosperity and its quality of service to a community largely rests on its ability to be resourceful and dynamic, responding positively to a] 1 changes. The success of an organisation in delivering its products and services, is equally dependent on the personnel who ought also to be dynamic with a positive response to changes. We have indicated in the previous section, that training and development may be one way of bringing about changes in the perspective and attitudes of personnel in an organisation. In this section, we shall consider some of the other influential factors that would help to evolve a plan for bringing about these changes.

Unless there are perceptible perspective changes and attitudinal changes in individuals and groups of persons, it is rather difficult to make them absorb anything through training and upskilling programmes alone. Perspective is a person's total mental and conceptual vision with a foresight of ideas, facts, thoughts, actions, etc. and their relationship with reference to the processes of growth, development and future shape and image of an organisation. If a person gets the right perspective, he/she would be more than ready or willing to undergo changes in their knowledge and skills and would be responsive and become alive to a new and changing situation.

Attitude is a complex tendency of a person to respond consistently to changes favourably or unfavourably. Attitudes are structured psychological tendencies consisting of cognitive, affective (emotional feeling) and behavioural components, each of which has its own contents and structure. There can be wide variations in the content of an attitude, independently on an issue to which the attitude relates. For example, for computerisation of a library catalogue, there could be different attitudes of this contemplated change from a manual to a computerised system, based on the knowledge of contents of the proposed change. This may also reveal distinct beliefs about the meaning and importance that are associated with the change. This is the cognitive element of attitude of content on the issue of change to be brought about in the preparation of a library catalogue.

The affective element of attitude in this context places the emphasis on the feelings which the individual has towards the issue of creating a computerised catalogue. This is not merely a matter of whether or not an individual holds favourable or unfavourable attitudes. In fact two persons may have an unfavourable attitudes towards a computerised catalogue. One may feel that this change would be of little importance in the organisation, for the experts in preparing manual catalogue entries. The other person may feel that a computerized catalogue may not work in the absence of continued electric supply and trained staff.

The behavioural aspect of an attitude stresses the predisposition (inclination) of the person to react to the issue in a specific way. The existence of a strong positive attitude towards the proposed change might predispose the person to support it and work for it. A negative attitude might be associated with a predisposition to *reject* it and work against it.

'Structure' here is an indication of individual's understanding of the way the work of change is likely to be organised. Discussing the cognitive element here, two persons may hold the same view with reference to computerisation of the library catalogue, for or against. One may hold the view against, on the basis of the persons full knowledge of the implications of bringing about a change without adequate preparations for a phased out programme. The other may have a superficial knowledge of the processes involved in computerisation and very limited beliefs or faith about the change being introduced.

The affective component of structure of an attitude of persons may be nested in a variety of specific emotional reactions. Just as the affective element of content of attitude, here also the feeling of insecurity, or a total dislike for a change, may operate in individuals to take a particular stance towards an issue.

In the behavioural area, some attitudes may strongly predispose the individual to act in specific ways while others may do so rather weakly. The person may be led to resist a change with all the forces at his/her command or to complain about it vocally but go along with it once the vocal protest has been registered.

The planning document on personnel development may deal with these aspects, suggesting ways and methods to build up perspectives and respond favourably to desirable changes. Analysing individual and group properties of attitudes, if the group attitudes are tackled to bring the groups to positive thinking towards change, individuals may coalesce and accept it.

To bring about changes in perspectives and attitudes, some of the methods developed are:

- Influencing and reinforcement;

- Creating conditions conducive to change;
- Changing the environment;
- Engineering deliberate changes;
- Change by command, selection and delegation;
- Change through interaction;
- Training;
- The representative group;
- Quality circles;
- Communication.

We shall discuss these methods and techniques in the section 11.7 on techniques and methods of HRP.

Communication

Communication is the life blood of any system of human activity, without it, no purposful or coherent activity can take place. It is achieved through interactions among people, but the interaction is neither random nor accidental. It is inbuilt into the structure of every organisation, which, inter alia, channel interpersonal communication. An organisation is defined as a set of roles tied into a system by their channels of communication. Organisations are structurally designed to facilitate and ensure supply so that information needed by a person for decision or action, is channelled to him or her in the required form and at the appropriate time.

Communications are initiated, and eventually received by human beings. They are themselves, channels of communication with finite capacities, but they are also initiators and receivers. Their skills in both constructing and transmitting messages, and in receiving and assimilating them, affect the efficiency of the communication.

Feedback is a necessary part of communication. Unless feedback is obtained, a manager may not know how an employee or a colleague is feeling, nor can a person's performance be assessed and corrective measures taken if warranted. Employees also require feedback in order to allow them to take their own corrective action.

In planning for human resources development, aspects of communication that require attention are as follows:

- Messages that the management wishes to convey to keep the employees well informed of the organisation objectives, plans and programmes, primarily to ensure full cooperation and support from the employees;
- Interpersonal exchange of ideas, views, actions among the different categories of employees with reference to specific programmes and projects or any other activity or issues;
- Inter organisational communication that ensures the organisation to play its role effectively;

- Participation in and organisation of professional conferences, seminars, workshops, etc. to be active and alive to professional advancements.

There are many ways by which these objectives can be achieved. Methods and techniques have evolved over a period of time for oral and written communication, formal and informal modes of communicating, channels and media through which messages to be transmitted, holding meetings of various kinds to exchange ideas and facts, and similar others.

Specific programmes and activities have to be built into the plan document to incorporate all these aspects of communication.

Overall assessment of performance and fine tuning

As we have stated earlier at several places in this unit, planning is not just a one time exercise. It is, in fact, a continuing effort to judge its effectiveness in the actual implementation process. In the course of executing a plan, it may undergo changes, due to problems that had not been anticipated while preparing the plan. Or the efficacy of the plan may require modification, in practical implementation. Therefore, plan effectiveness in terms of results achieved should also be assessed at periodical intervals. This type of evaluation would identify the strengths and weaknesses of the plan. The weak portions of the plan would necessitate a revision. This exercise would permit retuning of the plan to ensure reasonable success eventually.

11.7 : Methods and Techniques of Human Resource Planning

In the foregoing section, we identified a few important elements of human resource planning, explaining the functional value of them, indicating their different operational aspects. In this section, we shall discuss the methods and techniques of the planning process with reference to these elements.

Human resource planning or manpower planning is a process whereby courses of action are determined in advance and continually updated, with the aim that:

- the organisation demand for personnel to meet its projected needs is as accurately predicted as the adoption of modern forecasting techniques allow;
- the supply of professional and supporting personnel to the organisation is maintained by deliberate and systematic action to mobilise it in reasonable balance with these demands;
- the organisation adopts methods and techniques to develop programmes and activities, to equip the staff with necessary knowledge and skills to enable them to perform their tasks in consonance with the organisational objectives and goals;
- the organisation takes care to initiate and implement staff development programmes to keep them motivated to perform well in every organisational activity with a sense of participation and involvement; in addition take care of their personal interests in terms of financial and other benefits and career prospects.

The elements of HR Planning, mentioned in the previous section of this Unit are:

- Estimating manpower requirements quantitatively and qualitatively;
- Recruitment and selection of personnel;
- Induction and deployment;
- Personnel development;
- Overall assessment of performance and fine tuning.

11.7.1: Estimating Personnel Resources

The obvious, first step in human, resource planning is to estimate personnel requirements for the present as well as for the future, taking into account organisational overall objectives and projected developments. The Fig. 11.3 sums up the work process involved in building up manpower resources:

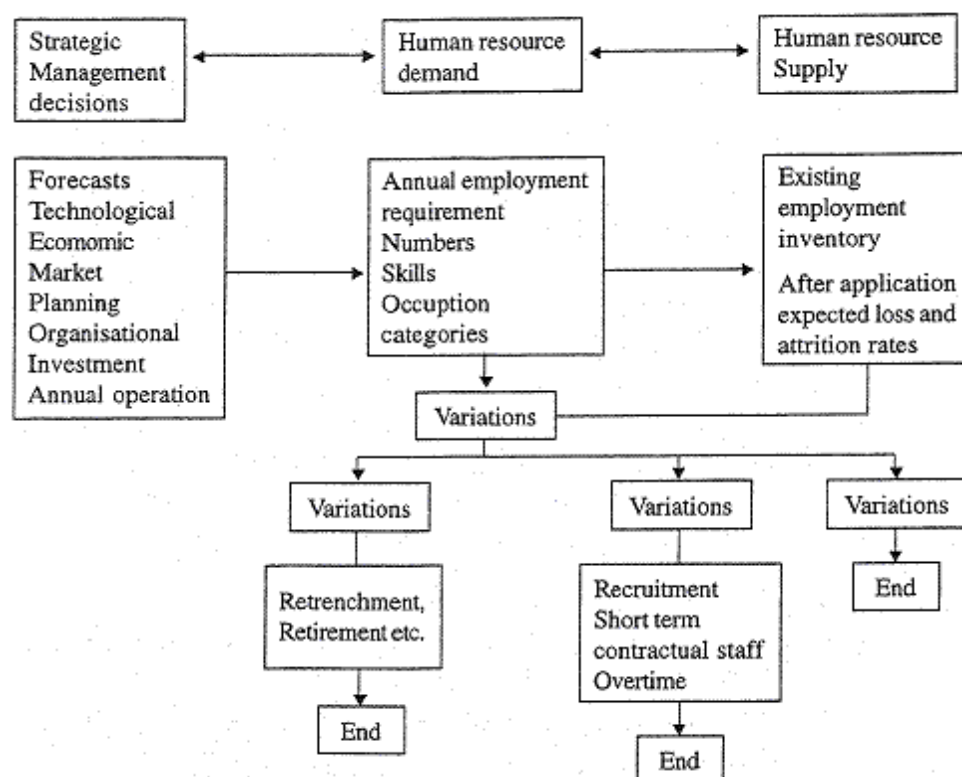


Fig. 11.3: Personnel Building Process

Estimating staff requirements, especially for large institutions has to be done systematically, using the methods of forecasting techniques. The top management has to assess the need, getting data for the actual requirements in the different units, from the line managers. In smaller organisations, the exercise is done by the top person, from his/her expert knowledge of the organisation and competence in forecasting.

In larger organisations, staff estimation work has to be on the basis of standard techniques. Three top-down techniques - expert estimate, trend projection and modelling and the bottom-up unit forecasting technique, generally used, are explained briefly hot.

Expert-Estimate Technique

The least sophisticated approach to employment planning, yet the one most frequently used, is for an expert to forecast the employment needs based on the person's own experience, institution, and intelligent guess. The expert-estimate technique can be more effective if the experts use the Delphi technique.

The Delphi technique is a set of procedures to obtain the most reliable consensus of opinion of a group of experts. Basically, the Delphi technique consists of intensive questioning of each expert, through a series of questionnaires to obtain data that can be used for forecasts. The procedures are designed to avoid direct meetings between the experts in order to maximise independent thinking.

A person who serves as an intermediary in the questioning, sends the questionnaires to the experts and invites them to give their best estimates of employment needs for a given year. This person prepares a summary of the results, calculating the average response and the most extreme answers. Then the experts are asked to estimate the required number again. Usually the questionnaires and responses tend to narrow down in the later rounds. The average number is then used as the forecast.

Trend Projection Technique

This technique is to develop a forecast based on a past relationship between a factor related to employment and personnel. For example, in an information centre, the various products and services offered are related to employment needs. Data on services can be matched against the staff that are actually involved in the work. Staff strength needs can be projected from past experiences and appropriate estimates can be prepared with reference to the number of persons required to perform the different functions, ensuring quality.

Modelling Technique

Another method of estimating staff requirements use the most sophisticated forecasting and modelling techniques. Trend projections are based on relating a single factor or multiple factors. Mathematical models are designed on these relationships. Estimates are projected, utilising methods such as Markov models and analytical formulations such as regression analysis.

Unit Demand Forecasting Technique

The unit forecast is a bottom-up approach to forecasting staff estimates. The top management sums up the units forecasts to project the total employment forecast. By analysing present and future requirements of the job and the skills of the incumbents, this method focuses on quality of staff.

Once the estimates for personnel are projected for a given period of time, the next step is to determine the quality, fitness and availability of those presently working at different levels in the organisation.

The major tool for the analysis of existing internal staff is the skills inventory.

A skills inventory, in its simplest form, is a list of names, characteristics and skills of the persons working for the organisation.

Good skills inventory enable organisations to determine quickly and expediently what kinds of persons with specific skills required are presently available in an organisation. They are also useful in planning for staff development that includes training, development, promotion, transfer, and related personnel activities.

After taking stock of the personnel already operating in an organisation and assessing future needs of staff, in terms of quantity and quality, the next step is to recruit persons for positions and jobs for which there are no persons already available in the organisation.

Procedures and methods of personnel recruitment and selection have already been described in the earlier section of this Unit and also in the later section of two unit.

In this section, we shall mention a few important aspects that pertain to details of the operational part of recruitment and selection. The planning for recruitment and selection of candidates for an organisation should pay attention to the following:

- Recruitment schedule, including the provision of finance and other related aspects;
- Announcement of positions, through daily newspapers, employment news, placement agencies, consultancies; circulars to institutions from wherein suitable candidates may be available, particularly for senior posts. The contents of ads/ circulars must attract right candidates, and must be drafted to obtain all relevant personal data from the applicants;
- Selection through tests and/or interviews;
- Issue of appointment letters with terms and conditions.

Although the above details need not necessarily be spelled out in a plan document, it would be useful to hint at the right methods of rules and procedures. The fundamental purpose is to ensure right results.

11.7.2: Induction and Deployment

We have sufficiently emphasised the importance of induction of new incumbents to the organisation. Induction orients and introduces new employees to the organisation. It can be done either on a formal or informal basis.

The first phase of induction, generally an orientation programme, is often conducted by the personnel unit, and may be in an informal way, acquainting the new entrant with overall information about the organisation. This normally consists of giving background information about the organisation, with particular reference to its goals and objectives, activities and programmes, discipline, employee benefits, salary schedules, health and safety provisions, attendance and leave rules, holidays, grievance procedures, hours of work, lunch and coffee/tea breaks, telephone facilities and such others. All these types of information are important to be known to a new entrant but quite often, they are unaware about these and therefore, ignorance of these, on many occasions throw both the employee and employer to awkward postures.

The second phase of induction is performed by the immediate supervisor. It provides information to the environment and visits to the different departments, divisions and units of the organisation to get introduced to other colleagues, and a complete overview of achievements of the organisation. It is at this stage that the new employee begins to feel his/her pulse in the organisation and gets some idea of the organisation culture. This may stimulate the person to think about his/her personal role in the organisation.

This initial thoughtful induction pays rich dividends to the organisation. Here again all the above are details of the techniques of induction; they should, however, find a brief mention in the plan document.

11.7.3: Training and Development

Training and development constitute the most important component of personnel development for an organisation. Training may be of several kinds, each one having a specific objective as detailed in by the table 11.1 (Note: These are illustrative and not exhaustive. There can be many variations of each).

<i>Kind of Participants</i>	<i>Target Participants</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Duration</i>	<i>Training</i>
Orientation course	New Entrants at all levels	To acclimatise	1-3 days	Internal Unit
In-service	Junior level Individuals/ groups	To pick up practical skills in specific jobs	1-2 Unit weeks	Concerned Unit
Workshops in specific areas	Middle level technical staff	To acquaint with current methods and techniques	4-6 weeks depending on the area	Professional agencies
Short term courses in areas	Line managers	To update with current trends	1-2 weeks	Professional agencies
Continuing education programmes	Junior, middle level staff	To know current trends and advances	2-4 weeks	Professional agencies

In planning for training programmes, the following points need care and attention:

- Need for training; identification of areas of training and number of persons to, be trained within a time frame;
- Assessment of training-programmes, internal as well as external to decide which one would suit the needs of the organisation and at which particular level.

Assessment of courses should be with reference to agency offering the course, course contents, course materials, faculty, duration, facilities for practical work, if periodically offered, elements of improvement, evaluation processes and such others.

- Evaluation of candidates who attend such courses to estimate the gain due to training and to assign new and/or additional responsibilities or assignments;
- Every area of training requirements needs to be considered; administrative, financial, professional and others;

11.7.4: Communication

A communication system in an organisation supplement and complement training in staff development programmes. Together these two constitutes the most powerful tool in shaping staff capabilities to an optimum level.

Communication may help personnel development through:

- organisational culture;
- oral communications - formal and informal that includes various kinds of meetings;
- written communications - house bulletins, reports;
- other methods.

Organisational Culture

Culture usually refers to the way of life of a society. It is supposed to offer a set of values and ideas to the problems of living and working in a complex social system. It may impose a tradition-based constraint on what people may do, lawfully and legitimately, so that it serves as a source of control over people in the society. The values and ideas that make up a culture are pervasive down into the everyday behaviours which respond to them.

Organisational culture is a subculture that identifies working philosophies, designs and practices peculiar to an individual organisation. The effect of this process is to generate values, ideas and practices, at the level of and appropriate to circumstances of a particular organisation. The notion philosophy is concerned with abstract values and ideas, not directly with concrete methods and techniques but may serve to guide and structure concrete action.

Currently, action is taken in organisations to change structures of work experience and to multiply the opportunities which the employees and management have for developing new perspectives, attitudes and ideas for operational purposes. All these lead to a deliberate development of an organisation culture which is consciously sustained in an organisation.

Various methods are discussed in management literature that pertain to bringing about changes in organisational culture. Some individuals and groups in an organisation may wield considerable influence on the staff that might help changing staff attitudes and behaviours. Knowledgeable persons who have a willingness to share their knowledge and experience with others. Generally known as gatekeepers, may help building up right perspectives in persons in an organisation.

The different techniques mentioned in the earlier section on 'changing perspectives and attitudes' deal with introducing changes:

- through various kinds of influences;
- by organisational restructuring;
- by engineering changes in work environments.

Oral Communications

Among the various kinds of oral communications, both formal and informal, meetings occupy an important place in shaping the behaviour of employees in organisations. A meeting is a communication process which brings together a group of persons with a common interest, to accomplish some purpose or goal. The sharing of knowledge and experience allows participants to be involved in planning, decision making, problem solving, negotiating, evaluation, consultation and/or information dissemination. Various types of committees constituted for different purposes hold regular meetings to discuss issues on different aspects of the organisation. Ad hoc committees also are constituted to deal with problems of special nature.

The constitution of committees, agenda preparation to discuss issues, purposeful discussions in meetings, preparation of minutes of meetings are the different aspects of meetings that should get proper attention.

Statutory meetings such as meetings of Executive committee, Advisory committee, Finance committee, are held at regular intervals with appropriate agendas. Besides there could be several meetings of specially constituted committees for different purposes in which a large number of individuals participate and get a sense of involvement in various affairs of the organisation.

Handled effectively and efficiently, meetings will result in creative thinking, multiple thought input, enhanced group cohesiveness, cooperation, and communication leading to better decision-making in solving problems.

Written Communication

Written communications in organisations include reports of various kinds such as annual reports, monthly or quarterly reports, reports on special issues, project reports-interim, progress and final versions, financial reports. Proposals for special projects, in-house publication in the form of bulletins, newsletters, journals and such others also emanate from organisations to serve specific purposes. Deputation reports by individuals of visits outside the country could be not only informative but also may provide scope for new contacts and exchange relations with institutions in different countries.

Other Methods

There are several other methods besides formal and informal communication to bring about cohesiveness, coordination and cooperation among personnel in organisation to obtain best results. Some of these methods pertain to leadership strategies, motivation, conflict resolution, grievance procedures, environmental improvement to reduce stress, improve working conditions, healthcare, etc. Administrative control to exercise power, authority, and influence judiciously to introduce healthy discipline, organisational behaviour could be other means to obtain tangible results.

These methods could be very effective if carefully planned and executed. Otherwise they could be counterproductive.

Quality Circles

Quality Circles (QCs) are current methods of opening up new channels of communication in participative management. They are described as "small groups of employees who normally work together, meeting regularly to agree upon ways of improving quality, productivity and other aspects of their day to day working arrangements. They are usually composed of persons between five and ten, voluntarily participating, led by a supervisor selected from within the working group. They usually meet regularly to discuss problems of quality and quantity of output and relevant working arrangements. They, however, take a number of different forms, according to situations in which they exist.

This is a Japanese philosophy and style of management, as a counterpart to the notions of scientific management. Their characteristics are that they:

- form an integral part of the management philosophy and approach, not something added on to the existing structure;
- are endowed with authority to implement any changes which may be agreed upon after consideration of the problem;
- are integrated with other policies which protect the integrity of those individuals who participate.

The underlying belief in 'quality circles' is that persons working at shop floor levels in industry (at various operating levels, in our context) may have ideas and experience that would contribute to improvements to any existing practice or technique of work, if they are properly concretised. If such new ideas and work experience are discussed among the colleagues who are also well versed in those aspects of work, management should take advantage of such ideas and thoughts and consider their implementation after testing their efficacies. For more details on quality circles see Unit 3 in Block I of this course.

11.8 : Personnel Policy

Planning and policy making are supplementary and complementary to each other. Policies are guides, helping a specific course of action. They can be general or specific. General policies are used on a wide organisational basis and are usually broad and comprehensive. They affect all department and all levels of staff. Specific policies relate to operational levels of work, having significance to a specific department or division. Rules, and procedures are to be framed according to set policies.

An effective set of personnel policies serve a number of different functions. Firstly, formulation of policies may require the management to think on the needs of both the employees and the organisation. Secondly, it may lead to consistent application and treatment to all employees, minimising both favouritism and discrimination. Thirdly such policies would assure continuity of action, irrespective of change in supervisors in any department or division.

Policies are communicated to employees through communication channels and should be

administered uniformly and equitably.

In the context of planning of human resources, policies would guide the process of planning with reference to the formulation of the plan and its implementation.

11.9 : Human Resources Planning for Libraries and Information

Libraries and information centres as they are today in India, are not for profit organisations and are in the group known as service sectors. While there are many in-service sectors like banking, insurance, health services, etc. operating on a business basis, earning profits on their services, library and information services cannot be compared with these service sectors, although there are certain library and information services which offer services only at a price. This is one of the biggest constraints that these information institutions are to cope up with at present.

Most of these information institutions are operating as constituent part of various institutional complexes like R&D establishments, Universities, Government Departments and others, and therefore, are largely conditioned and controlled by personnel policies and plans of the parent organisational complexes. While there are benefits to personnel operating in libraries and information, arising out of this practice, independent thinking with reference to devising plans and policies exclusively for information personnel is yet to commence. No systematic studies appear to have been made dealing with management problems, much less personnel problems.

In this situation, personnel plans and policies discussed here would perhaps appear to be only of academic interest. However, situations are bound to change; and they are slowly changing indeed. Various compulsions like fund crunch, increasing demand for information, emerging business approaches in information products and services, consequent emphasis on quality, and market characteristics with competitors, etc. are driving information institutions to rework their operational structures and organisational developments to function more effectively in a commercial environment. In this context all that have been discussed in this unit would be relevant and useful.

While preparing a plan document on human resource development, following must be noted: Such a plan would derive its initial guidelines and strength from the broad goals that would keep users and their information needs at the centre, building up collections and stocks, relevant and appropriate to user needs, with facilities for access and availability, and well conceived user services.

On the basis of the above objectives and goals, the steps in personnel planning would constitute the following:

- Estimating personnel needs for the present and future, using techniques of forecasting;
Establishing result oriented recruitment and selection procedure for new staff;

Inducting new staff to the organisation, applying techniques that would be conducive to retain the best and ensure excellence in all aspects;

- Progressive policies of personnel development to treat the staff with respect and concern for their future, applying appropriate methods and techniques, suggested in this unit;
- Ensuring quality to products and services, keeping customer satisfaction as the primary objective;
- Evaluating results at periodic intervals to improve efficiency and effectiveness.

11.10 : Human Resources Development

Human Resources Development (HRD) is the process of helping employees in an organisation to acquire competencies. This help is given to employees in a planned and continuous way to:

- acquire and sharpen capabilities required to perform various tasks associated with their recent and expected future roles;
- develop their general capabilities and discover and exploit their inner potential for their own and/or organisational developmental purposes,
- develop an organisational culture in which supervisor-subordinate relationships, team work, and collaboration among sub-units are strong, and contribute to the professional well-being, and pride of employees;
- facilitate upskilling and improved abilities by the introduction of mechanisms (instruments or sub-systems) such as training, performance appraisal, organisational development (OD), feedback, counselling, career development, potential development, job rotation, incentives, awards and rewards.

11.10.1 : Need for and Purpose of HRD

Personnel constitute the most important and vital key to the effective functioning of an organisation. Their knowledge and skills have to be constantly upgraded to handle new tasks to achieve organisational success. Not only employees competencies and abilities have to be enhanced but their motivation, dedicated involvement, sense of personal participation and above all full commitment to organisational goals, objectives and targets are absolutely essential.

The purpose of involving employees with increased knowledge and skills is obviously to achieve the organisation's goals and targets successfully. The twin factors that will ensure success to any organisation in enhancing their goodwill and reputation in the field are customer satisfaction and quality of products and services that an organisation offers.

Therefore, HRD is necessary for any type of organisation for:

- Survival and stability;

- Growth and development;
- Change and diversification;
- Retuning activities to become more effective;
- Providing highest quality in products and services;
- Playing a leadership role in the field;
- Obtain goodwill and reputation through customer satisfaction.

11.10.2 : HRD Mechanisms, Instruments and Systems

Human resource is the most important factor for an organisation using diversity of resources to achieve the targets successfully. There must be, therefore, well thought out means, mechanisms, instruments and systems for human resources development.

The following schematic diagram sums up the HRD linkages with the means and mechanisms:

<i>HRD Mechanisms sub-systems Instruments</i>	<i>HRD Processes HRD climate variables</i>	<i>HRD outcome variables</i>	<i>Organisational effectiveness dimensions</i>
• HRD Dept. • Performance Appraisal • Review discussion, feedback counselling sessions • Role analysis exercises • Potential development exercises • Training policies	• Role clarity persons • Planning of development of every employee • Awareness of competencies required for job performance • Proactive orientation • More trust • Collaboration and team work	• More competent • Better developed roles • Higher work commitment and job involvement • More problem solving • Better utilisation of human resources • Higher job satisfaction and work motivation	• High productivity • Growth and diversification • Cost reduction • More profits • Better image
• Communication policies • Job rotation • OD exercises • Rewards • Job enrichment programs • Other mechanisms	• Authenticity • Openness • Risk taking • Value generation • Clarification of norms and standards • Increased communication More objective rewards • Generation of objective data on employment	• Better generation of internal resources • Better health • More team work Synergy and respect for each other	

Other factors

Personnel policies Top management styles Top management commitment Previous culture Line manager's interest, etc.	Environment Technology Resource availability History Nature of Business, etc.
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The above schematic table illustrates list of HRD mechanisms, process variables, process outcomes and dimensions of organisational effectiveness. It is to be noted, as shown in the tables, that the organisational effectiveness depends on a number of other variables like environment, technology, competitors, top management styles and commitment, line manager's deep involvement, etc.

Other things being equal, organisations that have a well deemed HRD programme, competent, satisfied, committed and dynamic personnel would indeed do better than those organisations that do not have proper HRD programmes and the right type of personnel.

11.10.3 : HRD as a Process

HRD is a continuous process and not merely a set of mechanisms, instruments, techniques. The mechanisms and techniques such as training, performance appraisal, counselling, interventions on organisation development, etc. are meant to initiate, facilitate and promote the process. However, these mechanisms, instruments and techniques need to be constantly reviewed for their effectiveness. Organisation can facilitate this process of development by planning for it, by allocating organisational resources and exemplify HRD philosophy that values human beings and consciously promotes their development.

The premises to this thinking are based on three basic concepts of HRD:

- i) Persons working in an organisation are regarded as valuable resources implying that there is a need to invest time- and effort in their development;
- ii) They are human resource with all the special characteristics and hence cannot be treated in the way other resources are handled. This focuses on the need to humanise organisational life and introduce human values in the organisation;
- iii) Human resource handling does not merely focus on employees as individuals, but also on other human units and processes in the organisation.

This human approach to HRD, therefore, deals with six concepts which should determine HRD process in relation to HRD systems and activities. These concepts are:

- Individual employee: Self-management, Competence building, Advancement;
- Role: Optimum stress, Linkage, Autonomy;
- Dyad (consisting of the individual and the boss): Trust, Mutuality, Communication;
- Team: Cohesion, Resource utilisation;
- Inter team: Identity, Collaboration;
- Organisation: Growth, Impact, Self-renewal.

These concepts are superimposed on HRD systems namely Appraisal, Career, Training, Work, Culture, Self-renewal systems. Let us study these concepts and systems briefly.

Individual Employee: HRD hinges on individual development, so that jointly they would contribute maximal to the organisation growth and development. Three aspects concern the individual development viz. Self management, competence building and advancement

Role: Role is the position an employee occupies as deemed by expectations of different significant persons (who have face-to-face relationship with role occupants) have with the person. It is not, however; synonymous with position in an organisation. In fact individual roles have to be examined independently.

Three aspects are concerned with roles of employees viz. optimum stress, linkages and autonomy. Optimum stress refers to tuning a person to rise his/her contribution to an optimum level. Linkages provide for infra and interrelations between individuals and teams within the section and outside. Autonomy permits an individual to display initiative in dealing with a new situation and solving problems:

Dyad: The dyadic (an employee and the supervisor) are the basic building blocks of an organisational structure. This bond of relationship should be strong enough to deliver the maximum to the organisation. Trust, mutuality, communication are three aspects that guide this bond of relationship.

Team: It is only team work that ensures success to an organisation. Cohesion, resource utilisation are the necessary ingredients that should build up team work.

Inter Team: Cooperation among the different teams i.e., between teams in a section, between teams of different sections, sectional teams with higher level divisions and departments, is essential for achieving corporate objectives and goals.

Organisation: An Organisation needs to be dynamic and should respond to changes in environments, advances in technology, diversifications of products and services. Growth, impact and self-renewal are three aspects that deserve attention.

Appraisal System: Appraisal systems concern three main aspects - performance, potential and performance coaching. It is said that performance appraisal is practised widely in assessing individual and team performances, the other two seldom get full attention.

Career Systems: These concern the advancement of individual employees in building up a career in the organisation. Career development plans, career planning and monitoring are the aspects that are developed in career systems.

Training System: This is a widely used system in most organisations to build staff skills. However attention needs to be given to the different types of training required, inhouse training or training by professional bodies or institutions, evaluation of trained employees and utilisation of the training gone through, etc.

Work Systems: This aspect relates to work related issues and should be examined at every level - managerial and operational. Task analysis, quality of work life (work place democracy, autonomous work groups, participating management, etc.), productivity and quality of products and services are some more important aspects that deserve considerable attention.

Cultural System: For the development of organisational culture, an appropriate organisational climate is necessary. Communication within the organisation that includes

top-down, bottom-up, horizontal, circular, and external communication ensure a smoothness in employee and employer relationship.

Another aspect is the reward, incentive schemes, both for individuals and teams that will generate greater involvement of employees in work and promote quality. The award, reward and incentive scheme should be judiciously implemented otherwise it will produce the opposite results.

Self-renewal System: A healthy organisation is highly conducive to success and growth. Activities, methods and techniques will have to be reviewed constantly to improve the impact and effectiveness of the organisation. This is done through organisation development which is concerned with development of competency through effective teams to diagnose the problems and initiate process of collaborative work to deal with them. Process competency is improved, aiming at maintaining profiles of organisational health, monitoring organisational health, assisting 'sick' units, helping interested units and departments in self-renewal, conflict management, creation of strong teams, etc.

Organisational learning which is learning through involvement and experience in the organisation and effectively utilising such improved capabilities.

Another important aspect is research orientation in HRD. Collecting data on different issues, analysis of such data, interpretation, evaluation and application of results constitute the aspects of work of research.

These two sets of parameters constitute a matrix that brings out the relationship between them. The table given below sums up this relationship.

HRD Concept	Appraisal	Career	Training	Systems Work	Cultural	Self-renewal
Person	• Performance • Potential	• Development Planning	• Identity Training Needs	• Role Efficiency	• Rewards Acculturation	• Involvement
Role	• Develop critical attributes	• Job rotation	• Task analysis	• Job enrichment	• Stress management	
Dyad	• Performance review & coaching • Feed-back on HRD	• Mentoring	• Training in performance		• Communication	
Team	• Appraise team work • Counsel teams • Team appraisal • Team counseling		• Identification of trng. Needs • Developing curriculum	• Autonomous work groups		• Team building
Inter Team	• Common procedures of appraisal • Parity of appraisal			• Productivity • Quality of work • Quality of work life	• Communication	• Collaboration
Organisation	• Linkage of appraisal with goals & values	• Succession planning			• Climate Rituals celebrations	• HRD Res • Organisational learning

While the top management is responsible for a well deemed programme, evolving strategies, setting appropriate goals and targets, it is the line managers who have to implement programmes to give the organisation the aimed success. Much of the above discussions that have been on HRD pertain to the implementation process by line managers.

11.11 : HRD in Indian Libraries and Information Centres

Human Resources Development, as has been discussed above, does not seem to be operative in any library and information centre in India. Human resource aspects are handled, by and large, by parent organisations to which the L/IC is attached. The administrative departments deal with personnel, mostly in relation to salary and allowances, discipline and control, training and deputation to conferences, performance appraisal in a limited way, and a few others. Many of these developmental process are confined only to certain levels and do not percolate to dower levels. No HRD department, exclusively to take care of all human resource problems appears to be in existence in any library/information centre.

As libraries and information centres are growing, particularly with reference to collection and services, and sophistication in terms of computerisation and networking, it is necessary to give full attention to human resource development. Some of the aspects, among others that might help L7ICs to contribute substantially their share in supporting efforts towards socioeconomic activities, may include:

- Personnel planning
- Orientation, introduction to L/IC's goals, objectives, targets and activities
- Productivity, customer satisfaction
- Quality of products and services
- Acquisition of new knowledge and skills
- Task analysis for proper deployment of personnel
- Performance reviews and appraisal
- Motivational aspects
- Developmental supervision
- Counselling and monitoring

Professional education and training institutions also should share responsibilities to induct research in HRD; initiate efforts for plans and programmes to study the diversified requirements of personnel in libraries and information centres. Studies are necessary to assess the manpower needs for the present and future activities and regulate the supply of the different categories of personnel required. Quality and value added information systems and services and achievement of excellence are to be inculcated into the profession through

appropriate motivation programmes by professional associations and societies.

11.12 : Summary

Giving an overview of Human Resources Management, this unit has presented the following aspects:

- A historical perspective of human resources management and application to achieve corporate goals and objectives;
- Management of human resources in organisations at the macro and micro levels. The macro level expounds strategic planning and forecasting of manpower; and the micro deals with the implementation of plans and policies, procedure and rules laid down by the macro planning. The top management is involved in the former and the line managers operate at the executive levels;
- It is the personnel that are responsible for all the actions and activities of management evolved and executed in an organisation. Hence the most important aspect is human resources development.
- HRD is essential for an organisation to achieve success. It comprises a number of methods and techniques and organised through various means, mechanisms, instruments and systems.
- Gaining knowledge, acquiring new and innovative skills, competency building of employees at all levels of work, are basic function of human resources management. Alongside these competence, dedicated involvement, motivation, commitment are other aspects that require attention in HRD in an organisation.
- All the strategies, methods and techniques supported by mechanisms, instruments and systems, are applicable to managing human resources in libraries.
- Some of the aspects of human resources development in libraries and information' centres are described.

This unit gives a fairly detailed description of the different aspects of human resource planning as indicated below:

- Define human resource planning with reference to its nature and scope;
- Explain the need for human resource planning in organisations;
- Describe the elements of human resource planning viz. estimating manpower requirements, recruitment and selection of personnel, induction and deployment of new entrants, different aspects of personnel development;
- Explanation of methods and techniques that have been developed for application to the different elements of Human Resource Planning mentioned above. Some of them are relating to estimating personnel for recruitment and selection, induction, training and communication which pertain also to shaping organisational behaviour of employees and

building perspectives. Quality circles as a method of participative management is also briefly explained;

- Formulation of policies that guide planning is also explained;
- Finally the relevance of HRP in the context of Indian libraries and information is dealt with, indicating its value and importance in the years to come.

