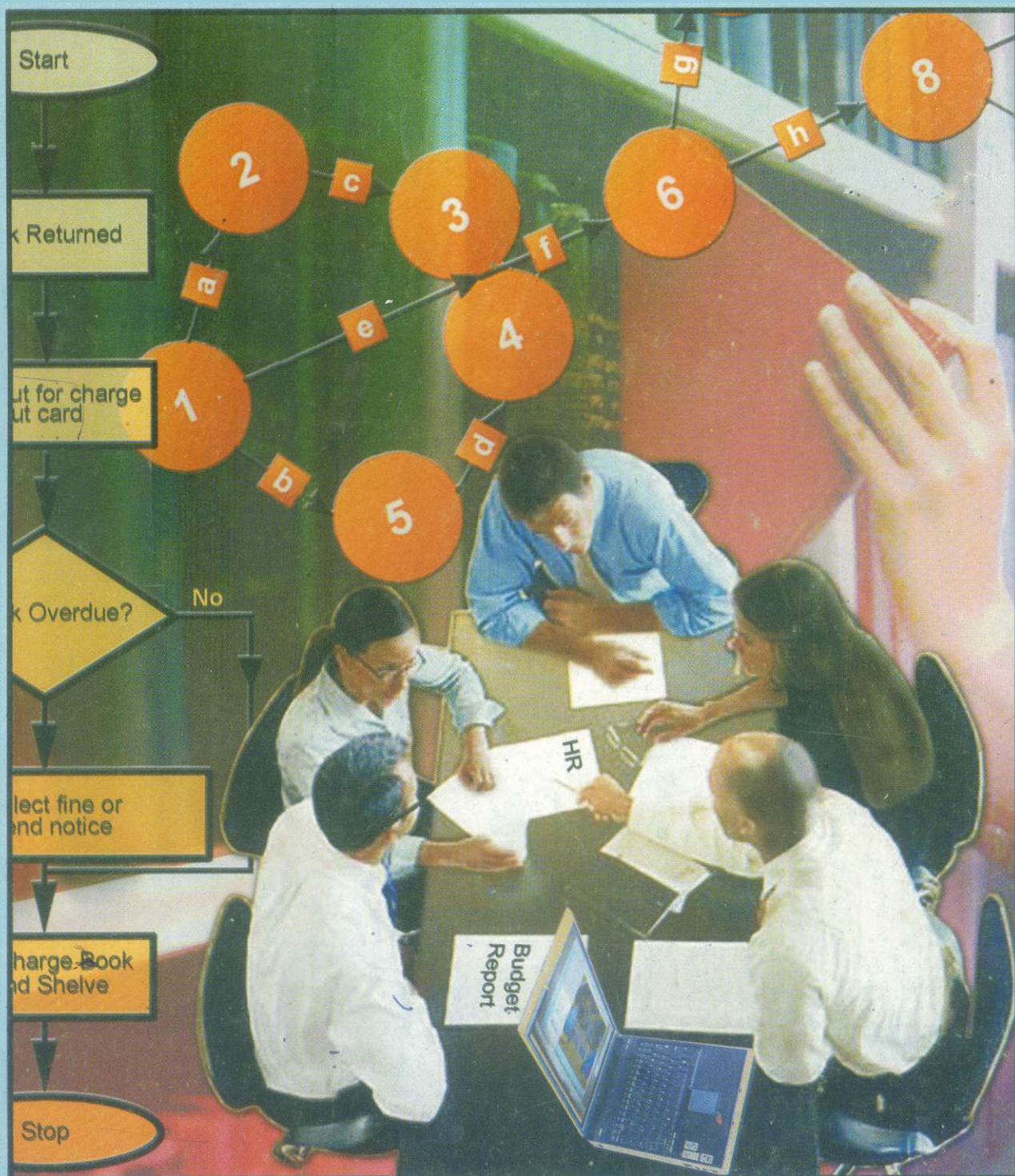




Master's Degree in Library and Information Science (MLIS)





MLI-102

**MANAGEMENT OF LIBRARY
AND INFORMATION CENTRES**

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MLI-102 MANAGEMENT OF LIBRARY AND INFORMATION CENTRES

Introduction

This course endeavours to provide management perspectives to the students. The objective is to provide basic skills and knowledge of managing libraries and information centres. Sound and intimate knowledge of modern management theories, principles, practices and skills in their application are required for managing the increasingly complex institutions of modern libraries and information centres. This course in five blocks, deals with the different facets of management and their relevance to the management of libraries and information centres. The course covers management theories and principles, system analysis and control, human resource, financial management and marketing of information products and services.

The first block viz., Management Perspectives, comprises four units, each of which handles a particular aspect. **Unit 1** presents a quick overview of the different approaches to management. It gives a detailed historical perspective of management theories. The unit highlights the significant features of each of the schools of thought that emerged over the years, including their limitations. **Unit 2** deals with management functions of planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling. **Unit 3** examines Total Quality Management concept. Techniques, tools and methodologies of TQM are discussed in detail in **Unit 4**.

Block 2 presents a few major aspects of operational management of libraries and information centres. **Unit 5** comprising systems approach, gives a detailed account of the principles and techniques of analysis of a system into its components to form sub-systems. It discusses how the methods of system analysis and design can be profitably used in library and information centres. **Unit 6** discusses the details of organisational routines of libraries and information centres with reference to work flow, sampling, analysis, time and motion studies. Techniques of work analysis are presented with illustrations. **Unit 7** contains a detailed account of the various techniques of monitoring and control techniques. **Unit 8** discusses various evaluation techniques to measure the performance of library and information systems and services.

Of all the resources available to the management of an organisation, human resource is the most vital and crucial one. Human resource is a complex entity that makes its management extremely difficult. Block 3 discusses different aspects of human resource management. Management and behavioural scientists have made extensive studies on the problem of Human Resources Management. This is discussed in detail in **Unit 9** of this block. **Unit 10** discusses theories of leadership that substantially contribute towards management quality. Human Resources Planning and Development constitutes the strategic methodology to utilise manpower prudently and efficiently to achieve tangible targets. Human resource planning and development aspects have been dealt with in details in **Unit 11**.

Block 4 comprises four units dealing with different aspects of financial management with particular reference to libraries and information centres. **Unit 12** highlights the special problems of libraries and information centres in their planning and preparation of budgets. Some of the basic aspects of financial management like budgetary terminology, objectives of budget preparation, types of budgets and factors associated with the preparation of budgets are explained. **Unit 13** deals with budgets as a control

system, especially in not-for-profit organisations like libraries and information centres.

Unit 14 goes into the costing techniques, especially costing of library and information products and services. **Unit 15** deals with cost analysis approaches and methods adopted for the purpose.

Block 5 comprising three Units deals with a fast developing but recently focused area of Marketing and Information products and services. **Unit 16** in this block discusses the marketing aspects of information as an economic commodity with its uncommon characteristics distinct from other goods and services. **Unit 17** examines marketing approaches and strategies with special reference to library and information products and services. **Unit 18** introduces the concept of e-marketing and discusses its relevance to the marketing of information products and services.



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Block 1

Management Perspectives

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UNIT 1 CONCEPTS AND SCHOOLS OF MANAGEMENT THOUGHT

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Concept of Management
- 1.3 Historical Perspective
- 1.4 Theory in Management
- 1.5 Classification of Management Theories
- 1.6 Classical Management Theory (1880s–1920s)
 - 1.6.1 Scientific Management
 - 1.6.2 Administrative Management
 - 1.6.3 Bureaucratic Organisation
 - 1.6.4 Criticisms on Classical Management Theory
- 1.7 Neo-Classical Theory
 - 1.7.1 Human Relations School
 - 1.7.2 Behavioural Schools
- 1.8 Modern Management Theory
 - 1.8.1 Systems Theory
 - 1.8.2 Contingency Theory
 - 1.8.3 Organisational Humanism
 - 1.8.4 Management Science
- 1.9 Other Schools of Thoughts, Styles and Approaches
- 1.10 Problems and Conflicts in Management Theories
- 1.11 Application of Management Theories in Library and Information Science Field
- 1.12 Summary
- 1.13 Answers to Self Check Exercises
- 1.14 Keywords
- 1.15 References and Further Reading

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit, you will be able to :

- know the historical development of schools of management thought;
- explain what a theory in management is;
- outline the classification of management theories;
- describe important schools of management, their contributions and limitations; elaborate problems and conflicting issues in management theory; and
- understand the application of management theories in library and information area.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Principles and theories provide the framework of science. Principles give rise to theory. Management is a soft science or a practical art. Its principles are derived from the working of industry, government, human psychology and social theories. Knowledge of the basic principles and theories of management helps in practicing management by way of increasing efficiency and effectiveness, and helps in avoiding mistakes.

Modern management thought has evolved over the years from contribution from various disciplines such as social psychology, behavioural science, operational research and systems theory, technology and economics. This has given rise to different approaches to the study of management science. These approaches include empirical approach; interpersonal and group behaviour approach; co-operative, social and socio-technical systems approach, systems approach, decision theory and operational research approach; contingency or situational approach, managerial roles approach and operational approach.

The purpose of studying various schools of management thought is to enable you to recognise and appreciate how developments in the field of management could contribute to current practices. An examination of these past and present approaches can help to discover the strengths and weaknesses of current managerial practices and finally enable you, as a potential manager of an information centre, to choose appropriate management styles. "During the brief history of management as a discipline, a number of more or less separate schools of management thought have emerged, some broad, some narrow in scope, and some quite specialized. Each sees management from its own viewpoint; none is comprehensive" (Dejon, 1978). These viewpoints can provide several perspectives. Firstly, people are at the helm of affairs and people are of prime importance, in all thinking about management. There have been different views about the nature of people's impact on organisations. Secondly, there were some historical settings in which certain ideas and approaches developed. Similar conditions may or may not be present today. Thirdly, there are many theories and approaches to management and each has some utility and some limitations. Hence, there is no single 'best' theory of management. Today's management is both a reflection of and a reaction to past management theories (Hitt, et al, 1979).

1.2 CONCEPT OF MANAGEMENT

A variety of definitions have been offered for the term management. It can mean different things to different people at different times. The term is derived from the verb which can mean: to organise, to control, to handle, to carry out for a purpose etc. There are different applications of the term management. It can be used to refer to the following aspects:

- As an **occupational group** i.e. a group of people performing managerial tasks and functions. It is used collectively to refer to all the individuals in the group.
- An **individual** who performs managerial functions or is a part of a group involved in the management functions.
- An **academic discipline**, an area of specialisation that imparts knowledge and skills in management.

- A **process** that involves performing a series of specific types of activities or functions.

Management is both a science and an art. Effective managers use scientific approach in making decisions. As a science it is concerned with establishing philosophies, laws, theories, principles, processes and practices which can be applied in various situations. However, management is not a hard core science like physics or chemistry. It has more in common with the social sciences like psychology and sociology. As an art, management is about carrying out organisational functions through people.

Management is as old as humanity itself, and is needed wherever there is organised human activity. It is needed for goods-producing and service-performing activities, in private and public organisations both large and small. Management is needed to reach organisational and personal objectives, to maintain balance between conflicting goals and to achieve efficiency and effectiveness.

Management can be broadly defined as working with people to determine, interpret and achieve organisational objectives by performing the functions of planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling. Management is a collection of processes such as decision-making, problem-solving and action-planning. These processes involve the management of resources viz. human, financial, material and time. People often use the term management to refer to administration. A clear cut distinction however, needs to be made here between management and administration. Management involves planning, designing, initiating actions and monitoring activities. In other words, it is a policy making, policy control and monitoring process. Administration on the other hand involves implementation of the policies, procedures, rules and regulations as set by the management.

1.3 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The history of management extends to several thousand years into the past. However, it is only since the late 19th century, that management began to be considered a formal discipline. In other words, the practice of management is as old as the human race but its theories and conceptual frameworks are of recent origin. Yet most of the contemporary management thoughts are a twentieth century phenomenon. Chronology of managerial accomplishments is depicted as Fig. 1.1 (vide Hodgetts and Attman, 1981).

Earliest example of development and use of management principles is recorded in Egypt, as early as 2900 BC, while using over one lakh men for 20 years to build pyramids. Other works such as Middle Eastern Ziggurats, the Chinese Great Wall, Middle American pyramids, and Persian roads and buildings are often cited for early use of management. Similarly, the Bible has a reference to the fact that Moses had hired his father-in-law as the first management consultant to help design the organisation through which Moses lead the Hebrews out of Egypt and governed the Hebrews.

Management ideas were also developed in China, Greek and Roman empires in the Middle Ages. Venice, which was known for its fighting power and production facilities, has been found to have used assembly-line techniques to outfit galley ships to go to wars during the 15th century. It is interesting to note that there was a facility in which ten ships could be completely outfitted and sent to sea within a few hours.

This early 'autocratic period' of management is characterised by the use of strategies like 'fear of punishment' and 'fear of God', absolute authority, coercion and force on the human side of management. In the 16th century Machiavelli wrote 'The Prince' in an attempt to gain favour with the ruler of an Italian city state and described the way that a good prince or leader should act. He propounded two basic approaches namely, 'love approach' and 'fear approach' as a basis for leadership and administration. Four important principles set forth by Machiavelli are concerning mass consent, cohesiveness, will to survive and leadership. The Roman Catholic Church, a power in feudal society, is the best example of a departmentalised organisation having heavy reliance upon power and authority rather than ability and leadership. These are only glimpses of management thought in early history. Most of them needed to be refined and synthesised through sound theoretical and conceptual frameworks to be called management principles.

Later, in the Age of Enlightenment and Renaissance, change of societal values, human worth and individual knowledge, ability, skill and accomplishments were acknowledged, but these alone were not enough to be a manager. Industrialism and the factory system of the early 19th century saw the use of management skills, assembly line operation and costing systems.

Self Check Exercise

- 1) What are the characteristics of the autocratic period of management?

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

- ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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1.4 THEORY IN MANAGEMENT

As mentioned in the introduction and historical perspective, management theories in the early period were not really theories, but some discrete practices or experiences. For that matter, management theories in the present century are also not totally free from certain problems. To become a theory, an experience or practice needs to undergo several modifications, syntheses and tests. For this purpose, a sound theoretical and conceptual framework is essential for a theory to take shape. The chaos caused by the proliferation of management theories is aptly called 'the management theory jungle' (Koontz, 1961) and a strong need for a unified and integrated theory of management was felt. A number of theoretical approaches with varying hypotheses, assumptions and propositions have emerged. Lack of adequate concept formation is considered a serious drawback in the development of a unified and integrated management theory. Part of the difficulty in the development of management concepts comes from the fact that since management is an applied science, it lacks coherent theoretical concepts of its own. Management scholars have borrowed and applied concepts from other disciplines. Thus, management theory has evolved in a symbiotic relationship to its related and supporting disciplines like mathematics, statistics and behavioural sciences, depriving the motivation to

revise its own conceptual framework independent of related disciplines. Moreover, management research has been kept psychologically and philosophically closer to practice than to theory.

Self Check Exercise

- 2) What are the difficulties in developing a unified and integrated management theory out of the management theory jungle?

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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1.5 CLASSIFICATION OF MANAGEMENT THEORIES

As mentioned earlier, there are several schools of thought in management. Apart from the 'autocratic' or 'authoritarian' or pre-scientific era (i.e., earlier to 1880) of the early period, several schools of management thought are identified and classified in several ways by experts. It is interesting to note that while early writings on management principles came from experienced practitioners, the more recent writings tend to come from academic theorists, some of whom have had no direct experience in organisational management.

During the history of management a number of more or less separate schools of management thought have emerged, and each sees management from its own viewpoint. Thus there are many ways of classifying management theories. Koontz has classified the management theories into the following six groups:

- i) The management process school
- ii) The empirical school
- iii) The human behavioural school
- iv) The social systems school
- v) The decision theory school
- vi) The mathematical school.

Adding one more style or approach of his own Evans discusses eleven basic styles cited by Herbert Hicks in his books "the management of organisations" (1967). Again leaving the early perspectives, Hitt and others (1979) classify management theories into three broad groups.

- i) Classical management theory
- ii) Neoclassical management theory
- iii) Modern management theory

Under each group a few schools of thought are identified. These three groups of schools of management thought, are currently in vogue and found adequate for the purpose.

1.6 CLASSICAL MANAGEMENT THEORY (1880s-1920s)

Classical management theory consists of a group of similar ideas on the management of organisations that evolved in the late 19th century and early 20th century. The Classical school is sometimes called the traditional school of management among practitioners. This school, evolved as a result of the industrial revolution, in response to the growth of large organisations and in contrast to the handicraft system that existed till then. It contains three branches, namely, scientific management, administrative principles and bureaucratic organisation. The predominant and common characteristic to all three branches is the emphasis on the economic rationality of management and organisation. The economic rationality of the individual employee at work assumes that people choose the course of action that maximises their economic reward. In other words, economic rationality assumes that people are motivated by economic incentives and that they make choices that yield the greatest monetary benefit. Thus, to get employees to work hard, managers should appeal to their monetary desires. These assumptions are based on a pessimistic view of human nature. While they are true to some extent, they also overlook some optimistic aspects. Classical theorists recognised human emotions but felt that human emotions could be controlled by a logical and rational structuring of jobs and work.

The primary contributions of the classical school of management includes (i) application of science to the practice of management (ii) development of the basic management functions and (iii) articulation and application of specific principles of management.

1.6.1 Scientific Management

Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856-1915) is considered to be the father of scientific management. Taylor was supported in his efforts by Henry Gantt, Frank and Lillian Gilberth and Harrington Emerson. All these disciples of Taylor became famous in their own right. Together with Taylor they revolutionised management thinking. Scientific management is the name given to the principles and practices, that grew out of the work of Frederick Taylor and his followers and that are characterised by concern for efficiency and systematisation in management. Four basic parts of a series of ideas developed by Taylor are as follows:

- i) Each person's job should be broken down into elements and a scientific way to perform each element should be determined.
- ii) Workers should be scientifically selected and trained to do the work in the designed and trained manner.
- iii) There should be good cooperation between management and workers so that tasks are performed in the designed manner.
- iv) There should be a division of labour between managers and workers. Managers should take over the work of supervising and setting up instructions and designing the work, and the workers should be free to perform the work themselves.

Thus, the scientific method provides a logical framework for the analysis of problems. It basically consists of defining the problem, gathering data, analysing the data, developing alternatives, and selecting the best alternative. Taylor believed that following the scientific method, would provide a way to determine the most efficient way to perform work. Instead of abdicating responsibility for establishing standards,

the management would scientifically study all facets of an operation and carefully set a logical and rational standard. Instead of guessing or relying solely on trial and error, the management should go through the time consuming process of logical study and scientific research to develop answers to business problems. Taylor believed, sincerely that scientific management practices would benefit both the employee and the employer through the creation of larger surplus, and hence the organisation would receive more income. He believed that management and labour had a common interest in increasing productivity. Taylor did a lot of work on improving management of production operations. He demonstrated in the classic case of the pig iron experiment at the Bethlehem Steel Company, how both output per worker and the daily pay of worker could be increased by employing scientific method.

Among the other significant contributors to scientific management was Henry L Gantt. Gantt was a contemporary and an associate of Taylor. He emphasised the psychology of the worker and the importance of morale in production. Gantt insisted that willingness to use correct methods and skills in performing a task was as important as knowing the methods and having the skills. Thus he saw the importance of the human element in productivity and propounded the concept of motivation as we understand today. Gantt devised a wage-payment system and developed a charting system or control chart for scheduling production operation which became the basis for modern scheduling techniques like CPM and PERT.

Frank and Lillian Gilbreth concentrated on time-and-motion study to develop more efficient ways of performing repetitive tasks. Time-and-motion study is a process of analysing jobs to determine the best movements for performing each task. Time-and-motion study and piece-rate incentives are two major managerial practices developed by scientific management theorists and widely used even today. The piece-rate incentive system envisages, that the largest amount of income goes to workers who produce the maximum output. In addition, scientific selection and training of workers, importance of work design and encouraging managers to seek the best way of doing a job, development of a rational approach to solving organisation problems and above all professionalisation of management, are some of the other contributions of the scientific management school.

Harrington Emerson in his classic book "Twelve Principles of Efficiency" (1913) set forth principles which state that a manager should carefully define objectives, use the scientific method of analysis, develop and use standardised procedures, and reward employees for good work.

Limitations of Scientific Management

The scientific management school is criticised on the following grounds. No man is entirely an 'economic man' and man's behaviour is dictated not only by financial needs, but by other needs like social needs, security needs and esteem needs. Hence, it may not always be true that economic incentives are strong enough to motivate workers. Secondly, there is no such thing as 'one best way' of doing a job so far as the component motions are concerned and hence time and motion study may not be entirely scientific. Two studies done by two different persons may time the same job entirely differently. Thirdly, separation of planning and doing a job and the greater specialisation inherent in the system tend to reduce the need for skill and produce greater monotony of work. Lastly, advances in methods and better tools and machines eliminated some workers, causing resentment from them.

1.6.2 Administrative Management

While pioneers of the scientific management tried to determine the best way to perform a job, those in the administrative management explored the possibilities of an ideal way to put all jobs together and operate an organisation. Thus, the emphasis of administrative or general management theory is on finding 'the best way' to run an organisation. This school of thought is also called administrative or traditional principles of management. Henry Fayol (1841-1925), a French industrialist, is the chief architect and the father of the administrative management theory. Other prominent exponents include Chester I Barnard and Colonel Lyndall Urwick (a British management expert).

Fayol's Unified Concept

As the managing director of a mining company, Fayol developed a unified concept of management and broad administrative principles applicable to general and higher managerial levels. He used the word 'administration' for what we call management. Fayol focused on managerial levels and the organisation as a whole. His perspective extended beyond the shop level and the physical production processes and was macro in nature. In his French book 'Industrial and General Management', he writes that all activities of business enterprises could be divided into six groups: technical, commercial, financial, accounting, security and administrative (or managerial). He focused on the managerial activity and propounded that fundamental functions of any manager consists of planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. He emphasised that the process of management is the same at any level of an organisation and is common to all types of organisations. He also presented the following 14 principles of management as general guidelines for management practice:

Division of Labour: Specialisation in the nature of work leads to division of labour. This results in efficiency in the use of labour.

Authority and Responsibility: These are directly related. Responsibility flows from authority. This authority is derived from the official position in the organisation and the personal factors such as intelligence, work attitude, personal traits, experience and the moral worth of the person holding the position.

Discipline: It is the respect for following laid down norms for achieving obedience, application, involvement as well as an outward mark of respect. Without discipline no unit can function properly. Authority, discipline and personality are closely related.

Unity of Command: This means that employees should receive orders from one superior authority only, i.e., accountability to one authority only. This authority is distributed among various levels in the hierarchy of positions in the organisation.

Unity of Direction: Activities in an enterprise must be organised to achieve set goals. Each group of activities with the same objective must have one authority and one plan.

Subordination of Individual to Organisational Interest: If this is not so it results in the malfunctioning of the organisation and gives rise to conflicts.

Remuneration: Employees work for remuneration; therefore, remuneration must be fair. It is an important motivating factor.

Distribution of Authority: This determines the extent of centralisation and dispersion of authority in the organisation. It depends on the philosophy and perception of individual organisations.

Scalar Chain: Positions in an organisation follow a “chain of superiors” from the highest to the lowest rank. Authority flows through the chain. This chain should not be short circuited unless following it is detrimental to the organisation. Such cases are not normal.

Order: Organisation of activities, materials and persons must be so arranged and related to make the organisation structure effective and efficient.

Equity: Kindness and fair play should be the basis of management in dealing with subordinates. This helps in commanding loyalty and devotion from the subordinates.

Stability of Tenure: Frequent change of persons affects an organisation badly. A high turnover of people constitutes both the cause and effect of bad management. Job insecurity affects the morale of employees.

Initiative: It is the keenness with which employees think and carry out a plan. Curbing initiative demoralises people and deprives them of job satisfaction.

Esprit de Corps: This fosters brotherhood among employees and forms a key factor in raising employees' stake in the growth of an organisation. This is an extension of the principle of unity of command.

Apart from a list of basic management principles, for achieving good organisation and dealing with the numerous facets of managing an organisation, he laid tremendous emphasis on logic, rationality and consistency. Taylor worked from the bottom of the hierarchy upward, whereas Fayol worked from the apex downwards, with 'management centered' philosophy.

Chester Barnard, who held a number of important public service posts including President of New Jersey Bell Telephone, has significantly influenced the theory and practice of management for nearly half a century, through his ideas expressed in his classic book 'the functions of the executive'. He believed that the most important function of a manager is to promote cooperative effort toward goals of the organisation. Cooperation depends on effective communication and a balance between rewards to, and contributions by, each employee.

Colonel L Urwick was a distinguished executive and management consultant in U.K. He wrote a book entitled 'the elements of administration' in which he tried to assemble the concepts and principles of Taylor, Fayol, Mooney, Railey and other early management theorists.

Inspired by Fayol, Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell propounded a new school of thought known as the management process school. They believe that management is a dynamic process of performing the functions of planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling. These functions and the principles, on which they are based, are believed to have general and universal applicability. Managers perform the same functions irrespective of their levels and the difference, if any, will be in the degree of complexity. These functions are applicable to all organisations wherever group effort is involved and the management theory is not culture bound. In other words these functions are all pervasive. For the same reason the management process approach is also called the universal approach.

Limitations of Administrative Management

Like the scientific management school, the administrative management school is also criticised on some grounds. Many of the principles of this school, including those of Fayol, are contradictory and have dilemmas. These principles are no better than

proverbs which give opposite messages. For example, the principle of unity of command contradicts the principle of specialisation or division of labour and the principle of limited span of control, contradicts that the number of organisational levels should be kept at a minimum. Further the principle of specialisation is internally inconsistent; for purpose, process, and place are competing modes of specialisation and to secure the advantages of any one mode, the organiser must sacrifice the advantages of the other three modes. All modes cannot be followed simultaneously while pursuing specialisation.

Secondly, these principles are based on a few case studies and they are not empirically tested. Thirdly, these principles are stated as unconditional statements and valid under all circumstances which is not practicable. More and more conditional principles of management are needed. Fourthly, these principles result in the formation of mechanistic organisation structures which are insensitive to employees' social and psychological needs. Such structures inhibit the employees' self actualisation and accentuate their dependence on superiors.

This school does not consider sociology, biology, psychology, economics, etc. as relevant to be included within the purview. Further, these principles are based on the assumption that organisations are closed systems. According to this school of thought employees tend to develop an orientation towards their own departments rather than towards the whole organisation. Lastly, the rigid structures created by these principles do not work well under unstable conditions.

1.6.3 Bureaucratic Organisation

As organisations became larger and more complex, the authoritarian-paternalistic pattern gave way to increased functional specialisation with many layers of middle and lower management for coordinating organisational effort. The result was a bureaucratic approach to organisational structure. With the intentions of eliminating managerial inconsistencies and as a reaction to managerial abuses of power, Max Weber propounded a set of principles to provide grounds for organising group efforts. The characteristics of bureaucratic organisation are division of labour by functional specialisation. He defined hierarchy of authority, a set of rules covering the rights and duties of employees, and a system of procedures for dealing with work situations, impersonal relations between people, and promotion and selection of employees based on technical competence. Often public services, like a large number of offices and employees postal services are cited as examples of bureaucratic organisations. The strength of such a bureaucratic organisation exists in its system of workable, set of rules, policies, and a hierarchy of authority.

The advantages of bureaucracy are many fold. Apart from consistent employee behaviour, it eliminates overlapping or conflicting jobs or duties and the behaviour of the system is predictable. In turn, consistency and precise job definitions help to avoid wasteful actions and improve efficiency. Further, bureaucracy has the advantages of basing its mode of hiring and promotion on merit, developing expertise in employees and assuring continuity in the organisation. In other words, bureaucracy emphasises the position rather than person, and the organisation continues even when individuals leave.

Despite the above advantages, bureaucratic organisation has some significant negative and side effects. Too much of red tapism and paperwork not only lead to unpleasant experiences, but also to inefficient operations. Since employees are treated impersonally and are expected to rely on rules and policies, they are unwilling to

exercise individual judgment and avoid risks. Consequently their growth, creativity, development, and even initiative suffer considerably. Machine like treatment makes employees, unconcerned about the organisation, and exhibit indifference regarding the organisation and job performance. Bureaucracy expects conformity in behaviour rather than performance.

1.6.4 Criticism of Classical Management Theory

Apart from the limitations and disadvantages of schools of classical theory discussed so far under each school, there are some general criticisms on schools of classical theory. The notion of rational economic person is often strongly criticised. The assumption that people are motivated primarily by economic reward might have been appropriate around 1900 A.D., and for a few people today. This assumption is not correct under the new circumstances where aspirations and the educational level of people have changed. Further, organisations have grown more complex and hence require more creativity and judgment from employees. Secondly the classical theory assumes that all organisations can be managed according to one set of principles and the same may not be valid. In other words, all pervasiveness of principles of management is also questioned. With changes in objectives, approaches, structures and environment, organisations may have to have some changes in principles.

The principles propounded by the classical theory are not vigorously scientific and thus did not stand the test of time. They did not add up to the consistent and complete body of theory. They reflected the observers' empirical observations and their logical deductions, rather than a precise theory built upon truly scientific research and evidence. However, the principles which were plausible and highly relevant to practitioners have been later developed into guidelines for managing business enterprises (Mc Farland, 1974, p 17). The traditionalists believed that management theories can be deduced from observing and analysing what managers do, and the empirical findings have been distilled to arrive at certain principles. Hence, they are criticised for carrying on the practices of the past and perpetuating outmoded practices and mediocrity. Yet, this is the leading school of thought and the most prevalent kind of management found in practice.

Self Check Exercise

- 3) Enumerate and critically examine the statement "the management process approach is a universal approach".

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

- ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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1.7 NEO-CLASSICAL THEORY (1920s-1950s)

The Traditional classical theory and its principles are attacked on the ground that they are contradictory, pay little attention to motivation, and make hasty pronouncements on what should be done, without examining the assumptions

underlying such pronouncements. As such, these principles do not represent the heart of knowledge of management but a small part of the total body of administrative management. As a reaction to schools of classical theory, which over emphasised the mechanical and physiological characters of management, came up the schools of neoclassical theory, with a more human-oriented approach and emphasis on the needs, drives, behaviours and attitudes of individuals. Another impetus was the development of the concepts of industrial psychology around the same time. Two important groups, namely, human relations school and behavioural schools emerged during 1920s and 1930s under the neoclassical theory. Names of two persons, often mentioned, from the period earlier to neoclassical theory, are Robert Owen and Andrew Ure. As Young Welsh factory owner, Robert Owen was first one to emphasise human needs of employees as early as 1800. Andrew Ure has incorporated human factors in his book 'The Philosophy of Manufactures' published in 1835. The human relations movement of the 1940s and the 1950s filled many gaps in knowledge about business organisations, but it did little to fill major gaps in management theory, or to create a new and viable theory of management.

1.7.1 Human-Relations School

Elton Mayo is considered as the father of the human relations movement, which later became organisational behaviour. The other two important co-researchers of this school are F.J. Roethlisberger and William J Dickson. They believed that organisations always involve interrelationships among members and that it is the manager's role to see that relationships are as conflict-free as possible, in order to accomplish the organisation's objectives. They believed that the human aspect of business organisations had been largely ignored. They felt that satisfaction of psychological needs should be the primary concern of the management.

Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson conducted studies, at the Hawthorne, Illinois plant of Chicago Western Electric Company, which became famous as the Hawthorne experiments or studies later. They felt that, if the best work environment could be determined (just as the best way to perform the job could be determined by scientific management), then workers would be more efficient and become less tired. They also felt the importance of evaluating the attitudes and reactions of workers to their jobs and their environment. They attempted through several experiments to determine the relationship between working conditions and productivity. They set up test groups, for which changes were made in lighting, frequency of rest periods, and working hours and control groups, for which no changes were made.

Mayo and others, in their initial lighting experiment, came to the conclusion that some factors other than light were responsible for increased productivity. From a follow up interview of employees, they realised that people were not leaving their feelings, attitudes, and emotions at home, and employees were not at work simply for economic benefit. But other dimensions also affected their performance. In a final experiment they discovered that the workers had developed their own idea of the level of output that was fair. This informal standard of behaviour, called a norm, was enforced by the work group to the point that output was restricted. Any worker who produced more than that number was pressurised by coworkers to comply with the norm.

Mayo and his colleagues arrived at two important conclusions: (i) existence of strong informal groups (ii) employees' behaviour at work is affected by non-economic factors. They revealed some inadequacies of the rational and structured approaches of classical theory and the fallacy of viewing all workers as rational and economic

beings. Thus evolved a social person view of employees from the Hawthorne studies.

As against the rational economic view, the social person view is that (i) individuals are motivated by social needs (ii) people obtain their sense of identity through interpersonal relationships (iii) because of industrial progress and routinisation, the work has become dissatisfying (iv) employees are more responsive to the social forces of peer groups than to incentives and controls of management (v) employees respond to provisions for their social needs and acceptance offered by management. The social person view of human relations school has necessitated managerial strategies for improving the human skills of the supervisors, replacing individual incentive plans by group incentive plans; focusing on employees' feelings and attitudes, and their effect on productivity rather than managerial functions. The concept of social manager has evolved, and the social manager assumes the role of helper and coach, and carries out human relations programs shunning a stern and aloof attitude.

This theory, virtually, looked beyond organisational factors (i.e., environmental factors) and aimed at as conflict-free inter-relationships, as possible, among members of the organisation. Drawing heavily from social psychology and individual psychology, this theory expected the manager to be a leader and supervisor of a rather tolerant (democratic and participative) type and considered every employee to be a unique socio-psychological being. The lesson of Hawthorne experiments was that the psychological needs of individuals have a significant impact on group performance and that employees often mis-state their concerns. As a corollary it was also learnt that when employees are given special attention, output is likely to increase regardless of the actual changes in the working conditions (Hawthorne Effect). In other words, the result supported the thesis that reasonable satisfaction of the needs and desires of employees will lead to greater output.

Human relations approaches laid greater emphasis on the work group and need for better communication between supervisors and workers. The Human relations movement is looked as a trend towards power equalisation. It is an attempt for reduction in the power and status differential between supervisors and subordinates. It is looked upon as a continuing reaction against the emphasis of programmed work, rigid hierarchical control and a high degree of specialisation of Taylorism. However, they did not reject all the classical ideas. The neoclassical writers believed that treating employees like individuals (neoclassical) would make them act according to the principles (classical). They said "treat employees as if they are important and give the workers the feeling of participation."

Limitations of Human Relation School

Human relations school has several limitations as well. It is considered to be a swing in the opposite direction of classical theory. In other words, they saw only human variables as critical and ignored other variables. Every organisation is made up of a number of diverse social groups with incompatible values and interests. These groups might cooperate in some spheres and compete and clash in others. It is practically impossible to satisfy everybody and turn the organisation into a big happy family.

This approach over-emphasises the importance of symbolic rewards which may not be appreciated by recipient's 'significant others' and underplays the role of material rewards. Further, the assumption about formation of informal groups is unrealistic and not very common. Informal groups can only make the worker's day more pleasant and not his repetitive, monotonous and uncreative task. Workers do not

come to the organisation to seek affection and affiliation. Techniques of human relations school try to play a trick on workers to create a false sense of happiness, and are not really concerned with their real well being. There is a difference between allowing workers to participate in making decisions and letting workers think that they are participating. In this sense, this approach is also production-oriented and not employee-oriented. The unqualified application of these techniques in all situations is not possible. For example, where secrecy of decision is required and when decisions have to be made quickly on emergent basis, this approach may not work. This approach makes an unrealistic demand on the supervisor and expects him to give up his desire for power. The assumptions, that the satisfied workers are more productive, and that improved working conditions and human relations lead to increased output may, not always be true. Above all, human behaviour is not the total field of concern of the manager.

Human relations movement, accepted scientific management's central goal of efficiency, but focused on individuals and on small-group processes rather than large organisations. It stressed communication, leadership and interpersonal relations, particularly between employees and their bosses. Like scientific management efforts, research in human relations, focused on the lower levels of organisation rather than on the middle and upper groups, and hence lacked comprehensive scope. Behaviour scientists became interested in companies as research sites, but they tended to use their findings to build their own disciplines, or to establish a science of human relations rather than a science of management. Thus the human relations movement accepted many of the assumptions of the scientific management thinkers, and it did not achieve a major breakthrough in management theory.

1.7.2 Behavioural Schools

Since the Hawthorne experiments, there has been an increased interest in an application of, behavioural sciences in management. The human relations approach has evolved into modern behaviourism. The term modern behaviourism refers to the current stage of evolution of the behavioural school of management, which gives primacy to psychological considerations, but treats fulfillment of emotional needs mainly as a means of achieving other primary economic goals. Much of the discussions under behavioural schools can as well be considered under organisational (modern) humanism in modern management theory. Important behavioural scientists, who contributed to gain insight in ways to achieve managerial effectiveness and developing techniques to utilize people more effectively in organisations, are Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, Frederick Herzberg, Rensis Likert, Kurt Lewin, Chester Barnard, Mary Parker Follett, George Homans and Warren Bennis. They had rigorous training in various social sciences and used sophisticated research methods. They regard the classical management theory as highly mechanistic, which tends to degrade the human spirit and is non-responsive to the human needs. As against overly specialised jobs, under-utilised people, too much control over employees with no scope to make decisions, and little concern about subordinates' needs for recognition and self-fulfillment, the behaviourists preferred more flexible organisation structures, with jobs built around the capabilities and aptitudes of average employees.

It is difficult to classify all these researchers as neoclassical theorists. Many of them should be considered as contributors to modern management theories in general, and social system theory and modern humanism theory in particular. Secondly, the behavioural school is a logical extension of human relations' school and both in turn

lead to social system theory and modern behaviourism. Hence, contributions and limitations of the human relations school and the behaviourism school overlap to a considerable extent. All of them are largely concerned with motivation. Theories concerning motivation are classified in many ways. They argued that the design of work has not changed enough to keep pace with changes in the needs of today's employees, and believed that employees today desire diverse and challenging work. They preferred participative and group decision-making, process of self direction and control instead of imposed control. They put forth the practical realistic model of human motivation, and stressed the situational constraints and social aspects of organisational and environmental changes.

Self Check Exercise

4) What are the contributions and limitations of the human relations school?

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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1.8 MODERN MANAGEMENT THEORY

Modern management theory highlights, the complexity of the organisation as well as individuals and the diversity of their needs, motives, aspirations and potentials. As a result, one time status or universal management principles are impracticable. The complexities require intricate managerial strategies for dealing with people and organisation. As against the rational economic man of the classical theory and the social person view of neoclassical theory, the complex employee view is the premises of modern management theory.

The complex employee view holds that people are both complex and variable. They have many motives, learn new motives through experience and motives vary from organisation to organisation and department to department. Complex interactions relate the employee and the organisation. There is no single managerial strategy that works for all people at all times. Managers can employ different strategies at different times and for different persons. Analytical tools may be useful while applying managerial strategies. Four important modern management theories arising out of the complex employee view, are systems theory, contingency theory, organisational humanism, and management science.

This stage of management theory represents the work of revisionist researchers combining streams of efforts in the behavioural sciences with those in mathematics, statistics, and the use of computers. Naturally many revisionists are behavioural scientists whose research extended beyond the human relations area. It is the powerful combination of systems theorists, operations research specialists, decision theorists, statisticians, computer experts, and others skilled in quantitative research and decision methods. Rigorous research and testing of propositions, using behavioural, statistical and mathematical tools, characterised this school of thought. This period is also called synthesis period.

As against the predominantly engineering-oriented quantitative theorists in classical theory, industrial psychologists together with sociologists and applied anthropologists who dominated the neoclassical theory, it is the revisionist researchers, who dominated the modern management theory and questioned old tenets, developed new hypotheses, and offered better explanations of organisational and managerial behaviour. The revisionist movement appears to have begun with Litchfield's propositions published in the first issue of *Administrative Science Quarterly* in 1956. They questioned principles developed by deductive reasoning in classical theory but did not discard all of the early theories. A logical extension of application of management knowledge into non-business areas such as education, government and health, is a significant contribution of the modern management theory.

It is interesting to note that the classical theory was organisation centered with emphasis on efficiency having process or functional approach, based on deductive evidence and descriptive research. Neoclassical theory had the person-centered approach, was increasingly experimental, and almost remained descriptive and highly deductive. On the other hand, revisionists used behavioural and quantitative tools and remained more inductive, experimental, rigorous and complete. According to the modern management school, management is an exercise in logic and applies itself to situations, that can be reduced to unitised measurements and handled with quantitative methods, where computers have an increasing role to play. (Fig. 1.2 depicts a tabular summary of contemporary contribution modern management vide Hodgetts and Altman, 1981, p.14-15).

1.8.1 Systems Theory

As noted earlier, the drawback of the classical theory and the neoclassical theory is emphasising one aspect at the cost of the other. The classical theory emphasised the 'task', 'structure' and 'efficiency' and the neoclassical theory emphasized 'people'. Systems theory has come up as via media with an integrated and holistic approach to management problems. This has emerged as a way of looking at the organisation as a whole. Chester Barnard, George Homans, Philip Selznick and Herbert Simon are some of the advocates of the systems theory.

A system is an entity made up of two or more interdependent parts that interact to form a functioning organism. An organisation, human body, a flower and a tree are examples of a system (anything and everything is a system). The phrase 'interdependent parts' is very important and means that a manager should not look for a single cause of a problem. A system can either be open or closed. An open system interacts with its environment. All biological, human and social systems are open systems and many physical and mechanical systems are closed systems. Traditional organisation theorists regarded organisation as closed systems, while modern view is to treat it as an open system, having constant interaction with its environment. In other words, an organisation is an open system that interacts regularly with external forces such as government agencies, customers and suppliers. These external forces have an impact on organisation practices.

The open system concept is the first part of the two parts of systems theory. The second part is the impact of changes within an organisation. The changes in one part of the organisation affect all other parts of the organisation. This interdependence complicates the manager's job. The boundaries of open systems are permeable or penetrable, flexible and changeable depending upon its activities. The function of the management is to act as a boundary-linking pin among the various subsystems within the organisational system.

Every system has flows of information, material and energy, and these inputs get converted into outputs of goods, services and satisfactions in the organisation. This process is called 'throughput'. This change process is synergistic. Synergy means that the output of a system is always more than the combined output of its parts. In other words, these interrelated parts become more productive when they act in cooperation and interaction, rather than in isolation.

A system adapts and adjusts to the changing conditions of its environment and exercises control over its operations through feedback. Information flows to appropriate people as feed back to carry out this function.

1.8.2 Contingency Theory

As indicated under the systems theory, today's organisations are quite complex and there can not be one correct managerial strategy that works in all situations. The contingency approach stresses the absence of a single best way to manage and emphasises the need for managerial strategies based on all relevant facts. In other words, each manager's situation must be viewed separately. Wide range external and internal factors must be considered and then the focus should be on the action that best fits the given situation. This approach, in a way attempts to integrate the various schools of management thought, otherwise it is obvious that the principles and concepts of various schools have no general and universal applicability under all conditions. The contingency approach suggests that managers need to be developed in skills, that are most useful in identifying the important situational factors. They should be able to identify which technique, in a particular situation, will best contribute to the attainment of management goals. In other words, managers should develop a sort of situational sensitivity and practical selectivity. Contingency approach is most applied in the activities of motivating, leading and structuring the organisation. The other potential areas of application include employee development and training, decisions of decentralisation, establishment of communication and control systems, and planning information decision systems. The implication of contingent theory on motivation is that, the behaviour results from individual reactions to important aspects of the environment, and individuals are motivated by influences around them. The implication on leadership is that managers must not only be kind and considerate to the subordinates, but also be flexible leaders and act at the right time. Contingency leadership, approaches and discusses the aspects of the leadership situation, that influence how a leader should behave. This theory says that organisation must be designed to fit its situation, particularly the organisations environment and the technology it uses. Researchers have found that the more complex and changing the environment, the more flexible the structure must be. Bureaucratic structure, like that of a manufacturing organisation, can be effective only in a stable, unchanging environment. An R & D organisation may find a more flexible structure to be most effective.

1.8.3 Organisational Humanism

This school of thought is an extension of behavioural schools of neoclassical theory and hence has much in common with behavioural schools. Some of the researchers like Chris Argyris, Douglas Mc Gregor and Abraham Maslow, mentioned under behavioural schools, are the propounders of organisational humanism or the modern behavioural school. The underlying philosophy of this school is that individuals need to use all of their capacities and creative skills at work as well as at home. This 'self-actualizing view' is the basis of this school. According to this view, motives fall into

categories, that can be arranged according to their importance, and employees seek to mature (self-actualise) on the job and are capable of being so. Employees are primarily self-motivated and self-controlled and react negatively to externally imposed controls. If allowed to become self-actualised, employees will integrate the goals with those of the organisation. Self-actualization refers to reaching one's potential i.e., ultimate use of personal skills.

Exponents of this theory, felt that rational design of organisations, leads to highly specialised and routine jobs, in which employees cannot use all their creative and motivated potential. Hence, unnecessary rules, rigidly designed jobs and inflexible supervision should be avoided and in consistence with human nature. Employees should have greater freedom and satisfaction at work. Self-actualised employees, are highly motivated and produce organisational benefits, that cannot be achieved in the bureaucratic organisation. The best role for a manager is to challenge employees, develop their decision making skills, and allow them to seek responsibility. Humanist approach suggests, to rely on the worker's internal motivation (i.e., desire to grow) as against external pressures (social acceptance and organisational play), suggested in classical and neoclassical theories. Organisational humanism focuses on individual needs and the satisfaction of these needs at work.

Organisational humanism is criticized on the ground that it is difficult to believe that every employee seeks self-actualisation at work. Organisational humanists say that there are many ways in which employees can entertain themselves at work and make their jobs interesting.

1.8.4 Management Science

Management Science should not be confused with scientific management of classic theory. However, the management science approach, also known as quantitative approach, has evolved from the early application of some of the scientific management techniques of classical theorists. Because of the complexities of organisations discussed earlier, today's managers are required to have more and better information in order to make effective decisions. The management science approach proposes the use of quantitative technique to aid decision making. Despite voluminous data to be analysed and sophisticated computations to be done, a wide variety of quantitative tools have been developed and high-speed computers deployed in the analysis of information.

This approach gained momentum during the Second World War, when interdisciplinary groups of scientists, called Operations Research Teams, were engaged to seek solutions to many complex problems of war. These teams constructed mathematical models to simulate real life problems, and by changing the values of variables in the model, analysed the effect of changes and presented a rational basis for decision makers. Tools such as linear programming, queuing theory, simulation models, CPM, PERT, inventory-control and quality control tools were extensively used in this approach. Thus the focus of management science or quantitative approach is on making objective and rational decisions. Objective rationality implied an ability and willingness to follow a reasoned, unemotional, orderly and scientific approach, in relating means with ends and in visualising the totality of the decision environment. It is an attempt to rationalise and quantify the managerial process.

This approach facilitated disciplined thinking, achieving precision and perfection, by expressing relationships among variables and facts in quantitative terms. While this approach has found wide applications in planning and control activities, not all

managerial processes can be rationalised and quantified. The area such as organising, staffing and leading which are more human than technical in nature, found this approach not so beneficial and this is the major limitation of these tools.

Lastly, it can be seen that the most dramatic developments in management theory and practice have occurred since 1900. The modern management theory has provided few key concepts, like looking at organisations as open systems, having contingency basis for managerial actions, considering a variety of individual needs in designing organisations, and use of a wide variety of quantitative tools to aid managerial decisions.

Self Check Exercise

5) What are the bases and assumptions of the theory of organisational humanism?

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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1.9 OTHER SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT, STYLES AND APPROACHES

As noted in the beginning, Evans (1976) discusses the following twelve basic styles of management and organisational thought (after adding one more style to the 11 styles of Herbert Hicks). These are traditional, empirical, human relations, decision theory, mathematical, social systems, formalism, spontaneity, participative, challenge-response, directive and checks and balances approaches or styles. Of these styles, human relations school has already been discussed explicitly. The traditional style, is the same as administrative management of classical theory. The empirical style shares a number of basic premises of traditional style and emphasizes the case study approach. The essence of this style is that the practitioners do enunciate general guidelines for other or later managers.

The decision-theory school concentrates on logic and the rational process involved in decision making and believes that the more rational the decision is, the more efficient and, effective the organisation will be. This is in effect the same as the quantitative methods discussed under management science of modern management theory. The mathematical approach does not differ much from the decision-theory school and it is part of or even same as the management science school. The social systems school, is sociologically oriented and emphasises group and individual behaviour, in terms of cultural relationships, and then, looks at the ways in which these behavioural patterns interlock, in a miniature social system. These aspects are covered under the behavioural schools of neoclassical theory.

The school of formalism is the same as the bureaucratic management of classical theory. It believes that the bureaucracy, with clearly defined jobs and highly formalized structure of organisation, maintains the system and provides the services. The school of spontaneity, which draws heavily from social psychology, group dynamics and

psychological disciplines, opposes the bureaucracy and emphasises the creative ability of individuals. This is a part of the behavioural school of neoclassical theory. The participative school, is also a part of the behavioural school, and emphasises the need for opportunity to participate in the decision making process. The school of challenge-response, is yet another extension of behavioural school, which takes the participative approach further, to allow freedom to individuals to face challenges and come out with responses. Consequently, this approach provides enormous opportunity for individuals to grow. The directive school is an extension of scientific management of classical theory. It believes that people need to be told what to do. Hence, it is opposite of the challenge-response school. The school of checks and balances, takes the administrative management school of classical theory, one step further by prescribing that there must be adequate checks and balances in the system, so that no individual or segment, of the organisation, is able to become dominant enough to take over control.

In this way, there are many more schools of thought propounded in the literature of management, but in essence all of them can be fit into the schools of thought discussed so far.

1.10 PROBLEMS AND CONFLICTS IN MANAGEMENT THEORIES

It has already been observed that there are contradictory and conflicting arguments in management theories, and hence they are no more than proverbs. The problem is how a practitioner must choose his approach. Alternatively, is there any way to synthesise a unified management theory, from among the diffused theories or the jungle of approaches. As discussed in the beginning of this unit, revisionists are aiming for a high-level, comprehensive, integrated theory that would bring order to the theory jungle. Their theory and methods are colliding at certain points with those of the earlier scientific management (classical theory) and human-relations (neo-classical theory) movements. It also appears that unification of different schools of thought, of the theories in management, is unlikely, and each will maintain its view point. The reasons for such a conclusion lie in the problems of semantics (everyone saying the same thing but using different terminology). One can notice the differences in definitions of management and the tunnel vision of each school, to see its own point of view.

As far as practitioners are concerned, there is no rational basis to choose a style or approach. Each approach depends upon a special knowledge of concepts from different fields of study. Probably, each individual may have to assess themselves and their environment, and make a choice of one or more approaches that suit them. Evans cites the example of the technical processing work of libraries, as best suited to the school of challenge-response, and says that the 'most successful managers select elements from various schools that fit their personalities'. As a matter of fact, practicing managers are basically unaware of, or less concerned, about management's division into schools. They give different emphasis, to problems in different situations, and draw together, what they know about management and what is most appropriate. In other words, the schools of thoughts, in management, are transcending into an electric stage as far as modern managers are concerned.

Another basic problem of the management theory is to provide, adequate explanations and predictions, in subject matter, that is subjected to rapid and extensive change.

Management theories have to be dynamic, and embrace a number of upcoming subjects and concepts.

Yet another problem inherent in the applied science nature of management, is that of separating the managerial implications from non managerial implications, when inputs are taken from the fields, like organisation theory, decision theory, personality theory, game theory, information theory, communication theory, learning theory, group theory and motivation theory. The problem is to demonstrate and support, conclusions applicable to management theory.

The recent trend is towards greater attention to comparative management theory, which emphasises cross-cultural study as well as variations within a given culture i.e., across the boundaries between nations or cultural groupings of nations, and in different organisational or administrative contexts like schools, hospitals, libraries, etc., within a given culture.

1.11 APPLICATION OF MANAGEMENT THEORIES IN LIBRARY AND INFORMATION SCIENCE FIELD

There are not many attempts to examine the environment of libraries and information centres as organisations to discern the prevailing styles of management. There are also no efforts made to see the effect and application of various schools of thought. However, Evans makes an attempt to see the development of library management as a parallel to development of schools of management theories. He finds the same pattern in library management theory, as that in business, with starting point at a much later time in library management theory. In other words, he identifies three basic periods, namely, Pre-1937, scientific (1937-1955) and human relations (1955-present) periods.

During the pre-1937 period, libraries had been run with the traditional rather conservative approach. Libraries had small collections and showed little concern for economy or cost.

As a result there was little change in the area of library management. Emphasis was on following past practice and what other libraries were doing.

Scientific (1937-1955) period saw libraries, with large collections, staff and budget, with a concern for efficient operation. Costing, use of mechanized equipment like punched and edge-notched cards, and studies on technical services and cataloguing became common. There were attempts to use findings of scientific management and operations research techniques, developed during World War II. The second part of scientific management extended till mid 1960s, when use of computers and systems analysis in library situations began. True to the spirit of scientific management, this period emphasised activities and work flow rather than people.

The human-relations period (1955-present) has picked up a few concepts of Mayo and his followers but not applied them in the manner Mayo might have expected. Democratic and participative administration, use of committees and apparent involvement decision making are some of the concepts heard in this era.

As suggested, in case of theories of management, Evans suggests the need of unified theory of library management. The above attempt of Evans looks like wishful thinking, and one cannot clearly see different eras of management theory in librarianship.

There is very little evidence to see parallels of traditional autocratic approach, economic rationality of classical theory, social person view of neoclassical theory and complex person view of management. At the most, scant attention of librarians, particularly researchers, has been recently drawn towards application of systems theory, quantitative techniques and behavioural sciences to library and information centre management.

1.12 SUMMARY

Though practice of management existed thousands of years ago, most of them needed to be refined and synthesized to call them management principles. The early 'autocratic period' of management is characterised by the use of absolute authority, coercion and force, with strategies like 'fear of God'. The history of Management as a discipline is traced from the 19th century. Development of a unified and integrated management theory out of 'the management theory jungle' has some difficulties like applied science nature of the subject, lack of coherent theoretical concepts of its own and heavy reliance on concepts borrowed from other disciplines. A number of separate schools of management thought have emerged since the end of the 19th century and each sees management from its own viewpoint. There are many ways of classifying these theories or schools. One broad way of grouping management theories is to group them as classical, neo-classical and modern management theories. The classical management theory is referred to the period between 1880s and 1920s. This phase consists of Scientific management of F. W. Taylor and his followers, Administrative management of Henry Fayol and others, and Bureaucratic organisation of Max Weber. The classical theory emphasised the economic rationality of management and organisation, and suggested to determine the best way to perform a job. This theory is criticised for its assumption that people are motivated primarily by economic reward.

The Neo-classical theory, which is identified with the period from 1920s to 1950s, is concerned with the human oriented approach and emphasised the needs, drives, behaviours, and attitudes of people. The human relations school together with (early) behavioural schools constitutes this group. The social person view of employees is the basis of this set of schools. The famous Hawthorne experiment conducted by Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson is a milestone in the endeavours of this school. Several behavioural scientists including Maslow, Mc Gregor, Argyris, Herzberg and Likert have contributed to this school as well as to organisational humanism school under the modern management theory. This school is criticised for its over emphasis on human variables and symbolic rewards which may not be appreciated by the recipient's 'significant others'.

The complex employee view has become the basis of modern management theory which began around 1950s (more particularly with revisionists movement propounded by Litchfield in Administrative Science Quarterly in 1956). This group tried to test the views of earlier schools and accept them selectively. In the process it has made use of many tools like computers and mathematical techniques and theories from other disciplines like systems theory, decision theory, behavioural science, etc. Four important schools in this group are systems theory, contingency theory, organisational humanism and management science.

There are many more names of schools of management thoughts in the literature of management, but most of them substantially overlap one another. There are also problems in synthesising a unified theory of management.

1.13 ANSWERS TO SELF CHECK EXERCISES

- 1) This early 'autocratic period' of management is characterised by use of strategies like 'fear of punishment' and 'fear of God', absolute authority, coercion and force on the human side of management. For example, in the 16th century Machiavelli wrote 'The Prince' in an attempt to gain favour with the ruler of an Italian city state and described the way that a good prince or leader should act. One of the two basic approaches propounded by him is the 'fear approach' as basis for leadership and administration. The Roman Catholic Church, a power in feudal society is the best example of a departmentalised organisation having heavy reliance upon power and authority rather than ability and leadership. These are only glimpses of management thought in early history.
- 2) The chaos caused by the proliferation of management theories is aptly called 'the management theory jungle' (Koontz, 1961) and a strong feel for a unified and integrated theory of management is felt (McFarland, 1974, p II). A number of theoretical approaches with varying hypotheses, assumptions and propositions have emerged. Lack of adequate concept formation is considered a serious drawback in the development of a unified and integrated management theory. Part of the difficulty in the development of management concepts comes from the fact that management is an applied science, it lacks coherent theoretical concepts of its own and management scholars have borrowed and applied concepts from other disciplines. Thus management theory has evolved in a symbiotic relationship to its related and supporting disciplines like mathematics, statistics and behavioural sciences depriving the motivation to devise its own conceptual framework independent of related disciplines. Moreover, management research has kept psychologically and philosophically closer to practice than to theory.
- 3) Inspired by Fayol, Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell propounded a new school of thought known as the management process school. They believe that management is a dynamic process of performing the functions of planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling. These functions and the principles on which they are based, are believed to have general and universal applicability. Managers perform the same functions irrespective of their levels and the difference, if any, will be in the degree of complexity. These functions are applicable to all organisations where ever group effort is involved and the management theory is not culture bound. In other words these functions are all pervasive. For the same reason the management process approach is also called the universal approach.

Administrative management school is strongly criticised for its emphasis on rational economic person and lack of concern about motivating workers. The assumption that people are motivated primarily by economic reward might have been appropriate around 1900 A.D., and for a few people today. This assumption is not correct under the new circumstances where aspirations and educational level of people have changed. Further, organisations have grown more complex and hence require more creativity and judgment from employees.

Many of the principles of this school including those of Fayol are contradictory and have dilemmas. These principles are no better than proverbs which give opposite messages. For example, the principle of unity of command contradicts the principle of specialisation or division of labour and the principle of limited

span of control contradict that the number of organisational levels should be kept at a minimum. Further the principle of specialisation is internally inconsistent; for purpose, process, and place are competing modes of specialisation and to secure the advantages of any one mode, the organiser must sacrifice the advantages of the other three modes. All modes cannot be followed simultaneously while pursuing specialisation.

Further, these principles are based on a few case studies and they are not empirically tested. Moreover, these principles are stated as unconditional statements and valid under all circumstances which is not practicable. More and more conditional principles of management are needed. In addition, these principles result in the formation of mechanistic organisation structure which are insensitive to employees' social and psychological needs. Such structure inhibits the employees' self actualisation and accentuates their dependence on superiors.

The assumption of this theory that all organisations can be managed according to one set of principles may not be valid. In other words, all pervasiveness of principles of management is also questioned. With changes in objectives, approaches, structures and environment, organisations may have to have some changes in principles.

- 4) Elton Mayo, FJ. Roethlisberger, William J Dickson and others who propounded the human relations theory believed that organisations always involve interrelationships among members and that it is the manager's role to see that relationships are as conflict free as possible in order to accomplish the organisation objectives. They believed that the human aspects of business organisations had been largely ignored. They felt that satisfaction of psychological needs should be the primary concern of the management.

Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson conducted studies at the Hawthorne, Illinois, plant of Chicago Western Electric Company which became famous for the Hawthorne experiments or studies later. They attempted through several experiments to determine the relationship between working conditions and productivity. They set up test groups, for which changes were made in lighting, frequency of rest periods and working hours and control groups, for which no changes were made.

Mayo and others in their initial lighting experiment came to the conclusion that some factors other than light were responsible for increased productivity. From a follow up interview of employees, they realised that people were not leaving their feelings, attitudes, and emotions at home and employees were not at work simply for economic benefit. But other dimensions also affected their performance. In a final experiment they discovered that the workers had developed their own idea of the level of output that was fair. This informal standard of behaviour, called a norm, was enforced by the work group to the point that output was restricted. Any worker who produced more than that number was pressurised by co-workers to comply with the norm.

Mayo and his colleagues arrived at two important conclusions: (i) existence at strong informal groups (ii) employees' behaviour at work is affected by non economic factors. So revealed some inadequacies of the rational and structured approaches of classical theory and the fallacy of viewing all workers as rational and economic beings. Thus evolved a social person view of employees from Hawthorne studies.

As against the rational economic view, the social person view is that (i) individuals are motivated by social needs (ii) people obtain their sense of identity through interpersonal relationships (iii) because of industrial progress and routinisation, the work has become dissatisfying (iv) employees are more responsive to the social forces of peer groups than to incentives and controls of management (v) employees respond to provisions for their social needs and acceptance offered by management. The social person view of human relations school has necessitated managerial strategies for improving the human skills of the supervisors, replacing individual incentive plans by group incentive plans, focusing on employees' feelings and attitudes and their effect on productivity rather than managerial functions. The concept of social manager has evolved and the social manager assumes the role of helper and coach and carries out human relations programs shunning a stern and aloof attitude.

This theory virtually looked beyond organisational factors (i.e., environmental factors) and aimed at as conflict-free inter-relationships as possible among members of the organisation. Drawing heavily from social psychology and individual psychology this theory expected a manager to be a leader and supervisor of a rather tolerant (democratic and participative) type and considered every employee to be a unique socio-psychological being. The lesson of Hawthorne experiments was that psychological needs of individuals have a significant impact on group performance and that employees often misstate their concerns. As a corollary it was also learnt that when employees are given special attention, output is likely to increase regardless of the actual changes in the working conditions (Hawthorne effect). In other words, the result supported the thesis that reasonable satisfaction of the needs and desires of employees will lead to a greater output.

Human relations approaches laid greater emphasis on the work group and need for better communication between supervisors and workers. Human relations movement is looked as a trend toward power equalisation. It is an attempt for reduction in the power and status differential between supervisors and subordinates and looked upon as a continuing reaction against the emphasis of programmed work, rigid hierarchical control and a high degree of specialisation of Taylorism. However, they did not reject all the classical ideas.

Human relations school has several limitations as well. It is considered to be a swing in the opposite direction of classical theory. In other words, they saw only human variables as critical and ignored other variables. Every organisation is made up of a number of diverse social groups with incompatible values and interests. These groups might cooperate in some spheres and compete and clash in others. It is practically impossible to satisfy everybody and turn an organisation into a big happy family.

This approach over-emphasises the importance of symbolic rewards which may not be appreciated by recipient's 'significant others' and underplays the role of material rewards. Further, the assumption about formation of informal groups is unrealistic and not very common. Informal groups can only make the worker's day more pleasant, and not his repetitive, monotonous and uncreative task. Workers do not come to the organisation to seek affection and affiliation. Techniques of human relations school try to play a trick on workers to create a false sense of happiness and are not really concerned with their real well being. There is a difference between allowing workers to participate in making decisions and letting workers think they are participating. In this sense, this approach is

also production-oriented and not employee-oriented. The unqualified application of these techniques in all situations is not possible. For example where secrecy of decision is required and when decisions have to be made quickly on emergent basis, this approach may not work. This approach makes an unrealistic demand on the supervisor and expects them to give up their desire for power. The assumption that the satisfied workers are more productive and improved working conditions and human relations lead to an increase in output may not always be true. Above all, human behaviour is not the total field of concern of the manager.

Human relations movement accepted scientific management's central goal of efficiency, but focused on individuals and on small-group processes rather than large organisations. It stressed communication leadership, and interpersonal relations, particularly between employees and their bosses. Like scientific management efforts, research in human relations focused on the lower levels of organisation rather than on the middle and upper groups and hence lacked the comprehensive scope. Behaviour scientists became interested in companies as research sites, but they tended to use their findings to build their own disciplines, or to establish a science of human relations movement accepted many of the assumptions of the scientific management thinkers, and it did not achieve a major breakthrough in management theory.

- 5) The underlying philosophy of organisational humanism or modern behavioural school is that individuals need to use all of their capacities and creative skills at work as well as at home. This 'self-actualising view' is the basis of this school. According to this view, motives fall into categories that can be arranged according to their importance and employees seek to mature (self-actualise) on the job and are primarily self-motivated and self-controlled and react negatively to externally imposed controls. If allowed to become self-actualised, employees will integrate their goals with those of the organisation. Self-actualisation refers to reaching one's potential i.e., ultimate use of personal skills.

Exponents of this theory felt that relational design of organisations leads to highly specialised and routine jobs in which employees cannot use all their creative and motivated potential. Hence, unnecessary rules, rigidly designed jobs and inflexible supervision should be avoided and in consistent with human nature employees should have greater freedom and satisfaction at work. Self-actualised employees are highly motivated and produce organisational benefits that cannot be achieved in the bureaucratic organisation. The best role for a manager is to challenge employees, develop their decision making skills, and allow them to seek responsibility. Humanist approach suggests to rely on the worker's internal motivation (i.e., desire to grow) as against external pressures (social acceptance and organisational play) suggested in classical and neoclassical theories. Organisational humanism focuses on individual needs and the satisfaction of these needs at work.

1.13 KEY WORDS

Administrative Management : This approach seeks to systematically study the management process. Functions that managers perform and effective principles of management have been developed.

- Autocratic Leader** : A person who tells subordinates what to do and expects to be obeyed without question. A leadership style in which practically all authority centres in the leader.
- Behavioural School of Management** : Also known as the behavioural sciences approach, the approach applies psychological and sociological theories, methods and techniques to the study of interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects of managing. It is primarily concerned with human psychology, motivation, and leadership as distinct from simple mechanical efficiency.
- CPM (Critical Path Method)** : A planning and control technique that involves the display of a complex project as a network with one time estimate used for each step in the project.
- Decision Making** : The process of generating and evaluating alternatives and making choices among them.
- Delegation** : The process of assigning responsibility along with the needed authority.
- Democratic Leader** : A person who tries to do what the majority of subordinates desire.
- Empathy** : The ability to identify with the various feelings and thoughts of another person.
- Formal Organisation** : An organisation with a well defined structure, clearly specified jobs for members, and a hierarchy of objectives.
- Function** : A type of work activity that can be identified and distinguished from other work.
- Gantt Chart** : A two dimensional graph with time on the horizontal axis and a 'listing of the parts of a program on the vertical axis.
- Hawthorne Effect** : The influence of behavioural researches on the people they study.
- Human Relations Movement** : The trend toward treating satisfaction of psychological needs as the primary concern of management.
- Laissez-faire Leadership** : A leadership style in which the leader exercises very little control or influence over group members.
- Linear Programming** : A mathematical technique that attempts to allocate limited or scarce resources among competing demands in an optimum way.
- Management Principles** : Guides for managerial action. They are fundamental truths of organisation and management.

Management Functions	: The major components of a manager's job. They include planning, organisation, motivating and controlling.
Mathematical Models	: A mathematical equation(s) that defines and represents the relationship among elements of a system.
Modern Behaviourism	: The current stage of evolution of the behavioural school management, which gives primacy to psychological considerations but treats fulfillment of emotional need mainly as a means of achieving other primarily economic goals.
Motivation	: The willingness to put forth effort in the pursuit of goals.
Organisational Structure	: The formal relationship among groups and individuals in the organisation.
Participative Leader	: A person who involves subordinates in decision making but may retain the final authority.
PERT (Programme Evaluation and Review Technique)	: A planning and control technique that involves the display of a complex project as a network of events and activities with three times estimates used to calculate the expected time for each activity.
Simulation	: A technique for experimenting with a real world situation through an artificial model that represents that situation.
Queuing Models	: A class of mathematical models useful for determining the optimum number of service facilities.
Synergism	: The cooperative action of two or more persons working together to accomplish more than they could working separately.
Time Study	: The systematic measurement and analysis of the time required to do work.

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UNIT 2 MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

Structure

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2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit, you will be able to :

- understand the five functions of Management — Planning, Organising, Staffing, Leading and Controlling;
- correlate these functions to library management;
- apply the relevant theories and principles behind each function in the day-to-day management of libraries; and
- test-audit the existing management practices in a given organisation.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier unit you have been introduced to the concept of management and various schools of thought that emerged over the years. In this unit we will deal with the functions of management viz., Planning, Organising, Staffing, Leading and Controlling.

The subject of management can be studied by following different approaches. But going by the functions of management, following the operational approach is more logical and helpful. Managers engage in certain basic activities that are often referred as functions of management. The five managerial functions are:

- Planning – involves decision on the objectives to be pursued in future and what to do to achieve those objectives;
- Organising – refers to grouping activities, assigning activities, and providing the authority necessary to carry out the activities;
- Staffing – covers forecasting human resource requirements, recruiting, selecting, training, selecting and developing human resources;
- Leading – directing and channeling human behaviour towards accomplishment of objectives;
- Controlling – establish standards and measure performance against objectives and take corrective measures, if deviations are there.

2.2 PLANNING

A plan is a well-thought-out scheme or programme made in advance and complete in all aspects, that sets the objective of the group and the way it is to be achieved by marshalling the financial, material and manpower resources.

2.2.1 Principles of Planning

Planning provides a total scenario. It is a blueprint for action. It aims at overcoming any uncertainty imposed by fluctuations, emphasises objectives, aids control and helps attain objectives economically and according to a schedule. Successful planning consists of setting objectives, premises, choosing the course of action, making subordinate/unit plans and budgeting. Planning does not end with overall scenario building, but proceeds to determine the inter and intra-relationships of various factors, both internal and external. Different types of plans are made, such as long-term, short-term, contingency and departmental. The planning process can also be considered in terms of (a) strategic planning, (b) operational planning, and (c) task programming. Strategic planning involves (a) setting goals, (b) specifying objectives,

(c) identifying environmental forces that effect activities and resources, (d) framing policies and strategies, (e) taking care of challenges of change, and (f) preparing strategic plans of action. Operational planning deals with formulation of detailed plans for actual implementation of the strategic plan by creating the requisite organisation, acquiring resources, their allocation and utilisation. There could be more than one operational plan. Task programming consists of analysing each operation in the operational plan as a specific task or activity and specifying procedures and resources required for completing each task.

Good planning is based on certain principles. The most important of these are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs:

Principle of Commitment

Long-range planning reduces uncertainty and helps in coping with the inherent ambiguity of management itself. A long-range plan commits the policies and resources over the entire period of plan/operation. Thus today's decision will also have futuristic effects. For instance, a large investment on computers for information processing made today, commits the funds as well as information processing policy for a fairly long period of time to come.

Short-range plans are meant to meet near-time objectives within the framework of the overall plan. Planning is effective only when short-range plans form an integral part of the long-range plan and different short-range plans are co-ordinated properly.

Principle of Flexibility

A plan should be flexible. This enables easy adjustment to changes and better chances of survival in a crisis. A decision to choose modular construction for a library building is a built-in flexibility in library planning.

Principle of Adaptability

A constant review of plans indicates whether the enterprise activities are moving in the planned direction. Major deviations from the set course necessitate redrawing of plans to meet changed conditions. A built-in flexibility does not automatically revise plans, but adaptability in the planning process does. Planning is therefore, a continuous process.

The planning process begins with setting objectives and then proceeds to premising, decision making and developing policies and strategies required for executing the plan.

2.2.2 Objectives

Modern management lays heavy stress on objectives. A plan must lead to the attainment of some objectives. The answer to the question "why an enterprise exists" is its purpose or mission. When the purpose is defined in specific terms, it becomes the output of the system and the mission then becomes the goal. When the goal is narrowed down to a further specificity, this gives rise to objectives. Goals are more comprehensive in nature and objectives follow goals. Activities then follow objectives. Thus, mission-goal-objective-activity forms a hierarchy of levels, decreasing in comprehensiveness and scope as one moves from mission to activity. Each library has to derive its own hierarchy of mission, goals and objectives. Setting clear and achievable objectives lies at the centre of planning. In fact, Management by Objectives (MBO) is built around objectives.

In business and industry, the ultimate objective is to make profit. Profit is the surplus of income over expenditure. The desired surplus set in quantitative terms will be the overall objective. The objectives of non-profit enterprises including libraries will have to be of value or usefulness.

Verifiable or Measurable Objectives

Purposeful management aims at making the objective verifiable. Only then does control become meaningful. Verifiability enables one to know whether the objective has been attained and, if so, to what extent, at what cost, and in what time. Where the managing is of services, the objectives should be reflected in the form of some representative physical entities or qualitative values. For instance, a public library may state the objective in physical terms of the population to be covered.

Varieties of Objectives

An enterprise, being a system, is made up of systems, parts and components, such as divisions, departments, sections, services, products and programmes. For making management work, it is essential to set objectives for each constituent unit or function. Success in achieving the overall objectives of the system depends on the attainment of these part objectives. Delay or non-fulfillment of a crucial part objective will affect the related objectives seriously. Different activities within an area give rise to a number of objectives or multiple objectives. The essence of purposeful and efficient management lies in demarcation and timely coordination of the various objectives.

2.2.3 Premising

Planning proceeds on the basis of facts, assumptions, background and objectives. Assessment of factors that go to make a plan, and anticipating the type of environment in which the plan is to operate, is premising. Different sets of premises yield different plans. If the premising is wrong, the plans are bound to be affected.

Premising is concerned with both the internal and external environment. Internal factors consist of existing and planned investment, forecast of turnover, policies and organisation structure, available expertise and other factors that affect the plans and their execution. The external environment includes political, economic, social and technological conditions, the capital market and market conditions for the products and services, labour and materials. Premising takes both the quantitative and qualitative aspects into account. Confidence of the clientele in the reliability of services provided by a library is an example of the qualitative aspect of premising. Premising has to deal with uncontrollable elements which are of political, social and governmental origin; partially controllable elements e.g., market share of a Company's products; and management-controlled elements, e.g., access time in libraries.

Forecasting

Forecasting is a central feature of premising. It is of two types — exploratory and normative. While exploratory forecasting is based on an intelligent interpretation of past and present trends, facts and events to obtain a possible outline of the future, normative forecasting begins with the specification of a goal or end state and proceeds to identify the stages to be gone through to attain that goal. Forecasts rely on data drawn from national and local surveys, internal reports and studies and relate them to enterprise premising. Community analysis is a useful technique for identifying a

library's market. Forecasting of social and political factors is mostly judgmental, while that of economic factors is based on mathematical and statistical models, simulation and computer programming. The Delphi technique, and goal oriented forecast have been found useful in forecasting technological trends.

2.2.4 Decision-Making

The essence of decision making is choosing from among options. The process of decision-making involves premising, identifying and evaluating alternative courses and selecting.

Sound Decision-Making

Sound management decisions are those that result in the attainment of the objectives at a minimum cost, in the shortest possible time and in the stipulated environment. It differs from scientific decision-making wherein imagination, positive subjectivity, social, cultural and human factors play only minor roles. Library management, being a people and mind oriented activity, involves more of managerial than scientific decision-making. Sound decision-making entails thinking about and developing alternatives. It is a creative process. Where there are many alternatives, their evaluation takes up avoidable time. In such situations, managers use the principle of limiting factors (strategic factors).

Limiting Factors

These act as constraints in the attainment of objectives. An alternative course to be considered must be the one that overcomes the limiting factors. For many library development plans, space is found to be a limiting factor.

Evaluation of Alternatives

Comparison of alternatives is easier when results are stated in concrete terms. Examination of critical components of the alternatives and their likely behaviour in the face of changes in the external environmental forces, are important factors in evaluation. It requires foresight and the right perspective to assess the possible effects of future political, economic, technological and social changes on the decisions and the ability to predict them accurately. A decision should withstand dynamic conditions. Decision models can be constructed and, by changing the variables, models giving the desired results can be chosen. Operational research, systems analysis, and decision theory are the important scientific tools commonly used for evaluation and selection. Other methods include the use of marginal analysis, cost-benefit analysis, research, past experience and experimentation. As many libraries function in a political environment, library decision makers need to address themselves to the issues arising from political analysis.

2.2.5 Policies, Strategies and Tactics

Policies are guidelines to decision making and stipulate the boundary within which the plan operates. On the other hand, strategies indicate the course of action to be followed for the attainment of goals. Policies and strategies often converge. Tactics are action plans devised for carrying out strategies. Strategies are developed and employed in all areas of management to achieve specific results. They also affect policies and the organisation structure.

The major strategies deal with broad areas and key policies, and provide a unified direction and shape for the success of a plan. Areas in a library amenable to major strategies include collection building, resource sharing, information product, departmentalisation and staffing. Supporting strategies follow and supplement major strategies or relate to a specific service or product. Minor strategies are generally those used at the level of an individual to overcome temporary problems; they do not affect policies. Composite strategies are those in which more than one strategy is adopted for different interacting phases of a broad plan or strategy. Contingency strategies are alternative strategies worked out in advance in case the adopted strategy fails due to environmental changes or unforeseen contingencies.

There is no single strategy which meets all the requirements or which is suitable under all conditions. Development of a strategy depends on the creative talent and outlook of the managers in selecting a strategy that works.

Developing Strategies

Major strategies are developed for all key areas. Before such exercises are undertaken, it is essential to ponder over the enterprise, its philosophy, organisation structure, manpower assets, present objectives, and the future direction of growth. Right answers to a few right questions will lead to the development of appropriate strategies.

In the area of products, the questions to be asked are:

- 1) What is our business?
- 2) Who are our customers?
- 3) What do our customers want?
- 4) How much will our customers buy and at what price?
- 5) Do we wish to be a product leader?
- 6) Do we wish to develop our own new products?
- 7) What advantages do we have in serving customer needs?
- 8) What about existing and potential competition?
- 9) How far can we go in serving customer needs?
- 10) What profit margins can we expect?
- 11) What basic form should our strategy take?

These questions are also relevant to libraries. Questions for other library areas can be formulated on the same lines.

2.2.6 Management Information System (MIS)

Planning, particularly the decision making part of it, and controlling, have come to depend increasingly on information and data. It is the function of the Management Information System (MIS) to collect and transmit all relevant data pertaining to operations as well as information on managerial applications. In recent years, MIS function has become a part of the Electronic Data Processing (EDP) department.

MIS deals with two distinct types of information:

(a) transaction processing and (b) management information. The former covers almost the entire range of corporate activities – from inventory to finance, budget, engineering, production, and marketing through research and development. The mass of data to be handled is enormous and endogenous in nature. On the other hand, the scope of management information is extensive and includes information from outside the enterprise in addition to transaction processing.

Library management does call for data and information, relating to the various operations and environment to enable sound decision making. For more details on MIS refer to Unit 7 in Block 2 of this course.

Self Check Exercise

1) Discuss the important principles of Planning.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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2.3 ORGANISING

Planning provides the necessary scheme for attaining a set goal. It requires human effort to translate the plan into action. Organising is the process of devising the mechanism through which the efforts of people are directed and coordinated towards goal achievement. Organisation is defined as the cooperative endeavour of human beings to achieve set objectives through a formal relationship. The structure also defines the roles of the functionaries, their relationships, authority and responsibilities.

2.3.1 Organisation Structures

An organisation structure is built around the analysis of activities, responsibility for decisions, and relationships which enable attainment of objectives. Activity analysis leads to departmentalisation, decision making to evolution of the pattern of flow of authority, and relationships to leading, staffing and communication. The structure defines the pattern of vertical flow of authority, called level, and the area over which the authority runs is known as the span of an organisation. Figures 2.1 and 2.2 respectively show the level and span of an organisation.

Level-1... Librarian

Level-2... Deputy Librarian

Level-3... Assistant Librarian

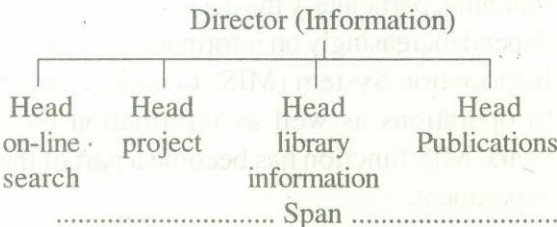


Fig. 2.1: Organisational Level

Fig. 2.2: Organisational Span

2.3.2 Models of Organisation Structure

A study of the evolution of formal organisation structures shows five major forms: (a) bureaucratic, (b) departmentalisation, (c) project organisation, (d) matrix and (e) network.

Bureaucratic Structure

This is the earliest form of organisation to develop, and is mechanistic in nature. The major features of bureaucratic structure are:

- 1) Control and supervision through the creation of a hierarchy of positions vested with authority and responsibility.
- 2) Systematic division of labour according to competency and specialization.
- 3) Framing of rules and regulations to ensure uniformity, coordination of efforts, continuity and stability.
- 4) Impersonal relationship to achieve unbiased execution.

The dysfunctional aspects of bureaucracy include — (a) specialisation, giving rise to conflict between different bureaucratic units to the detriment of the overall objective; (b) formation of status-conscious cliques and groups; (c) rigid and religious application of rules, precedents and procedures often by incompetent hands leading to red tapism; and (d) an impersonal approach to problems and individuals often resulting in inhuman, petty-minded and punishment-oriented attitudes.

The structure is neither conducive to attract technical talent nor to the display of initiative. Further, a large bureaucratic structure has disadvantages such as delay and notional accountability. In spite of these drawbacks, the bureaucratic structure or some of its fundamental features like unity of command, equal authority and responsibility, limited span of control, and delegation of routine matters still form the foundation of most management structures.

Departmentalisation

This structure involves a rational grouping of activities into divisions, departments, groups and sections with the authority diminishing hierarchically lower down the line. Situational requirements resulting into departmentalisation by functions such as production, marketing and finance is very common in industry. Departmentalisation by subject, territory and type of document are the most common patterns found in libraries. Selection of criteria for departmentalisation must result in homogenous units capable of achieving objectives.

Project Organisation

The complexity of operations, numerous components and agencies to be dealt with, fixed time schedules of delivery, the need for a great deal of planning, research, coordination and control are features common to large projects. Since the bureaucratic and departmentalization structures have not been able to cope with project managements, a different type of organisation structure that is organismic in nature has gradually developed. The project organisation that has evolved, cuts across the classical vertical organisation structure by introducing horizontal and diagonal relationships. In this, the project manager holds the sole authority and responsibility for planning, organising and completing a project. Several variations of this basic pattern are found.

Matrix Organisation

Where an enterprise is dealing with multi-products or well-defined projects, organising on the basis of products or projects is a refined method of division of work and responsibility. Such structures when integrated with the functional organisation result in matrix organisation. Success of the matrix structure is dependent on the understanding, expectations and roles of various members of the matrix system. This involves a great deal of sharing of information and building up of mutual confidence. Figure 2.3 shows a simplified matrix organisation structure.

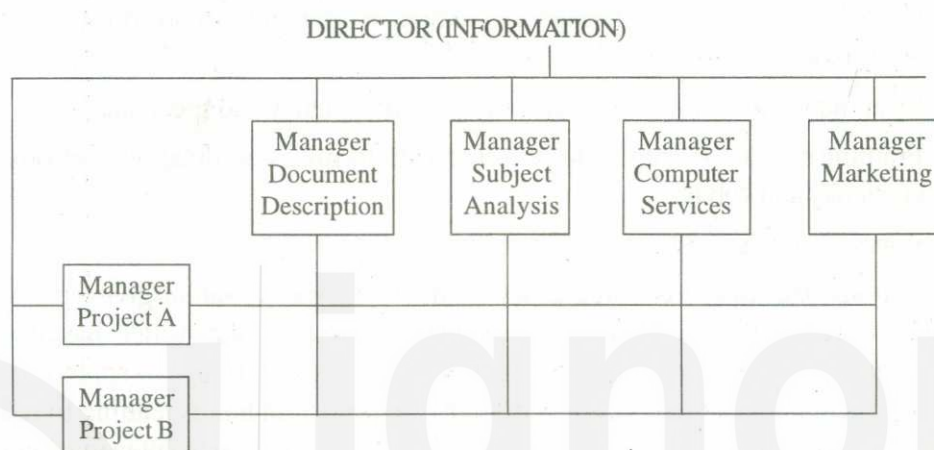


Fig. 2.3: Matrix Organisation Structure

Network Structure

A network is formed when two or more spatially separated organisational units having common functions are joined together through channels of communication. The resulting structure is a network structure. Airlines, and hotel chains follow network structure. Library and information networks work on network concept.

Features of a Good Organisation Structure

Some of the salient features of a good organisation structure are that:

- 1) It should promote the attainment of objectives effectively and efficiently.
- 2) The number of organisation levels known as the scalar relationship and span of management are well balanced to yield optimum results.
- 3) The number of levels matches the number of functions and the complexity of the organisation. Too many levels result in a diffused exercise of authority, confusion, an increase in overhead costs, choking of communication channels, and a lack of cohesiveness in decision making in a few hands; this would be beyond their capacity.
- 4) The width of span depends on the level and may vary from organisation to organisation. A span with 3 to 5 subordinates at higher level and 5 to 8 at lower level, where subordinates have to carry out only specific tasks, seems to be most conducive to obtaining the best results in library organisations.
- 5) Such a structure establishes correct and effective superior-subordinate relationships, thereby saving time.
- 6) Such a structure takes into account the continuously evolving nature of the organisation and hence allows flexibility and an ability to respond to changes in environment, both external and internal.

2.3.3 Authority and its Characteristics

An organisation functions through its authority or the power of decision making. The authority and the responsibility to execute decisions are vested in its functionaries. In the exercise of authority, two types of relationships can be recognized: (a) line and (b) staff. Line authority is concerned directly with the execution of the basic task or product creation. This authority flows through a scalar relationship through the enterprise. In contrast, the staff authority discharges advisory functions drawing from the specialised knowledge and experience of the staff functionaries. The staff role often takes the form of authority to issue instructions, such as how records should be kept, what procedure is to be followed in settling labour disputes and in helping redefine objectives. Often, particularly in small enterprises, both staff and line authority are exercised by the same manager. The director of a library exercises line authority over his subordinates in managing the library and renders a staff function to the library committee and other departments on information matters.

Functional Authority

This involves delegation of some part of authority relating to specified roles to a specified manager or department outside one's own. The librarian may have full authority to purchase books and information materials but may not have authority to order a vacuum cleaner for which he has to go through the controller of purchases, who thus exercises functional authority.

Unity of Command

This requirement implies that each position or employee in an organisation should be responsible to and receive orders from only one superior. Where it is necessary to have a large number of functional authorities, a line manager, besides following his superior line authority, will have to follow all the functional authorities. This creates dual authority, confusion and diffusion of responsibility.

The magnitude of dual authority conflict could be minimized and some degree of unity of command achieved by restricting functional authority to first or second level above the line manager. Some of the important characteristics of authority are as follows:

- 1) If staff authority is not properly defined and restricted to higher levels of management, it leads to conflicts with line authority.
- 2) Due to increasing effects of external environment forces and specialisation, the role of staff authority has increased.
- 3) For taking effective and prudent decisions, a manager needs all relevant information, expert analysis of situations and advice, which are staff functions.
- 4) Indiscriminate vesting of functional authority in staff departments will delay action and is, therefore, not conducive to efficient management.
- 5) Where the activities are specialized and need expert handling or are common to several departments, such activities are best left to the functional authority.

2.3.4 Delegation of Authority

As an enterprise grows, it is neither possible nor desirable for any one person to exercise all the authority and control. It becomes necessary to delegate authority to subordinates for taking decisions within their assigned spheres of activity. Delegation of authority leads to decentralisation of management.

Mode of Delegation

Delegation of authority may be specific or general, written or spoken. Specific and written delegation helps in precise expression of the nature and area of delegation and thereby accountability of subordinates. However, it is difficult to specify all areas and situations.

Principles of Delegation

Delegation of authority should be based on sound management principles. Mere delegation of authority does not absolve the delegation of responsibility for the consequences of such delegation. The risk involved in the decision should be the major criterion for delegation. To ensure that the delegated authority is used properly, it is essential to institute suitable control measures. Specific delegation results in inflexibility and may thus restrict the initiative of subordinates. Too much delegation may endanger unity of purpose.

Splintered Authority

Where the approval or pooling of more than one authority is required to bring about a desired change, the authority vested in each of the managers, taken separately, is not sufficient to bring about the change. Such partial authority needs to be avoided. Splintered authority situations occur occasionally in libraries, generally involving circulation and technical processing, shelf section and binding, reader services and reprography, to name a few.

2.3.5 Organisation Structure and Rigidity

The organisation structure conceived must be able to achieve set objectives and enable efficient and effective functioning of the library. Often the right type of organisation structure emerges as a result of experimentation with different structures and their modifications. With the passage of time, an organisation structure tends to become rigid and will not be able to cope with changes in the environment. This leaves a demoralising effect on the staff. In such a situation, the general trend of the staff is either to accept the situation passively, to revolt and leave, or to unionize. Its effect on clients/users will be immediate. The staff tends to become arrogant towards the user and is more concerned about compliance with rules than serving the user. In reality, the organisation will be functioning more to meet its own needs than to achieve its valid goals and objectives. On the other hand, too frequent changes in the organisation structure result in instability and confusion, and the organisation ultimately becoming dysfunctional. It is the function of organisation development (OD) and organisation renewal to ensure that the organisation structure remains resilient, its functionaries remain motivated, and the organisation stays strong and healthy.

Organisation Chart

An organisation chart represents the structure with positions. Such charts clearly indicate the flow of authority and accountability, the area of jurisdiction over functions, and interrelationships. As the organisation chart gives the overall picture of the structure, it is easier to locate the weak links in the chain, imbalances in responsibility, and friction points, if any. It helps in organisation restructuring.

2.3.6 Committees and Collective Decision-Making

An essential feature of modern organisational functioning is the increasing use of committees to aid the top management. Though committees may take different names

like 'board or commission, and may be permanent or ad hoc in standing, their primary objectives are to provide the benefit of collective thinking and collective exercise of authority, and avoid investing too much authority in a single person. Sometimes, a committee could also be used as a tactical device to delay actions, commit persons and groups to a particular decision, overcome splintered authority, bring about a sense of participation, or secure an expert opinion in favour of or against executing a predetermined policy. Its functions may be purely advisory or it may be vested with authority to manage. Committees consume more time and involve considerable expenditure.

Plural Executive

Where a committee is vested with authority and undertakes one or all of the managerial functions, as is the case with the board of directors of a company, it is known as a plural executive. The functions of a plural executive include determination of objectives, laying down policies, selection of top executives, approval of plans and budgets, reviewing results and ensuring the long-range stability of the enterprise.

The following factors determine the effectiveness of committees and help them serve their intended purposes:

- 1) The membership of a committee must represent various interests.
- 2) The constitution, authority and responsibility of a committee and its members should be clearly defined.
- 3) A committee must have access to all relevant information and facts.
- 4) Successful functioning of a committee depends, to a large extent, on its chairperson. Unless properly guided and controlled, the committee may degenerate into a political forum or play partisan politics.
- 5) In the ultimate analysis, it is the views and decisions of a single person with leadership qualities that emerge, while other members act as influences.
- 6) The need to seek unanimous decisions may result in the least common denominator views, of its members being accepted. Because of this a strong minority opinion may try to dictate.
- 7) Periodic review of the functioning of committees as well as some control over them is necessary.
- 8) The composition of a committee is determined by the nature of functions and complexity of subjects to be dealt with. A membership of 4-6 seems to yield the best results, unless the committee has to deal with a large number of subjects and wide area of organisation.
- 9) Decisions and recommendations of a committee must reach the executives and departments concerned and affected in time.

Self Check Exercise

- 2) Discuss in brief the different types of relationship found in exercise of authority in an Organisation.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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2.4 STAFFING

Staffing is concerned with effecting recruitment, selection, placement, appraisal and development of people to occupy positions in the organisation structure. It is the function of staffing to find the requisite human resources to build the organisation structure. Even the best plan and the most efficient organisation may fail to achieve the objectives if the persons who are to carry them out are not well suited to the task. Because of its importance and value to an enterprise, of late, human resource is also considered an asset.

2.4.1 Manpower Planning

Staffing begins at the planning stage itself. Putting an enterprise into motion calls for positioning of people at different levels requiring different qualitative, technical and physical abilities. It is essential to know how many of them are needed; at what levels, and at what period of time. As an enterprise progresses, the processes of recruiting, retiring, resigning, promoting, retrenching and replacing of people occur continuously. The tempo of these processes depends on the outlook of the management as well as the external environmental conditions prevailing at the time. To overcome these problems, it is necessary to plan in advance the manpower needs over a period of time and follow the plan so that the organisation runs smoothly as far as human resources are concerned. This planning is possible only when facts and data relating to the number and the type of positions in the enterprise, and the period when they are needed, are known. The enterprise plan, the organisation structure and the organisation culture are the principal sources of such data. It is also necessary to know or define the relationship between a particular position and the responsibilities and work content associated with it. While the top management decides the authority and status of a position, the staff and work norms aid in deciding the number of positions.

2.4.2 Design, Analysis and Evaluation of Job

Job design, job analysis and job evaluation furnish data for manpower planning, employee recruitment, pay fixation, work method improvement, performance appraisal, and designing of training programmes.

Job Design

This is the process of establishing the content of jobs in an organisation, based on rational principles, giving due weightage to human aspects of work. The principles followed by engineers in the design of jobs are:

- 1) Bringing a job into the smallest components to reduce skill requirements;
- 2) Making the contents of a job as repetitive as possible;
- 3) Minimising internal movement and handling time;
- 4) Creating suitable working conditions;
- 5) Obtaining greater specialisation;
- 6) Stabilizing production and reducing job shifts;

- 7) Involving engineering departments in assigning tasks and jobs.

Of late, greater attention is being paid to work psychology and towards making jobs more interesting by introducing features such as the following:

- i) **Job enrichment:** A job is made meaningful to the worker by providing scope for initiative and involvement in operation. Motivation is the main factor in job enrichment.
- ii) **Job enlargement:** A job is made more interesting by adding variety to the task.
- iii) **Job rotation:** Rotation of workers from one routine job to another, every few hours or days is found to relieve boredom and monotony.
- iv) **Multiple units of accomplishment:** Dividing a continuous production task into batches or subunits can provide a psychological sense of accomplishment on completion of each subunit of work.
- v) **Self-managed work teams:** Changing responsibility for each task from an individual worker to a team is likely to provide greater satisfaction through increased social interaction.

Job Analysis

Job analysis may be defined as the process of analysing a specific job based on the various tasks involved, machines and equipment used, skills, knowledge and personal traits required to perform the job. It consists of collecting, consolidating and recording various items of job information. It includes both job description and job specification. Job information can be gathered by using any of the following methods:

- 1) Job Observation
- 2) Analysing questionnaire filled by job workers giving job details
- 3) Interviewing workers to obtain job data for each job
- 4) Employing checklists, in which workers check the tasks listed for each job
- 5) Maintaining a diary (i.e., daily recordings in detail of all activities of each job holder)
- 6) Compiling information gathered by a team of experts.

Job Evaluation

This is the process of establishing the worth of a job in relation to other jobs in the organisation. The job and not the worker is the subject, of study. Job evaluation provides a scientific basis for fixing responsibilities in a position and the corresponding rate structure or compensation. Standard methods of job evaluation in use are the (a) ranking method; (b) classification; (c) factor comparison method; and (d) point system. These are now discussed.

- i) **Ranking method (job comparison):** This method involves comparing each job in relation to others in terms of technical skill, complexity, work environment and such other specific job description factors that determine the value of the job. Job data for all jobs are obtained through a job description questionnaire or other methods. By comparing jobs under consideration, they are ranked from low to high job requirements, and the pay is fixed accordingly. It is the simplest method of job evaluation and works fairly well when the number of jobs to be evaluated is only a few. The major drawback of this method is that it is based on comparison of jobs in general terms and not in respect of the specific factors that should determine the worth of a job.

- ii) **Classification system (grade-description system):** The jobs to be evaluated are compared with the pre-standardised jobs classified according to specific requirements/ descriptions of jobs and arranged in a hierarchy with several job arrays. It has the feature of flexibility, as new positions can be easily inserted in the hierarchy, but it does not take all factors in the job into consideration.
- iii) **Factor comparison method:** This method makes use of compensable factors and benchmark jobs. A compensable factor is a job factor, for instance, the degree of responsibility in the job, technical skill, work environment and such other factors that form the evaluation criteria. Each compensable factor is assigned a weightage according to its importance for the job/organisation, out of a total of 100. A benchmark job is a job standardised on the basis of predetermined quanta of compensable factors in it and is expressed by an appropriate weightage. For each job to be evaluated, its job details in the form of compensable factors are collated. The job is then compared with the benchmark job in terms of the compensable factors and the corresponding weightage. The relative position of the job as compared to that of the benchmark job determines the level of the position and the monetary compensation attached to it. Table 2.1 illustrates one form of the factor comparison method.

Table 2.1: Factor Comparison Method (Specimen)

Rate per hour per factor (in Rs.)	Compensable Factors	Weightage	Benchmark jobs			Compared Job A with job B	Remarks
			A	B	C		
6	Technical skill	26	25	20	5	+	Degree of variation of compensable factors in A against B is shown by + or -. It can also be rated in numbers.
4	Judgement	22	10	18	2	-	
8	Responsibility	32	20	15	10	+	
3	Interpersonal relationship	20	16	9	6	-	
	Total	100	71	62	23	2+	Job A is rated slightly higher than Job B

- iv) **Point system:** In this method, jobs are evaluated by identifying specific, compensable factors in each job and assigning points to each factor according to its importance in fulfilling the objectives of the organisation. Points are correlated to rates of compensation. Every job is assessed in terms of compensable factors and points. Each factor may be further subdivided into sub-factors. Skill, for example, may be divided into education, experience, training, mental complexity, and adaptability. Each of these sub-factors may be subdivided into 4 or 5 degrees; thus, experience of six months may be assigned to the first degree, experience of one year to the second degree, and so on. Each degree is then assigned points which in turn, indicate the rate. The aggregated points allotted to each job give its relative worth and the corresponding rate. Selection of job factors is crucial for the successful application of these methods, particularly so in the compensable factors method and point system. A job factor must (a) indicate distinct and significant characteristics of work, (b) be applicable to all positions, but in varying degrees, (c) give rise to recognisable and definable differences in level, and (d) be distinct from other job factors. Changing library conditions and organisation structures call for periodic review of job analysis and job evaluation. Job evaluation studies,

point out the needed direction of library management for attaining set goals and avoiding duplication of activities. They also indicate areas needing upgradation of skills, imbalances in salary structures, areas of dissatisfaction in staff policy, the need for restructuring of jobs, and other personal issues.

2.4.3 Managerial Positions and Position Requirements

Determination of the position in the structure constitutes the first task in the selection of personnel. The relative status, authority, responsibilities, and monetary and other compensations determine the position. Some of the methods used in determining a position are:

- 1) Evaluation by comparison with a few existing positions for which some standard has been set.
- 2) Time-span of discretion method. The effect of the correctness of a top manager's decision will take a long time to assess whereas in the case of junior executives or technicians it will be known within a very short period. By measuring the length of the time span of discretion through an analysis, of tasks in a position, its importance could be gauged.

Position requirements are assessed by the characteristics of the job and the requisite skill, maturity, attitude and knowledge to accomplish the job, part-time or full-time nature of the job, the challenge involved and the required managerial skill. A complete manager should possess the following attributes:

- 1) Technical skill
- 2) Human skill
- 3) Conceptual skill (i.e., the ability to comprehend an overall situation, recognise significant features, and discern the intricate relationships within and outside the system)
- 4) Problem-solving skill to find practical solutions to problems
- 5) Physical fitness.

The relative importance of these skills varies with each level. The higher the position, the greater is the degree of human, conceptual and problem-solving skills needed, rather than technical skill.

Besides the various skills, effective managers need to have several personal characteristics like the desire to manage, the ability to communicate with empathy, integrity and honesty.

2.4.4 Selection and Placement

Once the position and its requirements have been decided, the process of filling the position by selection, recruitment, placement or promotion starts. A distinction is made between selection and placement. Selection means filling a particular post calling for specific job requirements, whereas placement involves finding or creating a suitable position suiting the individual's talent, ability and limitations.

A perpetual problem in selection is to decide whether it is to be from within the enterprise or from outside. Promotion from within curtails frustration among the employees, bridges the time-gap that a person from outside needs to imbibe the enterprise culture and find his/her moorings, and makes the management aware in advance of the abilities and limitation of the person. However, it limits the choice of

selection and blocks the opportunity for inducting fresh talent with different experience. It may also create disharmony due to jealousy, personal rivalries and non-cooperation, resulting from change in authority relationships consequent to promotion. Trade unions may also create problems. Ultimately what should count is selecting a person best suited to achieve the objectives set for the position.

Criteria for Selection

Criteria for selection vary. These include objectives set for the position, occupational characteristics, personal views and values of members of the interview board, behavioural pattern of candidates, and the characteristics of successful managers. The factors to be considered are age, technical skill, managerial skill, personality, motivation of the perspective candidates, and future potential. Selection demands assessing these qualities in the candidates in relation to the requirements of the position.

2.4.5 Selection Techniques

The techniques normally used are interview, tests, and assessment centre approach.

Interview

A good interview is one conducted with a view to assess the qualities and attainments of the candidates and their suitability for the position without any bias or prejudice. Interviews should be held in a conducive atmosphere which makes the candidate feel at home and encourages free communication. Testing in areas not relevant to the position should be avoided. An interview is not a forum for exhibiting the superior knowledge of the interviewers. The interview board must consist of persons knowledgeable in the field. They must be fully acquainted with the requirements of the positions, and know the enterprise culture, and employment market conditions. Assessments of the candidates made by different members are consolidated and persons best fulfilling the requirements are selected. There could be more than one interview, particularly for senior positions, the first interview being used for screening the hopefuls.

Assessment Centres

In this the candidates are required to participate in a series of exercises, spread over five or six days, under the close observation and assessment of psychologists and other experts. The exercise consists of psychological tests, management games, leaderless group discussions to solve problems, tests to judge and ability of the candidates to tackle individual tasks, and their writing abilities.

Tests

The relatively short time available for interview and the difficulties encountered in maintaining the same standard of assessment for all candidates are the major drawbacks of the interview system. To overcome this, well-designed tests are sometimes employed to assess the intelligence, proficiency, vocational fitness and personality of the candidates.

The following are some of the important features to be borne in mind during the process of selection:

- 1) There is no one best way of selection. Each technique has its advantages and disadvantages.

- 2) The interview method costs less and takes least time.
- 3) Tests and the assessment centre technique are heavily oriented towards testing of individual traits and personal behaviour. In these, there is the possibility of assessment of the technical knowledge and managerial abilities of the candidates being lost sight of. These techniques are well suited for cadre building programmes such as apprentice schemes prevalent in large companies.
- 4) The first few days of a new entrant are crucial. This is the period when opinions and attitudes are formed. The new entrant evaluates the job potential, appraises the environment and decides his or her career prospects. A well-designed orientation and socialising programme will be very useful. Creating conditions conducive to retention of a competent candidate or employee is as important as, if not more than, recruiting new people.
- 5) Careful planning is needed for all these activities.

2.4.6 Appraisal of Managers

Appraisal of managers is a continuing process in management development. Appraisal is essential for ensuring that the enterprise has the right type of people and these people are carrying out their functions effectively and efficiently. Potentialities and capabilities of persons in the organisation are recognised for entrusting them with higher authority and responsibilities; motivation is provided by linking success and achievements with an appropriate reward system. Appraisal by traits of managers is the oldest and most commonly used method. The concept of evaluating against verifiable objectives and the appraisal of managers as managers are gaining importance.

Appraisal by Traits

Assessment by traits consists in listing a number of personal traits and work characteristics against which an individual is rated and then graded. Typical traits appraised include the following:

- 1) Professional ability in terms of theoretical knowledge, experimental or practical knowledge, originality, technical judgment, power of expression and general professional knowledge.
- 2) Managerial ability to plan, organise and direct.
- 3) Personal qualities such as initiative, cooperativeness, conscientiousness and self-reliance.

Some of the major modifications affected in the trait appraisal techniques are:

- 1) Grouping of traits according to technical and professional factors, personality and managerial skills.
- 2) Introduction of more than one assessing authority in which case the assessment is initially made by the immediate authority under whom the subordinate works, then reviewed by a higher authority and the final grading is done by the chief executive.
- 3) Setting different norms, keeping in view the type and category of job.
- 4) Self assessment.
- 5) Assessment of superiors by subordinates.

Due to the subjective nature of assessment, trait appraisal often degenerates into an unavoidable routine form-filling by the higher authority. The following are among the serious drawbacks of the trait appraisal method:

- 1) It depends too much on the assessor's sense-of values and hence does not form a universally applicable standard measure.
- 2) The situation at the time of appraisal may influence grading, thus ignoring the total period of review.
- 3) Many times the traits tested have no relation to performance.

Appraisal of Managers as Managers

In this approach, a manager is assessed for his abilities as a manager in discharging managerial functions such as planning, organising, staffing, leading, and controlling. It does not take into consideration activities other than managerial which a manager performs or is required to carry out. To be truly objective, the evaluation should list every aspect of managerial function in specific terms as verifiable check points. The objections against this form of assessment are:

- 1) There are too many aspects of management and their assessment takes a long time.
- 2) Subjectivity cannot be fully eliminated.
- 3) It ignores the importance of technical and other skills.

An improved method is open assessment in a session where the candidate to be appraised, his/her immediate line authority as also the next higher manager, are present.

2.4.7 Development of the Organisation

No organisation can remain static for a long time. It has to remain healthy and grow. Success in this direction rests on preparing the functionaries through well-designed programmes, developing in them the ability to face new challenges, to make use of opportunities and acquire a dynamic outlook. These programmes aim at manager development, training and organisation development.

Manager Development

Programmes relating to this area are aimed at improving, at all levels, the entire range of managerial activities from planning to controlling. The objective is to prepare people to meet the challenges not only of the present job but also those of the next higher job and the distant future. The programmes include: on the job training; rotation of jobs; temporary attachment as assistants to experienced managers; officiating or acting promotions; involvements in committees and meetings; and coaching. The basic idea of these programmes is to (a) create confidence, (b) provide opportunities to observe and learn how a good manager thinks and acts, (c) give a person experience under new situations, (d) prepare him/her to face new challenges, and (e) broaden his/her outlook. Such programmes can also be initiated by libraries.

Training and Experience

Most of the well managed firms have training programmes designed to meet the organisation's needs at different levels on different functions, such as sales, operations, leadership, inventory control and other aspects. They also make use of training programmes conducted by outside agencies, such as management schools, industry, and professional bodies.

Organisation Development

This is defined as "a planned process designed to improve organisational effectiveness and health, through modifications in individual and group behaviour, culture and

systems of the organisation using knowledge and technology of applied behavioural science.” The emphasis in OD is on the organisation as a whole in contrast to managerial development, which is individual oriented. The objectives are to improve the effectiveness of the enterprise in the face of growing technological, social, political and economic challenges and knowledge explosion. Well-known OD techniques in use are laboratory training, the managerial grid approach, survey and feedback study of a system and the activities of its members, techno-structural study of organisations and guidance and counselling.

Self Check Exercise

3) Enumerate the attributes essential for a good manager.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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2.5 LEADING

Staffing selects and places persons occupying positions to accomplish organisation tasks. Their efforts need to be channelised in a purposeful manner towards the attainment of the goal, avoiding wastage, working at cross-purposes and friction at all levels. This is where leading comes in. It involves directing the efforts of the members of an organisation towards the attainment of set goals. It is concerned with human beings both as individuals and as groups. Interpersonal relationship is the core of leading. This relationship is guided by human behaviour, motivation, leadership and communication. Behaviour and motivation have been explained under the principles of management. Leadership is considered now.

2.5.1 Leadership

Leadership is seen as the ability to influence the behaviour of others in a desired direction; it is the art of influencing people so that they will strive willingly, with zeal and confidence, towards the achievement of group goals. Managers have to be effective leaders with the ability to influence subordinates and colleagues to work willingly towards the attainment of enterprise objectives. The ability to comprehend the behaviour of people and the motivating force to which they respond, the ability to inspire, and the ability to create an environment are the most significant attributes of a leader. In addition, a manager must have empathy, must be objective in his approach to people, aware of self-knowledge as well as leadership qualities.

2.5.2 Theories of Leadership

Three theories that are well known are discussed here:

- i) **Leadership by trait:** Before the advent of psychological studies of leadership, it was the view that leaders were born and not made, which emphasised inborn qualities of leadership. Subsequent researchers have stressed that, except for

Critical control points: Continuous observation of complete performance is not possible for most managers; in fact, it is not desirable. In every sphere of work or operation, there will always be certain characteristic events and limits which can be used as control indicators or danger signals. Such factors are called critical points. They range from physical standards to verifiable goals through cost standards, capital standards, and intangible standards. The gap between the time a publication should come out of processing and the time at which it is actually made available to the patron is a critical control point in procurement and processing of publications.

Non-budgetary control: A budget is primarily a financial control instrument. The management has to take into account various factors of operations and objectives which are not easily noticeable through budgetary control. In such cases, statistical analysis and inferences of operations, reports on the functioning of specific areas of enterprise or tasks, procedures, guidelines, policy statements, break-even point analysis, operation audit and the human asset are used as control devices.

Break-even point analysis: Most of the enterprises at the plan or product-development stage use the capacity utilisation of a plant as a measure of balancing income with expenditure, thus showing the profit-yielding stage. It forms a yardstick to measure the rate of production and corresponding profit or loss, and indicates the variables available to the manager for effective control. The same concept can be developed for library projects to determine the stage or point at which a new information service envisaged (e.g., SDI or translation) reaches a self-supporting stage. The break-even point is reached when the value of services in terms of money balances the cost of inputs.

Internal audit: Industrial organisations employ internal auditors to carry out regular and independent audit of accounts. Unlike statutory audit, this has the advantage of forewarning the manager of danger areas in the functioning of the enterprise. For overall assessment and control, the corporate sector uses parameters like profit and loss account, return on investment, and ratio of profit to gross sale.

2.6.3 Management by Exception

This is a technique where attention is directed to those items, actions or results which become exceptions to the desired course. Data on exceptions serve as a control signal which points out where action is necessary. Management by exception depends on pre-specification of framework or limits. When an operation does not progress according to set standards, information about the deviation reaches the manager for taking corrective action. Feedback information about such exceptions and the actions based on them is the essence of management by exception. This involves shifting data about non-occurrences from the mass of data that conform to the desired standards or occurrences. Computers now transmit online data on exceptions. A typical example of management by exception is sending of reminders to publications not returned by borrowers, in the circulation department, on the basis of data on borrowers who have not returned rather than those who have returned.

2.6.4 Management Information System (MIS)

Control relies on information relating to the progress of various operations of the enterprise. Timely transmission of such information and data is the function of MIS. For further discussion, see under the section planning in this unit.

So far, we have seen control as relating mostly, to part, product or functional control. Ultimately, however, it is the control of overall performance which ensures attainment of planned enterprise targets and goals. The instruments generally used for controlling the overall performance are financial control methods, such as the budget, profit and loss statements, and return on investment data. A recent trend is to view control from a human behavioural angle since it is the individuals constituting the enterprise who control all functions.

Library Field

Devising control instruments for libraries is beset with many problems. This is because of the non-profit nature of the enterprise, situational and non-steady type of demand for its products and services, and the unique nature of the impact of its services on patrons.

In the absence of realistic, objective and precise standards for measuring performance, a library manager has to rely in addition on the use of objectives, budget, manpower assets, and such other factors as control instruments.

2.7 SUMMARY

Operational approach to management leads to the recognition of five management functions—planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling. Planning provides the blue-print for action. Organising is the integrating device that structurally binds the activities of workers, executives and promoters in an effective organisation, with the role of each functionary being properly defined. Staffing functions to fill-up positions in the organisation structure with suitable persons and looks after their fitness to serve effectively. Leading is the binding force that harmonises the varied efforts and attitudes of people in the organisation towards the attainment of goals. Controlling ensures that all activities progress according to set plan and norms, and also provides corrective actions in case of deviations from a set course. An understanding of these functions, the principles behind them and their effects on management is essential for those managing libraries.

2.8 ANSWERS TO SELF CHECK EXERCISES

- 1) Good planning is based on certain principles. The most important of these are:
 - i) **Principle of Commitment:** Long-range planning reduces uncertainty and helps in coping with the inherent ambiguity of management itself. A long range plan is committed to the policies and resources over the entire period of plan/operation. Short range plans are meant to meet near-time objectives within the framework of the overall plan. Planning is effective only when short-range plans form and integral part of the long-range plan and different short range plans are coordinated properly.
 - ii) **Principle of Flexibility:** Flexibility in planning enables easy adjustments to changes and therefore has better chances of survival in a crisis.
 - iii) **Principle of Adaptability:** Constant reviewing indicates whether the enterprise activities are moving in the planned direction. Major deviations from the set course necessitate redrawing of plans to meet changed

turn adversely affect the functioning of the organisation. The purpose of communication is to create awareness, have a two-way exposure, and to understand and influence persons, leading to the desired positive action.

Managerial communication takes place both horizontally and vertically, from person to person, and from person to group. Vertical communications flow from the top of the hierarchy to lower down the chain and vice versa. Effective methods for communicating in organisations still remain elusive. General hints, such as the need for simplicity of language, directness of approach, precision of expression and thought contents, empathic listening are all valid. However, the crux of the communication problem is how to get across an idea and influence subordinates, colleagues and others concerned with accepting it and acting on it.

Self Check Exercise

- 4) What are the characteristics of an effective Leader? Explain the salient features of Managerial Grid.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.
ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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2.6 CONTROLLING

To control is to : (a) keep track of the system operation and ensure progress according to set standards of quality, quantity and pace; (b) find out the existence and the extent of any deviation from the plan and norms; and (c) suggest and effect remedial measures in time so that the goal is reached according to schedule.

In practice, the control system has evolved in two ways:

- 1) Overall control of plans, policies and directives of the entire organisation exercised by top management.
- 2) Part or specific control designed for departments or components such as materials and stores, salaries and wages, production and products, sales, manpower and training.

Control is possible only when what is to be achieved and how it is to be achieved, are known. Thus the plan forms the primary control document. Controlling is intimately linked with exercise of authority and accountability based on the organisation structure. The two steps in controlling are: establishing standards and instituting measures against deviations.

Since management can be thought of as a closed system, the principles of cybernetics can be employed profitably for control. The feedback concept of cybernetics has relevance to management control.

2.6.1 Feedback Control

Feedback control includes monitoring the state of the actual functioning and performance of the system, comparing it with the set norms and transmitting the conditions and deviations, if any, to the operator. Controlling the flow of information items in selective dissemination of information (SDI) following continuous evaluation by the user of their usefulness is an example of feedback control.

Real-Time Information and Control

Perfect control is possible only when steps for detection and diagnosis of the causes for deviation and corrective measures are taken as soon as an error occurs. This needs access to real-time information on the occurrence of error. However, in practice, perfect management control in real time is not possible, except in very simple operations, as normally there is considerable time gap between detecting a deviation, diagnosing the causes and devising and applying corrective measures. The cost of collection and transmission of real-time data may often be so high as to offset the advantages.

2.6.2 Control Instruments

Several devices are used by managers for exercising control. These may be broadly divided into three groups: budgetary control, non-budgetary control and statistics, and network-based control.

Budgetary Control

Budget serves two purposes: (a) as a plan input to produce goods and services as outputs, and (b) as an instrument of control.

As an instrument of control, a budget including non-financial is used to evaluate the progress towards achieving targets. The components of such a control are: setting guidelines, measuring progress, tracing the factors responsible for non-fulfillment of tasks, and variance from set standards. The remedial measures may include reallocation of resources, restructuring of costs, economy drive, and organisational change. Timely availability of data on all aspects of a budget, actual and forecast, and their interpretation, is a pre-requisite for effective control. This is the task of the management information system. The traditional budget has many limitations as a control device. To overcome these limitations, more versatile forms of budgeting, such as the programme planning and budgeting system (PPBS) and zero-based budget have been introduced.

Preventive Control

Feedback control depends on the past data transmitted after the occurrence of an unwanted event. Often, this turns out to be of post-mortem interest. Since real-time control is difficult to effect and uneconomical, except in mechanical systems, opting for preventing control will be more practical. Preventive control systems may be built around forecasts, PERT and other network techniques or feed forward systems.

Feed forward control: Unlike feedback, feed forward control monitors the input data and portrays its effect on output. If it is unlikely that the set objectives will be attained, planned input variables may be changed and processes modified. Such a control system is built on a dynamic model reflecting the changes that may occur and their effects at all stages of the operation. Project tailored information systems can well adopt feed forward control.

physical characteristics, most of the traits of leadership are acquired and can be consciously developed.

Intelligence, self-confidence ability to supervise, respect for and interest in people, social participation, and strong motivation to achieve, are some of the traits found in leaders.

- ii) **Situational theory:** This theory postulates that a given situation throws up forces which create leaders. Such leaders reflect the mood of the situation and the aspiration from those being led.
- iii) **Contingency theory:** It states that the effectiveness of leadership depends on the style, personality and traits of the leader to fit the group in a given situation. Leadership is contingent upon the power or formal authority inherent in the position held, the defined nature of the task with fixed responsibility, and the leader-follower relationship.

2.5.3 Styles of Leadership

Styles of leadership vary depending on the behaviour of the leader. Some of the prominent styles are as follows:

- i) **Authority-based styles:** Leadership categorised according to the use of authority is of three types: (a) autocratic, (b) democratic or participative and (c) where actions are left to the subordinates. Within these main styles, further variations can be found. For example, an autocratic leader may be benevolent or despotic. Similarly, a participative leader may be supportive of subordinates.
- ii) **Systems of management:** Study of leadership and management styles have led to the identification of four systems: (a) exploitive-authorities, (b) benevolent authoritative, (c) consultative, and (d) participative. Of the four styles, the participative style is the most rewarding. This is because of the two-way relationship existing between the manager and subordinates. Subordinates are made to become involved, cooperate and communicate more freely in various aspects of work and management. The system is based on complete trust of the manager in his subordinates.
- iii) **Contingency style:** According to this model, leadership styles conform to two broad categories, viz., those that are primarily task oriented and those that are people oriented. Those in “very favourable and very unfavourable” situations the task-oriented leader will be most effective. In contrast, where the situation is neither very favourable nor very unfavourable, the human relations-oriented leader will be most effective. An unfavourable situation is considered to be the one in which the job structure and responsibility are diffused and ill-defined, and the leader-follower relations are poor.
- iv) **Immaturity-maturity continuum:** This theory recognises that disparity between individual needs and the organisational needs leads to disharmony. This can be overcome by providing challenging tasks and opportunities as motivators, and training which leads to maturity. For example, the dependent outlook of an employee, a characteristic of immaturity, can be turned into a state of independence, a ‘mature characteristic’.
- v) **Management Grid:** Blake and Mouton have proposed a different type of management philosophy called Managerial Grid. It is based on a manager’s (a) concern for people, and (b) concern for production. Graphically presented in Figure 2.4, it implies that a manager or management fits into anyone of the four styles.

The Grid helps analyse the existing style of management. In the light of the analysis, the desired changes in the organisation pattern and balancing of requirements can be introduced.

The device can be used to assess the style of any Manager. By studying the causes for a particular managerial style, remedial measures to improve the style can be tried.

The theories of leadership styles give an insight into the different styles of leadership and help in self-assessment. However, what ultimately determines leadership and leading is a manager's perception of people, situations and goals, personality, leadership qualities, and the environment - both organisational and outside. The success of a Manager as a leader is measured by his or her ability to develop a symbiotic relationship between the fulfillment of individual goals and the organisation goals over a long period of time.

2.5.4 Managerial Communication

An organisation being a formal cooperative of people bound by a common purpose, inter and intrapersonal relationships form a characteristic feature. A manager's ability to create a spontaneous and positive response in co-workers and subordinates to his/her communications, is a measure of his/her leadership capabilities. Any communication gap will lead to misunderstandings and lack of direction which in

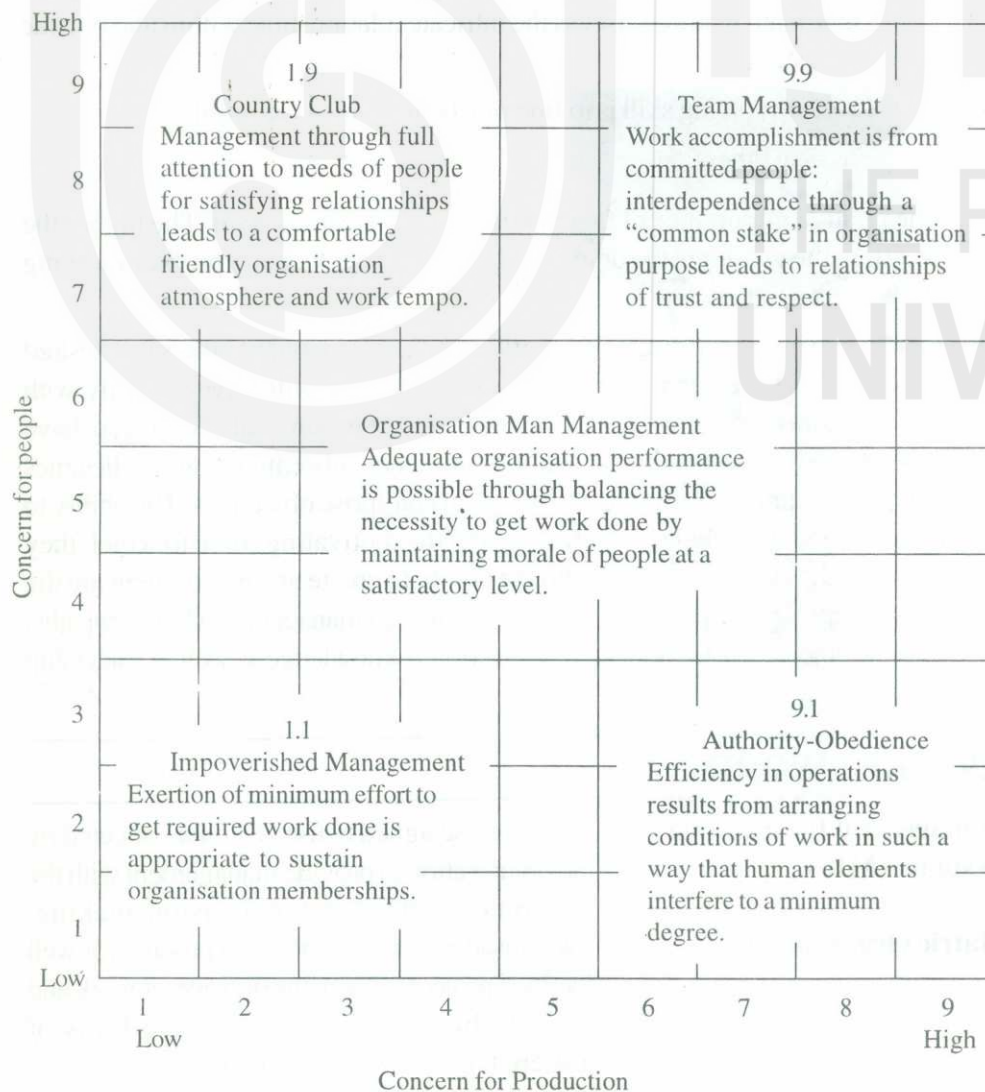


Fig. 2.4: The Managerial Grid

conditions. Adaptability in the planning process helps in automatic revision of plans.

- 2) An organisation functions through its authority or the power of decision making. The authority and the responsibility to execute decisions are vested in its functionaries. In the exercise of authority two types of relationships can be recognised: a) line and b) staff.

Line authority is concerned directly with the execution of the basic task or product creation. This authority flows through a scalar relationship through the enterprise. In contrast, the staff authority discharges advisory functions drawing from the specialised knowledge and experience of the staff functionaries. The staff functionary role often takes the form of authority to issue instructions, such as how records should be kept, what procedure is to be followed in settling labour disputes and in helping redefining objectives. Often, particularly in small enterprises, both staff and line authority are exercised by the same manager.

- 3) A good manager should possess the following attributes:

- i) Technical skill.
- ii) Human skill.
- iii) Conceptual skill in the ability to comprehend overall situation, recognise significant features discuss the intricate relationships within and outside the system.
- iv) Problem solving skill is to find practical solutions to problems.
- v) Physical fitness.

The relative importance of these skills varies with each level. The higher the position, the greater is the degree of human conceptual and problem solving skills needed, rather than technical skill.

- 4) Leadership is seen as the ability to influence the behaviour of others in a desired direction; it is the art of influencing people so that they will strive willingly, with zeal and confidence, towards the achievement of group goals. Managers have to be effective leaders with the ability to influence subordinates and colleagues to work willingly towards the attainment of enterprise objectives. The ability to comprehend the behaviour of people and the motivating force to which they respond, the ability to inspire, and the ability to create an environment are the most significant attributes of a leader. In addition, a manager must have empathy, must be objective in his approach, aware of self-knowledge as well as leadership qualities.

2.9 KEYWORDS

Management Information Systems (MIS)	: A system designed to use all" data collected by an organisation to provide management with the information needed for decision making.
Matric Organisation	: Organisation dealing with multi products or well defined projects, where the division of work and responsibility is organised on the basis of different products and projects.

UNIT 3 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 What is Quality?
 - 3.2.1 Factors of Quality
 - 3.2.2 Total Quality Approach
- 3.3 Total Quality Management (TQM)
 - 3.3.1 The TQM Concept
 - 3.3.2 Quality Gurus
 - 3.3.3 Principal Objectives
- 3.4 Quality Circles
- 3.5 ISO 9000
 - 3.5.1 ISO 9000 vis-à-vis TQM
 - 3.5.2 ISO 9000 in Libraries and Information Centers
- 3.6 Total Quality Management for Library and Information Centres, Systems and Services
 - 3.6.1 Relevance and Importance of TQM
 - 3.6.2 Quality Improvement Efforts
 - 3.6.3 Quality Improvement Programmes
- 3.7 Summary
- 3.8 Answers to Self Check Exercises
- 3.9 Keywords
- 3.10 References and Further Reading

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit you will be able to :

- gain insight into the notion of quality;
- explain the evolution of Total Quality Management;
- identify factors that contribute to Total Quality Management (TQM);
- get a working knowledge of Quality Circles and ISO 9000;
- attempt setting up TQM in an organisation;
- apply TQM for library and information services; and
- design a Quality Improvement Programme for library and information personnel.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This Unit focuses attention on quality in management. Quality here means everything that an organisation does, in the eyes of its customers. The implication is that quality is not restricted only to the quality of production or some aspects of service. It is the

total quality in which every aspect of work is to be given equal attention. Quality improvement does not conflict with productivity. Quality is also not a static concept. Quality of any activity changes with time, environment, customer reaction and many other factors.

High quality service is the ultimate aim of any library and information center. The adoption of the Total Quality Management philosophy could be of great help in this context. TQM is a long-term process requiring full commitment and participation of the employees in the organisation. For effective implementation of TQM in libraries and information centers it is essential to train the library staff about the concepts and techniques required for the purpose.

Total Quality Management is explained with reference to its principal objectives, its elements, quality circles and the benefits of TQM. The concept of Quality Circles being central to Total Quality Management, the different aspects of Quality Circles is studied in some detail in this Unit.

Total Quality Management for library and information centres, systems and services is examined with reference to its relevance and value, efforts at quality improvement and developing quality improvement programmes for personnel.

3.2 WHAT IS QUALITY?

The Random House Dictionary defines 'Quality' of a person or a thing as a characteristic, innate or acquired, which, in particular, determines the nature and behaviour of the person or thing. The synonyms of 'Quality' are trait, character, feature, attribute, property, etc. In general usage, most people have too narrowed a perspective of the meaning of the word 'Quality'. They either associate poor 'Quality' with defects in products, such as scratches, cracks, missing parts, and so forth or of persons in their general conduct or behaviour quality with the opposite of the above attributes with reference to a product or a person.

When the word 'quality', is used in modern management, however, it means everything that an organisation does, in the eyes of its customers. Activities that will encourage customers to regard an organisation as one of the best, if not the best, are those activities that are highly satisfactory to the customers.

In other words, 'Quality' is a measure of the achievement of an organisation in terms of customer satisfaction. For example, an organisation does not give satisfaction to customers, if the staffs are unfriendly or unhelpful when dealing with customers. This act would be regarded as 'poor quality service'. Neither an organisation achieves customer satisfaction, if the telephone operator is untrained and deficient in attending to calls from customers. The customer would also be unimpressed if they were invoiced for a wrong amount or if a product ordered was sent to a wrong destination. These poor quality works would bring discredit to the organisation, despite its good and defect-free products.

3.2.1 Factors of Quality

The implications here are that quality is to be viewed in its totality and not restricted only to the quality of production or products or some aspects of services; and such as these which form only a part of the organisation activities. However, customer satisfaction has several dimensions, some of which are:

- fitness for use
- reliability – the life aspect of quality
- value for money
- after-sales service and support
- packaging
- customer information and training
- maintainability
- variety
- speed and timeliness of service
- civility of service at all levels
- image of the company and customer confidence

All these factors plus such others, added together form an image of the organisation, good or bad, as a customer would see it. The confidence of customers will be determined by such an image that will have a major influence on the market credibility of an organisation products or services. The organisation is just as much affected by the attitudes of employees who are in contact with customers as it is by its products or services.

3.2.2 Total Quality Approach

The requirements of quality and productivity are never in conflict with each other, and that one is not achieved at the expense of the other. If people work twice as quickly as they had been, they do not increase their productivity but only their production. They increase their productivity, only if they can produce more for the same effort with an improvement in quality. Productivity is therefore, a measure of efficiency. In a manufacturing organisation, productivity is reduced by scrapped, reworked, or repaired items, wastage of materials, time loss, machine delays and breakdowns, items not in the right place at the right time, excessive energy consumption, disputes, and low motivation of the staff. All these are quality-related, in one form or the other.

If everything is concentrated on quality, productivity will take care of itself. Hence the 'Total Quality' approach will broaden the general perspective of the meaning of the word 'Quality'.

Another important attribute of 'Quality' is its dynamism. There is no absolute value for 'Quality'. In a competitive world, it is impossible to bring quality to an organisation at one stroke. Improvement of products and services has to be a steady and continuous effort. Only organisations that are conscious of all round continuous improvement will be able to survive competition. Quality therefore, is not an absolute entity but a relative one. The quality standard for a product or service is judged not only by the customer but also set by the performer. The ultimate goal is perfection — a perfect product, perfect service, perfect packaging, perfect instructions, perfect organisation, perfect staff and so on. However, as the scenario keeps constantly changing, there is no end to reach a level of absolute perfection in everything.

Before we study 'Total Quality' approach, let us examine briefly the emphasis that is placed on quality in today's management practices as never before.

Self Check Exercise

Total Quality Management

1) Explain some of the most important attributes of Quality for an organisation?

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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The concept of 'Total Quality' is a natural evolution of management thought, theory and practice. Scientific management that has been dominating management practices for a long time, did not have a favourable acceptance in Japan after the Second World War when Japan was rebuilding its industries. Total Quality is a very human concept. It is based on several human feelings and behaviour such as the following:

- Recognition of achievement is very important to people;
- People like and feel a need to share their experience;
- Group achievements have the effect of group bonding and creating a sense of belonging;
- Success breeds success — people are encouraged by achievement and feel a need to equal or surpass their best;
- People want to be listened to and to feel important;
- No one wants to feel like an extension of a machine or a desk;
- Everyone wants to have an opportunity for continuous self-development and self respect;
- If you treat people like responsible human beings they are likely to behave like them.

These principles are absolutely fundamental to achievement of total quality and are almost the opposite of Taylorism and Scientific management.

3.3 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM)

We have already noted that quality in terms of total quality is everything an organisation does in the eyes of its customers, which will determine its market potential. Thus, total quality represents a competitive strategy. Total quality, therefore, is as much concerned with confidence and the overall impression of the market as it is with specific measurable or quantifiable characteristics.

3.3.1 The TQM Concept

Total Quality Management is a philosophy and not a technique. It is based on two basic concepts: quality control and employee participation. The concept has gradually evolved from the management theories such as Management by Objectives, quality circles, strategic planning etc. To understand the concept it is better first to understand the three words constituting the concept i.e., Total, Quality and Management.

Total : Everyone in the organisation is involved in creating and maintaining the quality of the services and products offered by the organisation. It is a comprehensive way of dealing with complex sets of interacting issues involving everyone at all levels and addressing all major issues.

Quality : The organisation through individual and collective actions focuses on meeting customer's (agreed) needs, at lowest cost, first time and every time and hence recognising that it is the customer's perception that identifies quality. Total quality therefore, refers to the fact that everyone, at all levels are involved in achieving quality according to some requirements or laid down standards for everything they do.

Management - While managing the system the emphasis should be towards continuous improvement and not on quick fixes. Then only Total Quality can be achieved. This requires everyone in the organisation to be responsible for managing their own job. TQM portrays a whole systems view for quality management. TQM builds on the idea that an organisation is an interactive network of communication and control.

3.3.2 Quality Gurus

The Japanese were the pioneers in adopting the quality movement. After the Second World War they launched a nation wide drive for recovery and expansion of the economy. As a result by 1970's they were the masters in achieving quality in the manufacturing sector. They however went further in achieving quality in management as well. They shifted their focus from competitiveness in production to competitiveness in quality.

Though Japanese were the first to adopt the quality concepts, the original thinkers were American. Three main contributors to the Total Quality Management approach are: W. Edwards Deming, Joseph M. Juran and Philip B. Crosby. Other important contributors are Feigenbaum, Ishikawa, Taguchi and Shigeo Shingo.

W. Edward Deming

Deming started his work on quality in 1940's. The works of W. A. Shewart's control charts influenced him to develop Statistical Process Control (SPC) chart as a tool to measure the causes of variability in a system. He also formulated the PDCA (Plan, Do, Check and Act) cycle as a systematic approach to problem solving. The PDCA cycle of Deming emphasises the need for management to be deeply involved in the organisation's quality initiatives. According to him all the four components—Plan, Do, Check and Act are important. Neglecting any of these elements may give rise to problem. However, this process is limited to the internal working of the organisation only. Deming was very critical of the management and believed that they are basically responsible for the quality problems. He suggested following 14 points for quality management, which are highly applicable in libraries and information centers:

- 1) Create constancy of purpose;
- 2) Adopt a new philosophy of doing business;
- 3) Stop dependence on inspection;
- 4) End awarding of business on price alone;
- 5) Strive for continuous improvement of products and services;
- 6) Introduce on the job training and education;
- 7) Provide leadership rather than supervisors to help employees do better;

- 8) Drive out fear so that all feel secure and work effectively;
- 9) Break down barriers between departments and encourage cooperation among them;
- 10) Stop using exhortation, slogan, targets to get work out of the employees;
- 11) Eliminate Work Standards, Numerical Quotas or Management by Objectives to achieve goals. Instead use statistical methods and leadership to achieve continuous improvement;
- 12) Remove barriers and provide equipment and method that encourage work and provide workers with job pride;
- 13) Encourage education and training program for self improvement;
- 14) Involve everyone in the organisation towards commitment to quality.

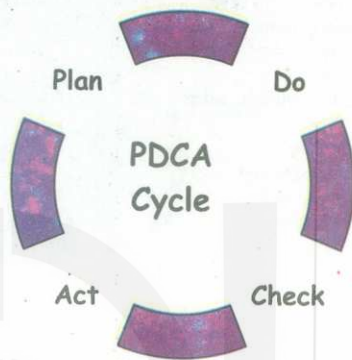


Fig. 3.1: Deming's PDCA Cycle

Joseph M. Juran

Juran was contemporary of Deming, and he also worked in Japan and achieved distinction there. According to Juran 'Quality is fitness for use', and he emphasises the role of management in achieving quality. He was the first to stress that management, communication and human resources are key to achieve quality. According to him management for quality is done through three managerial processes – planning, control and improvement. On the basis of this he has come up with 'Juran's Trilogy' – Quality Planning, Quality Control and Quality Improvement (refer to figure 3.2).

Philip B. Crosby

Crosby provides a holistic view of quality. The roots of his philosophy can be found in the following five absolutes of quality management:

- Quality means conformance to requirement and not elegance;
- There is no such thing as quality problem;
- It is always cheaper to do things right the first time;
- The only performance measurement is the cost of quality; and
- The only performance standard is zero defects.

He has laid emphasis on prevention and zero defects as the only performance standards. He has put forth the 14 steps of implementing quality programs in an organisation. To operationalise the 14 steps program he has provided number of tools like 'Quality maturity grid' 'Make Certain Program' 'Management Style Evaluation' and 'Quality Vaccine'. Crosby's 14 steps to Quality are:

- Management Commitment
- Form Quality Improvement Team

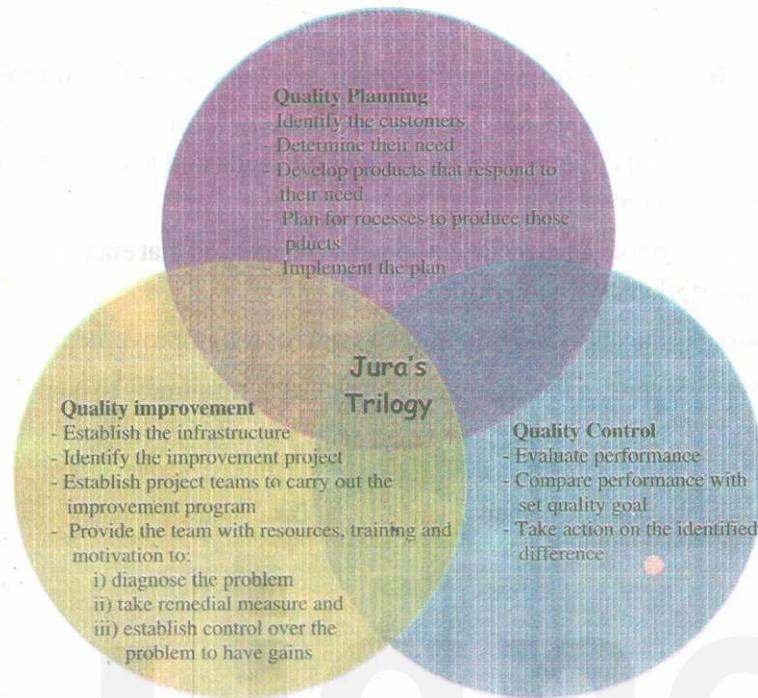


Fig. 3.2: Juran's Trilogy

- Determine Quality Measures
- Evaluate the Cost of Quality
- Quality Awareness
- Corrective Action
- Ad hoc Committees and Zero Defect Programs
- Training of Supervisors and Managers
- Zero Defect Day
- Goal Setting
- Error cause removal
- Recognition
- Quality Councils
- Do it over again

Armand V. Feigenbaum

Feigenbaum's main contribution is towards "Total Quality Control". This term was later changed into "Total Quality Management". According to him the four steps in quality control are:

- Setting quality standards
- Appraising conformance to the standards
- Acting when there are deviations and standards are not met
- Plan for continuous improvement.

He suggests following ten benchmarks for Total Quality Control:

- Quality must be a company wide process
- Quality is what customer perceive it is
- Quality and costs go together and they are not adversaries
- Quality requires both individual and team effort
- Quality is a way of managing
- Quality and innovations are mutually dependent
- Quality is an ethic
- Quality is a continuous improvement programme
- Quality is the most cost effective and least capital intensive route to productivity
- Quality needs to be implemented as a total system connecting customers and suppliers.

Kaoru Ishikawa

Ishikawa stressed the need for company wide quality involving vertical as well as horizontal cooperation. He emphasised the importance of people participating in problem solving process through Quality Control Circles (QCCs). He merged the ideas of Deming, Juran, Crosby and Feigenbaum and suggested seven statistical tools for data collection and analysis for quality control purposes. The seven tools are: Histograms, Cause and effect diagram (also known as Fishbone or Ishikawa diagram), Check sheets, Pareto diagrams, Control charts, Scatter diagram and Flow charts.

Shigeo Shingo

Shingo provided his own version of Zero defect – ‘Poko-Yoke’, or ‘defect = 0’. He suggested that error sources should be identified at the initial stage of production and regular monitoring must be done at those crucial points to avoid its occurrence. If errors are found then the cause of those errors must be identified and eliminated immediately.

Genichi Taguchi

Genichi Taguchi made many important contributions during his lifetime. Some of his most important were probably in the field of quality control. Following are some of the major contributions that he made for the quality improvement world:

- The Loss Function — Taguchi devised an equation to quantify the decline of a customer’s perceived value of a product as its quality declines. Taguchi was the first person to equate quality with cost.
- Orthogonal Arrays and Linear Graphs — Taguchi devised a way to use orthogonal arrays to isolate outside factors or noise which cause deviations from the mean from all others in a cost effective manner.
- Robustness — Taguchi referred to the ability of a process or product to work as intended regardless of uncontrollable outside influences as robustness. He was pivotal in many companies’ development of products and processes which perform uniformly regardless of uncontrollable forces.

3.3.3 Principal Objectives

An organisation which adopts the philosophy of total quality, and its principles, is to be guided by a few general/principal objectives, in addition to its own specific ones. These are:

- Continuous improvement of the organisation which must be equal to or greater than that of any competitor;
- Continuous and relentless cost reduction;
- Continuous and relentless quality improvement;
- Total participation i.e., creating an organisation whereby everyone is working towards making the organisation the best in its area of activity; and to capitalise on the sense of achievement and working in a world-class organisation.

Continuous Improvement

Any organisation would take a natural and legitimate pride in its progressive improvement activities, which certainly are laudable and to be encouraged. It is, however, important for the organisation to perceive how these improvements are effected in relation to its competitors.

The process of quality improvement of an organisation depends upon its ability to:

- keep a constant vigil on the competitors' quality improvement programmes to combat them in time;
- measure its rate of improvement in relation to the competitors' which is very important and not just the fact of its getting better;
- obtain information about the competitors quality improvement through a mechanism of commercial intelligence; and
- monitor the quality improvement process to stay as the best competitor in the market.

Continuous and Relentless Cost Reduction and Quality Improvement

Cost reduction and quality improvement are not to be seen as conflicting each other in terms of achievement of both. Such a conflict may sometimes arise due to the different interpretation of the word quality. The word quality refers not only to the specification of a product or service but also to the processes which take place to achieve the quality required. A well run organisation may have everything properly set viz., the inflow of inputs, perfect processes taking place without hold-ups, hiccups, or redoing things, properly trained person doing their jobs perfectly and the customers getting their supply etc. In this situation, the best of both worlds i.e., better quality and lower cost can be achieved. It should, however, be clear that this is an idealist's approach.

Total Participation

The behavioural aspect of quality is the total participation of everyone working in the organisation, cutting across its vertical, horizontal and diagonal structural levels without any distinction between status, position and controlling power of the staff.

Quality concepts can be differentiated into two distinct groups: i) the hard or logical aspects of quality that include systems procedures, organisation, measurements, calculations, problem solving tools, etc. ii) the behavioural aspects that are distinct from the mechanistic aspects, is the human aspect of Total Quality. Neither of these two categories on their own can possibly get success to Total Quality, since Total

Quality requires an equal understanding, appreciation and application of both the aspects.

While scientific management contributes substantially to the logical aspects of Quality, the behavioural aspects constitute the human involvement aspects of Total Quality Management. It is founded on the belief that people produce their best results when they enjoy their work, in relationship with their colleagues with mutual trust, and respect. They display faith in the organisation and view their job opportunities as providing for self development with a feeling that their organisation is the best to serve. Thus in Total Quality organisation, everyone is working towards making the organisation the best in its business.

Self Check Exercise

2) State the principal objectives of Total Quality Management.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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3.4 QUALITY CIRCLES

Participative management sets the means and mechanism for the staff to involve them in achieving the goals of the organisation. One of the most effective means is the technique of quality circles, which replaces individual involvement with group participation. The concept of Quality Circles is central to TQM which ensures staff participation in full measure towards achieving the targeted goals of the organisation.

A Quality Circle is a small group of between three and twelve people who do the same, or similar work voluntarily, meeting regularly for about one hour per week, in paid time, usually under the leadership of their own supervisor, to identify, analyse, and solve some of the problems in their work, presenting recommendations to management and where possible, implementing the solutions themselves.

The significant expressions in the above definition are:

- A small group of people who do similar work;
- Between three to twelve people;
- Voluntarily meeting together;
- Meeting regularly for about an hour per week;
- Meeting in paid time;
- Under the leadership of their own supervisor;
- Identify, analyse and solve problems -in their work;
- Presenting solutions to management;
- Implementing the solutions themselves.

A Small Group

The Circle should comprise a more or less homogeneous group of people usually from the same work area. They will usually have a similar educational background; use the same technical jargons and no one member should be inhibited in any way by the presence of another. There may be exceptional circumstances wherein variations of this important requirement, may be acceptable, for example inviting specialists for a specific project when they need expert advice or guidance.

Between Three to Twelve People

The size of a Circle should be limited to ensure that the Circle is a team and not a committee. This team is precisely a Section's Circle and not an elite group in their work area. The size of the Circle has to be small to facilitate the participation of every member. Every member of the team should be encouraged to make suggestions and candidly express the ideas on Circle projects.

Voluntarily Meeting Together

This means that members are to attend and participate in the meetings of the Quality Circles out of their sweet volition, without any compulsion. People are free to join and free to leave. If a person joins the Circle and subsequently chooses to leave it, there should be no pressure, inquests, or recriminations. The person may be asked to express his/her reason for leaving. If there is a problem which could be sorted out amicably, the person may return to the group if he/she chooses.

Meeting Regularly

A regular meeting is habit forming, as the day of the meeting will soon be associated in the minds of the members as Circle Day; and so members are much less likely to forget to attend. The duration of the meeting should be flexible and proportionate to items to be discussed. Normally Circles do not keep minutes of meetings. They get down to work straight away. It has been known from experience that a great deal can be achieved in meetings lasting not more than an hour.

In Paid Time

The meetings are very much part of work assigned to a staff member of the organisation and hence has to be recognised as an official duty of the member. There is nothing extraneous to duty in this.

Leadership

As the Circle is concerned with purely work-related problems, the supervisor is the appropriate person to lead the group. However, once the group is formed, the members would soon realise that leadership could never be hindering any aspect of discussions. Decision making is a totally democratic process; no one's opinion is any more or less important than anyone else's.

Identify, Analyse and Solve Problems

The key point about this part of the definition is the fact that the Circles identify their own problems in their own work area. It is this aspect of Quality Circles that get their strength and the members the greatest satisfaction. They are not meeting to criticise the work of others irrespective of the linkages their work may have with the work of others. In fact, there are plenty of problems in their own work area which

can be brought under their control wherein they can apply their own knowledge and experience to get results.

Presenting Solutions to Management

After collecting data, trying out new ideas and discussing them over a period of time, if the Circle is convinced of the value of their solutions for improvement of a particular aspect of work, it is necessary to present their ideas to their manager. It is a good practice that all members of the Circle participate in the presentation to the management. While there is no obligation on management to accept the ideas of a Circle, they must be given serious consideration. If management decides to turn down a proposal, it really owes it to the Circle to give explanation for its rejection. It appears that Circle projects are usually so carefully thought out and done, outright rejection by management is quite rare.

Implementing the Solutions

Identification of a problem and solutions thought out, having been done by Circles, they can themselves often implement them. This is particularly true of housekeeping problems, reduction of waste material, energy saving, doing their own jobs better and so forth.

Organisation and Operation of Quality Circle

The essence of Quality Circles is to bring the self-control element to groups of people rather than individuals. The aim is to provide all the means by which employees can control their own performance, both individually and in group-based activities.

This concept goes far beyond simple problem solving, although problem-solving is usually the point where they start.

Self Check Exercise

3) Define Quality Circle.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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QC Development

Once a Circle is formed, it will pass through three distinct phases of development, and a fourth ultimate stage. Whether it ever reaches this final stage or not, is entirely dependent upon the objectives, policy and support of management.

Phase 1 Problem Solving

During this phase, the Circle will have been trained in simple techniques which will enable its members to identify, analyse and solve some of the more pressing problems in their own work area which will include:

- wastage of materials
- housekeeping problems
- delays, hold-ups, etc.
- inadequate job instructions
- quality
- productivity
- energy consumption
- environmental problems
- handling
- safety
- the quality of work life generally

These will usually be the problems that are uppermost in the minds of most employees. The steps for Problem Solving are as follows:

- **Identify the specific problem:** Decide about the urgency of the problem, see whether the problems are concrete and not abstract. The problem solving goals should be realistic but challenging.
- **Data Collection:** Instead of using historical data it would be better to collect data from the site. The collected data may be presented in the form of histograms, pareto charts, run charts which will help in identifying the problem area.
- **Determine the root cause of the problem:** Fishbone diagram may be used to find out the root cause of the problem. Solution may be made accordingly which should be the reversal of the cause. The causes identified should be further verified through correlation analysis.
- **Planning and implementing solution:** Find out the various alternative ways of solving the problem, rank them and test with what appears to be the best solution through pilot projects.
- **Confirm that solution works:** Gather data again to check if the solutions are working or not. Compare them with the earlier data and to see if there is any improvement.
- **Standardise the tested solution by documenting it:** Once it is confirmed that the suggested solutions are working well then it needs to be documented to standardise the procedure.
- **Review the process systematically:** After going through all the steps review them to check if the procedures adopted has been able to provide improvement. If it is working efficiently then move on to the other problems and the cycle continues.

Phase 2 Monitoring

When several of the simpler problems and many others have resolved and many others having disappeared as a result of other improvements in the work environment, the Circle begins monitoring the efforts for problem solving. By this time, the members should have been trained in simple control techniques and will be encouraged to use these to maintain improvements already made.

As the Circle begins to mature, and most of the techniques taught have been well practiced and understood, the confidence of the group will have grown considerably. The members will also have gained wider acceptance to their way of work by their colleagues in their own and other departments that might earn them respect. Now it is the responsibility of management to encourage this development and to introduce policy directions. It is about this time that the Circle will progress from just solving problems to the mentality of seeking ways of making improvements. Obviously, this will take a longer time in some cases than others.

Phase 4 Self Control

If the Circles pass through Phases 1,2 and 3, they develop maturity and begin to be trusted by management. The organisation begins to realise much of the early potential available from this style of management and seek ways of both furthering the continuous development of the existing Circles, and encouraging the formation of new ones.

The development of existing ones involves two factors - internal and external. Internally, it is necessary for the organisation to ensure that such Circles have access to all the information, training aids, and techniques necessary for them to progress when encouraged to do so. They may indulge in self-study. They must necessarily get support from the management in the form of quality control data, access to courses both inside the organisation and externally. They should have access to technical journals relating to their area of work and attend in-house seminars to be abreast of latest developments in their respective fields.

Externally, Circles should be given the opportunity of communicating with professional, educational and specialist institutions, and also of making either direct or indirect contact with suppliers when relevant to their activities. They should be permitted to attend national and international conventions of Quality Circles which would facilitate them to exchange ideas and experiences. Opportunities should be created to encourage Circle members to participate in self-developmental outside of work.

Self Check Exercise

- 4) What aspects are accomplished in each phase of the development process of Quality Circle.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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Basic tools and techniques

Some of the basic tools and techniques used in implementation of TQM and for problem solving are discussed in this section.

Statistical Tools

Kauro Ishikawa suggested seven statistical tools for the quality control: Check sheets, Histogram, Scatter diagram, Control Chart, Pareto chart, Cause and effect diagram (fishbone diagram) and Flow charts. The check sheets are used to collect data. The histogram represent graphically the data. Scatter charts shows the relationship between two variables. Control charts help in finding out if the process is under control or not. Pareto chart helps in identifying the main causes of the problem. The fishbone diagram help not only to identify the root causes of the problem but also their possible effect. Flow charts are different from other tools in the sense that it is not based on any data. It is used to represent graphically different processes and work flow in the organisation.

Benchmarking

It is a way of finding out what the best practices and processes are in the business and adapting and implementing those practices in the organisation. The objective is to obtain a clear understanding of the competitors and of the customer's requirements. It involves the following steps:

- understand from customers perspective how they rate one product from another;
- set standards on the basis of the best practices of the leaders in the market and benchmark those organisations;
- find out how the benchmarked organisation achieve those standards;
- utilise the capabilities of personnel to achieve those standards;

Benchmarking of the processes involves the following steps:

- Identify which characteristics to benchmark using pareto charts to find out the vital few. Benchmarking for the quality will include aspects like reliability, longevity, consistency accuracy etc.
- Collect information to decide which organisation to benchmark i.e. 'who is the best?' gathering data through annual reports, press articles, academic studies, consultants;
- sharing information with partners-surveys, site visits, third party;
- Analysing data : compare data and try to surpass the competitors;
- Implementing changes: set new standards and change the processes accordingly.

3.5 ISO 9000

The ISO 9000 originated from the quality standards of the US Department of Defense. The British Standards Institution (BSI) adopted the Department of Defense standards and expanded it to include the whole business process. The BS 5750 was published in 1979 to include broad range of business and organisations. At the same time EN 29000 was developed to cover the European Community. In 1987 International Standards organisation adopted the BS 5750 standard and the ISO 9000 series was published. The ISO 9000 though mainly based on BS 5750 standard reflects the international requirement. The success of ISO 9000 lies in the fact that the three standards ISO 9000, BS 5750 and EN29000 have been harmonized and are now equivalent.

The ISO series comprises 9000, 9001, 9002, 9003 and 9004. The details are provided in the table 3.1:

Table 3.1: ISO 9000 Series

<i>Standard</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Coverage</i>
ISO 9000	Guide to Selection and Use	Defines elements of each standard. It covers quality management and general guidelines for selection and use.
ISO 9001	Specification for Design	Model for quality assurance in design, development, production, installation and servicing.
ISO 9002	Specification for Production	Model for quality assurance and installation in production and installation
ISO 9003	Specification for Final Inspection and Testing	Model for quality assurance in final inspection and testing.
ISO 9004	Quality Management and Quality Systems Elements	It covers quality management and quality system elements of standards Guidelines 9001 to 9003. Provides guidelines for development and implementation of quality system

The ISO 9000 series does not lay down goals and objectives; it rather provides a framework, methods and structure for organisations to adopt quality systems. It is applicable to virtually any type of organisation. The standards have been developed keeping the manufacturing units in mind. As a result it is not very useful for the service sector. These standards are for quality management systems and go beyond technical specifications. The emphasis of ISO 9000 is to assure that the manufacturer's products are consistently same always even if all employees are changed over a period of time. For this purpose documentation is strongly recommended. Three sets of documentation are required for the purpose:

- **Quality Manual** — covering quality policy and objectives of the organisation; organisation chart and the statement of responsibility of each person in the organisation.
- **Procedure Manual** — showing flow charts indicating the different procedures in the organisation.
- **Work Instruction** — detailed instruction for specific tasks that are carried out everyday.

For registration to ISO 9000, a third party audit needs to be carried out by the organisation. Registration is process based and not product based. The company is assessed on the basis of the documentation of what it does and how far it complies with the documented facts.

3.5.1 ISO 9000 vis-à-vis TQM

ISO 9000 though advisory in nature could be a valuable component of TQM. While ISO 9000 points out the fault areas, the TQM provides ways and means to tackle these faults. Implementation of ISO 9000 requires the organisation to focus on customer needs and fulfill the quality requirement. The integration of ISO 9000 in TQM system would require every product or service to meet the customer needs and agreed specifications. Therefore, it could be seen as a valuable component of TQM.

3.5.2 ISO 9000 in Libraries and Information Centers

Library and Information Center activities cover acquisition, processing and dissemination of information. User satisfaction is crucial to its activities. Therefore, implementation of ISO 9000 in library/information center could be quite helpful in providing quality services to its users. Library and information centers are generally part of a parent organisation and hence its objectives and goals are guided by the organisation's overall objectives and goals. Registration for the standards will generally depend on whether the organisation is adopting it or not and it will adopt it as a part of the organisation. It is rare that library alone go for implementing or registering for the standards. The standards are generally meant for manufacturing organisation and most part of it may not be relevant for the library at all. However, some part of it could be adopted, for instance the requirement of documentation of the processes. The requirement for documentation is quite challenging and new efforts are needed for the purpose. Adhering to the standards will help in identifying the gaps and loopholes and out of date practices in the library. It can provide a framework for managing processes and operations of the library. The documentation requirement will enable it to standardise procedures and stick to the documented quality specification.

3.6 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT FOR LIBRARIES AND INFORMATION CENTRES, SYSTEMS AND SERVICES

Total Quality Management combines theories, tools and organisational models developed over time in Japan, European and US industries. In simple terms it refers to a system of continuous improvement centered on customer needs. TQM is not entirely a new technique for libraries and information centers, because they are already user focused and strive for continuous improvement. However, it offers a more formal and systematic approach of focusing on continuous improvement. Basic Elements of TQM applicable in Libraries and Information Centers are:

User focus: User satisfaction must be the prime mission of the library and information center. Library users are of varied types with varied needs. Library users could be both internal as well as external. It is therefore, important to identify their needs through surveys, questionnaires, suggestion boxes etc. Library services may not be restricted to the users need. It may go beyond their expectations. Priorities may be set to decide what to achieve. Improvements then should be geared towards achieving those set priorities based on user requirement. Thus quality service will be one which responds to the user needs.

Long term commitment: TQM is a long-term process and not a quick fix method to achieve short-term goals. The changes are to be brought about gradually and the organisation must be totally committed towards continuous improvement process. The improvements to be implemented should be based on the user requirements and not on any trend or availability of new technology.

Decisions based on data: To bring about change it is essential to plan and make decision on the basis of relevant data and not on intuitions. It is therefore, essential to set up proper management information system for the purpose of decision making.

Team structure: Teams or quality circles may be set up to look into various problems and suggest necessary solutions. The team should comprise a team leader who has

direct links with the management, a facilitator and the employees who are directly involved in the work.

Change in the process: To achieve quality it may be necessary to change processes or reengineering of the whole system. It is therefore, necessary to thoroughly analyse the system, processes and functions to bring about changes.

Empowering employees: employees working in a particular job know the problems of a system and can suggest solutions. Empowering them to suggest solutions will provide them with a sense of involvement and they will be committed towards the quality goal of the organisation.

3.6.1 Relevance and Importance of TQM

What is attempted in the whole process of TQM is to introduce a new cultural change, through changing the style of people management which is likely to bring about greater participation from the employees who would work with the management to achieve the organisation goals and objectives. Management rewards comes from the following:

- Work itself becomes more interesting through greater involvement of employees;
- Increase in general productivity;
- Lower absenteeism because of greater job interest and satisfaction to employees;
- Fewer grievances among the employees;
- All round greater team spirit.

Top management must convey to middle management that it believes in TQM approach with the design of a deliberate policy. Middle management is expected to conduct the affairs keeping TQM policy in view, conveying the decision to supervisors. Once the entire organisation is geared to the change, the new culture would get engrained in the organisation leading to success.

A dramatic change is occurring in the scope and pace of technological advances that are contributing substantially to a fundamental shift in library and information products and services. This shift, although slow and halting in our country, is sure to affect the roles and responsibilities of professionals, alter working relationships and communication patterns, and a compulsion to provide alternatives to the existing information organisations. No longer can we talk about just computerisation of library and information services, but should examine the place of libraries in the context of information/ knowledge society. Information and communication technology has various components - microcomputers, telecommunications with local, national and international networks offering electronic mail and conferencing systems, CDROM and other optical disc formats, offering bibliographic, textual and graphic products etc., all suggesting major opportunities and challenges for libraries and information professionals.

The information context in which libraries and information professionals may have to operate will be far more different than ever in the past, with more complex issues to be addressed and an environment in which the pace of change is likely to be highly accelerated and the risks and competition much greater.

As the shift from an industrial to an information-based economy takes place, there will be far more aggressive participants in the production, processing, dissemination

and distribution of information than ever before. Competition will be forthcoming from product designers, computer experts, telecommunication specialists, publishers, management specialists and many others. There is likely to be an increasing emphasis on commercialisation of information and pricing of information would be a normal feature as against the current general view that information is a public good and should be available at no cost to a user. It must also be remembered that users will have many options to choose from to access information.

The issues before library and information professionals is how to cope with the increasing demand for information from a variety of users, use of ICT to redefine services, roles and responsibilities. In fact the real issue would be to retain and reinforce the basic role of the library as a primary provider of information. The redefinition of the library, however, will have to be in relation to the future opportunities and challenges. The aim and effort are to transform the library into an institution of creativity, entrepreneurship, innovation and productivity vis-à-vis the information provision.

It is against this background that we should examine management of libraries and information centres. The philosophy of participative management, involving every group of personnel to achieve total quality in every aspect of library and information work would now become relevant, meaningful and valuable.

Total Quality Management which blends the principles and practices of scientific management and participative management has to be given a fair trial. Undoubtedly it is only with an abiding faith in this philosophy that this culture can take roots in the country.

3.6.2 Quality Improvement Efforts

Effecting quality into library and information systems and services has been a continuous national and international activity of professionals in the last half-a-century. These efforts have resulted in the creation of institutional, national and international standards and specifications. Evaluative studies (experimental and operational) in many aspects of information storage and retrieval, user studies to orient information systems and services to user needs, citation practices to measure contributions of individuals, institutions and journal titles in different disciplines and similar others have developed tools and techniques not only to create an awareness to produce work of high quality but also to evolve several useful yardsticks for measuring performances.

Evaluation Studies

Most of the quality improvement efforts have been on two streams viz., evaluation of information systems and services and value added information systems and services. Although there are overlapping areas, each has evolved a model which could be applied to measure and improve standards of performance. The triple objectives in the former studies are:

- a) Provision of better products and services: These efforts range from basic research on new types of retrieval system, through user studies and database comparisons, to the most detailed analysis of minute aspects of operational systems. The main purpose of these studies is to evolve rational evaluation of existing systems and services to identify gaps accurately and to suggest feasible solutions;
- b) Justification of existing services: The ostensible purpose of evaluating existing systems and services is to show their effectiveness and to justify expansion and diversification;
- c) Improved

understanding of systems: Evaluation of inherently complex library and information systems, by both operators and users is the means of ensuring a reliable and in-depth knowledge of what the system actually does and how it is best used.

Evaluation of library and information systems and services is a key concept, underscoring the importance of quality improvement and justifying the value of these systems, the appreciation by both operators and users of the potential and limitations of the systems and services.

Value Added Information Model

Robert S Taylor has provided the clearest and fullest statements on the scope and relevance of value added information, in developing a model for understanding and evaluating information systems and services. For Taylor, the adding value within an information system is essentially a progression from data, through information, informing knowledge, and productive knowledge to action. This is brought about by the application of four processes: organisation, analysis, judgment and decision. These are the crucial and distinguishable requirements for added value.

Organisation is applied to the raw data to transform it into information by the establishment of relationships and structure, grouping, classifying, etc. Analysis converts this information into informing knowledge, by processes such as evaluation, validation, comparison and interpretation. Judgment, a consideration of the meaning of the information in a particular user context, gives the knowledge a productive quality. It is now ready to be applied in the final decision process, leading to action.

Taylor's model is of general applicability in assessing both the quality and the effectiveness of information systems. In support of his model, Taylor presents 23 specific values which may be added to information systems. David Bawden has presented these values in six groups, from a user point of view:

Ease of use, noise reduction, quality, adaptability, time-saving and cost-saving.

Ease of use — Formatting, ordering, browsing, and physical accessibility.

Noise reduction — Item description, subject description, summary description, precision and linkage.

Quality — Accuracy, validity, comprehensiveness, and reliability.

Adaptability — Closeness to problem, flexibility, simplicity, stimulatory.

Time saving and **Cost saving** are self explanatory.

This model has been used for evaluating Value Added Networks (VANS), Value Added Data Services (VADS), information services, libraries, library technical services, abstracting and indexing services, information analysis centres, online searching systems, records management and decision support systems. These evaluative studies and value added concept and their practical manifestations are of great importance for the future of information management.

These efforts, as they are highly valuable in improving quality of library and information systems and services, are confined only to system improvement, sharpening of techniques and methodologies of evaluation and evolving measuring yardsticks, etc. Yet it is obvious that system quality can be achieved only if the entire staff involved in these activities is quality conscious and highly motivated to function with dedication and devotion.

This again leads us to Total Quality Management. In the succeeding section of this unit, let us examine some of the basic quality improvement programmes of personnel necessary and essential for the management of libraries and information centres.

Self Check Exercise

- 5) Give a brief account of efforts to establish quality in library and information systems and services.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.
ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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3.6.3 Quality Improvement Programmes

Looking into the future of management of library and information centres, systems and services, there is a necessity to evolve a total plan of professional education and training in the country. At the national level, a human resource plan for estimating the quantum and quality of professionals needed to manage and operate information institutions of the future is a sine qua non. The results of human resource planning would throw light on the need for a new brand of professionals with a blending of a variety of new skills to meet the challenges of high-tech information systems and services. Library and information science schools would have to reorient their curricula to cope up with the demands of the new situation. While this perspective will ensure a steady and regular supply of information professionals, continuous education programmes would update their skills and knowledge.

Short courses on newly developing areas may be offered by professional associations and societies at periodic intervals. Besides courses in the different aspects of information technology, courses in Quality assurance, Quality circles, Participative management, Leadership management, Technical writing for effective communication with particular attention for developing skills in software documentation, proposal writing, etc., specialised courses in different disciplines and subject areas, may have to be planned and offered.

Self Check Exercise

- 6) Suggest a few quality improvement programmes necessary for library and information professionals to meet new challenges and opportunities in the 21st century.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.
ii) Check your answer with the answers given at the end of this Unit.

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3.7 SUMMARY

This Unit dealing with total quality management highlighted the following aspects:

- Defined quality in management and explained the concept of total quality approach;
- Explained the need for quality improvement management;
- Given a historical perspective of the evolution of Total Quality Management;
- Delineated the principal objectives, elements, and benefits of Total Quality Management;
- Described in detail Quality Circles which constitute the central theme of participative management, organisation of Quality Circles in institutions in phases, tools and techniques for implementation;
- Examined the concepts of Total Quality Management in the present and future context of library and information systems and services;
- Suggested quality improvements programmes for library and information professionals to meet challenges and opportunities of information systems and services of the future.

3.8 ANSWERS TO SELF CHECK EXERCISES

- 1) The quality of an organisation is always focused on customer satisfaction. This is achieved only when all the factors governing customer satisfaction are given even attention. This is Total Quality Approach. The dynamism of quality has to be kept in view. Quality is a continuous and unending process. Organisations have to respond to any change that takes place in any aspect of work.
- 2) The principal objectives of Total Quality Management are:
 - Continuous improvement of the organisation which must be equal to or greater than that of any competitor;
 - Continuous and relentless cost reduction;
 - Continuous and relentless quality improvement;
 - Total participation i.e., creating an organisation whereby everyone is working towards making the organisation the best in its area of activity; and to capitalise on the sense of achievement and working in a world-class organisation.
- 3) A Quality Circle is a small group of between three and twelve people who do the same, or similar work voluntarily, meeting regularly for about one hour per week, in paid time usually under the leadership of their own supervisor, to identify, analyse, and solve some of the problems in their work, presenting recommendations to management and where possible, implementing the solutions themselves.
- 4) Once a Circle is formed, it will pass through three distinct phases of development, and a fourth ultimate stage.

In Phase 1 Problem Solving, the Circle will have been trained in simple techniques which will enable its members to identify, analyse and solve some of the more pressing problems in their own work area.

In Phase 2, the Circle begins monitoring the efforts for problem solving. By this time, the members should have been trained in simple control techniques and will be encouraged to use these to maintain improvements already made.

In Phase 3, Circle will progress from just solving problems to the mentality of seeking ways of making improvements. If the Circles pass through Phases 1, 2 and 3, they develop maturity and worthy of trust by management. The organisation begins to realise much of the early potential available from this style of management and seek ways of the early potential of both furthering the continuous development of the existing Circles, and encouraging new ones.

- 5) Two types of efforts have been developed to improve quality in library and information systems and services. They are: 1) Evaluative studies and 2) Value added models. The former examines existing library and information products and services to evolve standards of performances. measuring yardsticks to test efficiency of information retrieval systems, databases and networks.

Value added models have evolved methods for improving the quality of information from its stage of data, to information and to knowledge. At every stage value is added so that these could serve in making decisions and for other similar purposes.

- 6) In the fast changing context of library and information systems and services, a new brand of information professionals will be necessary with a variety of new skills and knowledge. Library and information science schools will have to reorient their course curricula to supply the new brand of professionals. The existing manpower in this field needs immediate attention to update and motivate them to join the mainstream of professionals that will emerge in the near future. Continuing education programmes in specialised areas are to be developed to keep the entire staff of information institutions well informed about current developments in the field.

3.9 KEYWORDS

Participative Management	: A style of management in which the employees take appropriate part in every activity of the organisation.
Quality	: The dictionary definition of 'Quality' of a person or a thing is a characteristic, innate or acquired, which, in particular, determines the nature and behaviour of the person or thing. The synonyms of 'Quality', are trait, character, feature, attribute, property, etc.
Quality Assurance	: QA is the method of and a philosophy for achieving better quality. It incorporates such areas as customer care standards and performance setting. It encompasses all activities and operations.

Quality Control

: QC is a process to determine how the technological, human, information and financial resources are being used effectively to get the best results.

Total Quality Management**Quality Circles**

: A Quality Circle is a small group of between three and twelve people who do the same, or similar work voluntarily, meeting regularly for about one hour per week, in paid time usually under the leadership of their own supervisor, to identify, analyse, and solve some of the problems in their work, presenting recommendations to management and where possible, implementing the solutions themselves.

Quality Improvement

: Adding value to information products and services using appropriate performance standards.

Scientific Management

: A style of management in which scientific management principles are applied to production, control, distribution and other activities in an organisation. This style does not give the right place to employees' participation in management.

Total Quality Management

: This is a style of management in which the best principles and practices of scientific management and participative management are blended appropriately to achieve success for the organisation.

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UNIT 4 CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Change Management Concept
- 4.3 Forces of Change
 - 4.3.1 Types of Change
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4.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit, you will be able to:

- understand the basic concept of change management;
- learn the various forces of change which operate on an organisation and the various types of change;
- discuss various models of change and different strategies for change;
- explain reasons for resistance to change, and how to overcome it;
- understand the concept of organisation development; and
- discuss change management in library and information centres.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Change has always been a norm of life but over the past few decades' widespread organisational change has assumed gigantic proportions. The developments in technology, increasing needs of society, and the emergence and growth of global organisations are some of the factors that have contributed to the need for, and frequency for change. Planning, implementing and managing change in a fast changing environment is increasingly the situation in which most organisations now work. People are normally resistant to change as change affects structures and procedures, job security and terms and conditions, social structures etc. Identification of the need for change and leading organisations through that change, therefore, needs effective change management. This unit discusses some of the issues related to change

management and highlights its significance in the context of library and information centres.

4.2 CHANGE MANAGEMENT CONCEPT

“Change is the only constant” is a well known premise. Over the past few decades large-scale change has become a norm in organisational life. The organisations no longer have a choice, they must change to survive. The need for change is increasing, the capability to change is becoming essential for organisations to survive and succeed in future.

Rapid advancements in technology and globalisation of trade have given momentum to change. This momentum of change is not going to decelerate. However, a look at the intimidating rate of change into a technology-driven world, that has affected all spheres of life in the past decades, is more than enough to give a picture of the ever accelerating drive onwards.

As the speed of change continues to increase and affect all the sectors of life, change management is a fundamental competence needed to manage the change in organisations.

Thus in the present scenario managing change has assumed lot of significance. As change must be aimed at ensuring organisational survival, whether the economy is strengthening or weakening, the consequences of change being uncertain, proper management of change becomes even more vital.

The term change management can be defined in simplest words as the task of managing change. Thus change management is about change to realise business results and managing change involves the process of making changes in a well-planned, systematic manner.

In the words of Lisa Kudray and Brain Kleuier in the article “Global trends in Managing Change”:

“Change Management is defined as the continuous process aligning an organisation with its market place ... and doing it more responsively and effectively than its competitors.”

Change management can also be defined as the effective management of a business change such that organisational leaders, managers and employees work in concert to successfully implement the needed technology or organisational changes. Change management could be organisational or individual.

Organisational change management is the management of change from the perspective of the top leadership looking down into the organisation. It focuses on the broad change management practices and skills to help the organisation comprehend, accept and support the required changes. It provides the knowledge and skill to implement proper methodology for managing a change throughout an organisation. Organisational change management involves top level and middle level managers and the human resource managers who sponsor the change in the organisation.

Individual change management is the management of change from the perspective of the employees who are at the bottom level. These are the people who actually implement the change. In this the focus is on empowering them by providing them the tools and required training to help them in navigating their way through the change

process. For an effective individual change management, various tools and techniques are employed to help an employee transition through the change process.

In the context of library and information services, change is greater in extent than ever before. In libraries and other knowledge-based organisations the present information explosion and the consequent knowledge revolution has unleashed a gigantic wave of change. The changes that libraries and information services are facing today are unpredictable and unquantifiable. The political, economic, social and technological climate worldwide has created an atmosphere of uncertainty in which it is difficult to anticipate the future. Therefore, no matter how hard we try to project current trends into the future, it is not possible to predict the form of challenges facing the libraries and information centres. Thus in case of libraries and information centres it is not just a matter of managing change but a question of proper organising so as to cope with any uncertainty that comes across.

4.3 FORCES OF CHANGE

According to Carson (1998) “organisational change is any alteration of activities in an organisation. The alteration of activities may be the result of change in the structure of the organisation, transfer of tasks, new product introduction, or changes in attitudes of group members or process, or any number of events inside and outside of the organisation”.

All these factors constitute the different forces of change encountered by the organisations. These forces are the external and the internal forces of change for every organisation.

External forces

External forces of change originate outside the organisation. These forces arise in the social, political, legal, economic, and technological environments within which the organisation operates. The main external forces of change are technological advancements, demographic characteristics, market changes, social and cultural framework, legal system, political pressure, and economic factors. The technological breakthroughs taking place from time to time have a direct bearing on the competence of organisations in an industry (or sector). The various advancements in technology can enhance an organisation's performance if it is able to learn, assimilate and imbibe the newer technologies in its functioning. If an organisation fails to keep up with the pace of advancements, it faces the danger of lagging behind or becoming obsolete.

The emergence of global economy with liberalised trade policies and easy cross border business in the world market has directly affected the way various organisations operate and function. Organisations are controlled to a large extent by various economic factors like interest rates, inflation etc., over which they have little or no control.

The social-cultural framework includes the norms, values and beliefs associated with a particular demographic area or region. The various legal and governmental systems within which the organisation's function, also influence their performance. The various developments taking place in countries outside the organisation's home country can also trigger change within the organisation.

The Internal forces for change come from within the organisation. This constitutes the internal environment of an organisation and includes factors such as the organisation members, the nature of their interactions and the physical atmosphere in which they operate. Human resource problems, managerial decisions, changes in organisational goals etc. are some internal forces of change. These changes take place within the organisation's culture, which is the general condition within organisations, and consists of shared values, norms, beliefs, and assumptions that unite members of an organisation.

The various internal and external forces can be highly interrelated. At times the internal forces do have some part of their origin in the world external to the organisation. Therefore, both the external and internal forces of changes must be assessed, monitored and evaluated to devise a proper strategy for organisational change.

4.3.1 Types of Change

Carson (1998) has mentioned three kinds of change:

- i) **Adaptive change** – This involves reimplementation of a change in the same organisational unit. Adaptive change is not considered threatening.
- ii) **Innovative change** – This involves changes that are generally new and unfamiliar. The innovative changes create a kind of uncertainty and fear in organisations.
- iii) **Radically Innovative change** – This is the most intimidating type of change. This type of change is most resisted in organisations. Implementation of a radical change in an organisation requires a long-term strategy.

Changes in organisations can also be categorised as:

- **Reactive change** – This is change brought about by a sudden or unplanned event.
- **Planned change** – This is a systematic, deliberate change in the way part or all of an organisation functions. In planned change the focus is on processes, people, or technology; and one person, a project team, a department, or the entire firm can be involved in the change process.

4.4 CHANGE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Fundamental ideas exist about change and one fundamental is that change has always existed and will always exist. According to Smith (1998), "Change starts with a goal, often called a vision... and the difference between the goal and the status quo is the intended change". Before affecting a change a proper study must be made regarding all those who will be involved in the change process and all those who will be affected by the anticipated change.

Management of a change process involves four broad stages:

- i) **Planning** – In the planning stage the organisation determines a need for change, creates a change management team and develops a plan of action.
- ii) **Implementation and Management** – In this stage the change plan is executed and the main focus is on implementing, managing and maintaining the change process, so that the change is affected smoothly without hiccups.

- iii) **Development of Tracking and Monitoring Instruments** – In this stage various tracking and monitoring instruments are developed to assess the successes or failures of the change so that necessary adjustments can be made. Likewise, precautionary measures, if required, can be adopted.
- iv) **Tracking and Monitoring** – This is the final stage and “consists solely of continuous tracking and monitoring until the organisation has institutionalised the change” (Wilbur, 1992).

As Smith (1998) has stated, the change management team must be willing to “listen and monitor constantly... and ensure adjustments are made with the goal always in mind” throughout all the four stages of the change process.

4.5 DIFFERENT MODELS OF CHANGE

For a thorough understanding of change, and proper planning, management and implementation of the change process, various models of change have been proposed. Some of these are discussed below:

Kurt Lewin's Model

Kurt Lewin had a profound influence on the theory and practice of change in organisation. Most theories of organisational change originated from the landmark work of this social psychologist. Lewin (1947) instituted a three-stage model of change which explained how to initiate, manage and stabilize the change process. The three stages of change, according to this model are, unfreezing, changing, and refreezing. Let us first go through the various assumptions underlying Lewin's model of change (USDA). These are:

- 1) The change process involves learning something new, as well as discontinuing current attitudes, behaviours, or organisational practices.
- 2) Change will not occur unless there is motivation to change. This is often the most difficult part of the change process.
- 3) Individuals are the centre of all organisational changes. Any change, whether in terms of structure, group process, reward systems, or job design, requires individuals to change.
- 4) Resistance to change is found even when the goals of change are highly desirable.
- 5) Effective change requires reinforcing new behaviours, attitudes and organisational practices.

Let us now consider the three stages of change as suggested by Lewin:

Phase 1—Unfreezing

This stage involves preparing the organisation for change. The main focus is on creating the motivation to change. Change is more likely to be successful when those involved are prepared for what is to happen. Therefore, individuals are encouraged to replace old behaviours and attitudes with those desired by the management. In unfreezing stage organisation begins to encourage the employees to address the change, inform employees of the process, and thus dispel false information. This stage thus helps in creating conditions for the change to be implemented.

Phase 2—Changing

This stage involves planning and implementing the change. Once a change has been initiated it is important not to lose momentum. As change involves learning, this stage entails providing employees with new information, new behavioural models, or new way of looking at things. The main purpose is to help employees learn new concepts or points of view. Role models, mentors, experts, training etc. are various mechanisms employed to facilitate the change. Gradually, the employee behaviour begins to change, causing a change in organisational attitudes, corporate values and management practices. Thus, the changing stage requires organizing and mobilizing the resources required to bring about the change.

Phase 3 — Refreezing

This stage involves embedding the new ways of working into the organisation. The main focus is on consolidating the organisation in its new mode of operation. It can be all too easy for people to try to return to the “old way of doing things”, especially if the change is a bit difficult or uncomfortable to achieve. Change is stabilised during refreezing by helping the employees integrate the changed behaviour or attitude into their normal way of doing things. For accomplishing this, first the employees are given a chance to exhibit the new behaviours or attitudes. Once exhibited, positive reinforcement is used to reinforce the desired attitude. Praising successful change in practice and attitude can assist the process of refreezing. Coaching and training can also be used for reinforcing the change in the informal culture of the organisation.

In his model Lewin identified three ways that organisational change could be accomplished (Branch, 2002):

- i) Changing the individuals who work in the organisation (their skills, values, attitudes and behaviour).
- ii) Changing various organisational structures and systems like reward systems, work designs, relationships etc.
- iii) Directly changing the organisational climate or interpersonal style i.e., issues like how often people are with each other, how the conflict is managed and how decisions are made.

This model has attracted major criticisms. The key ones are that his work assumed organisations operate in a stable state, was only suitable for small-scale change projects, ignored power and politics, and was top-down and management driven. But rather than being outdated or redundant, Lewin’s approach is still relevant to the modern world.

Beer’s Model

According to Stafford Beer, a complex system has to be dealt with by means that are equally complex. Beer’s model looks similar to the human organism and describes what makes for the viability of living, social and cognitive systems. These conditions for viability and the ability to evolve can be applied not only to human beings and their organisation but also to information systems such as computers, software, and organisational tools and actions.

Beer considers the human organism as three main interacting parts – the muscles and organs, the nervous systems, and the external environmental. According to Stafford Beer’s Viable System Model (VSM), any system has three elements:

- i) The operation
- ii) The metasystem
- iii) The environment

He further suggested five systems for creating a whole from the parts.

- 1) System 1(S1) – This system is called operation, is the part that actually does something. It could be the muscles, the machines, the producers.
- 2) System 2 (S2) – This system deals with resolution of conflicts which occur as the parts of S1 interact. System 2 is also giving the job of ensuring stability.
- 3) System 3(S3) – This system regulates the working of system 1 and its main function is optimisation of various interactions.
- 4) System 4(S4) – This system ensures the survival of the optimised set of operational units in a changing environment. It produces plans to ensure long term viability. Thus it is concerned with adaptation to the changes and forward planning.
- 5) System 5(S5) – This system provides the ground rules and the means of enforcing them to ensure that the system is complete. System 5 provides the ultimate authority and is primarily concerned with policy making.

These five systems form the basis of the Viable Systems Model. This model can be applied to any and all systems which are viable in the sense that they can maintain a separate existence.

Beer has prescribed a six-step process to achieve effective change. These stages are:

1) Preliminary Diagnosis

In this various units comprising the organisation are considered, to identify the operational units, the parts which deal with stability and optimisation of the operational units, the parts which make long term plans and the policy systems. This gives a basic model representing the entire organisation in its totality.

2) Designing Autonomy

This involves developing a shared vision of how to organise. The main focus is on creating the right conditions for all the operational units to function with as much autonomy as possible.

3) Balancing the internal environment

This is done by fostering consensus, competence and commitment to shared vision. The focus is on ensuring that conflicts are resolved and the performance of the operational units is optimised.

4) Information Systems

Proper up-to-date systems must be maintained. The essence of the VSM approach to information is that you need to know if something changes. The emphasis is on providing operational units with the information they need to learn and adopt to changes.

5) Balance with the Environment

This involves developing strategies for adapting to changes in the external environment of the organisation. These could be change in the market or emergence of new technology.

6) Policy systems

Policy systems need to be developed to institutionalise the change through formal policies.

Thus the *Viable System Model* describes the crucial capabilities that constitute the viability of cells, organs, organisms, human beings, teams, companies, organisations, associations, institutions, corporate groups, international bodies etc. In organisations, the Beer's Model can be used as a means of analysing or diagnosing, designing, regulating and developing all the systems and subsystems that are present.

Prosci's Change Management Maturity Model

This model is based on benchmarking research and interactions with companies going through change. Prosci's change management maturity model describes the varying levels of change management capability across organisations. The maturity model has five levels or stages, from no change management to organisational competency. Each level involves more attention and management of the people side of change. A common methodology, that is built on situational awareness and customisation, allows the entire organisation to move towards Level 4 and Level 5 while retaining the flexibility for individual groups and departments.

Level 1

At this level, project teams are not aware of and do not consider change management as a formal approach for managing the people side of change. The main focus of the management is on funding, schedule, issue tracking and resource management. Employees are not informed about the proposed change and come to know about it only through rumours and gossip.

Level 5	Organisational competency	Change management competency is evident in all levels of the organization and is part of the organisation's intellectual property and competitive edge	Continuous process improvement in place	Highest profitability and responsiveness
Level 4	Organisational Standards	Organisation-wide standards and methods are broadly deployed for managing and leading change	Selection of common approach	
Level 3	Multiple projects	Comprehensive approach for managing change is being applied in multiple projects	Examples of best practices evident	
Level 2	Isolated Projects	Some elements of change management are being applied in isolated projects	Many different tactics used inconsistently	
Level 1	Adhoc or Absent	Little or no change management applied	People-dependent without any formal practices or plans	Highest rate of project failure, turnover and productivity loss

Fig. 4.1: Prosci's Change Management Maturity Model

Level 2

In this level, elements of change management begin to emerge in isolated parts of the organisation. Change management is applied to isolated projects and those projects that are currently experiencing resistance to change. At this level change management is not fully integrated into project management.

Level 3

At this level also change management is localised to particular terms or areas in the organisation. While structured change management processes are used, no organisational standards or requirements exist. Multiple approaches and methodologies are being utilised. Top level management takes on a more active role in sponsoring change. But there are no programmes to train project leaders or managers on change management.

Level 4

At this level, the organisation selects a common approach and implemented standard for using change management on every new project or change. A common change management methodology is selected and plans are developed for introducing the methodology into the organisation. Formal training in change management and other tools are provided to managers and supervisors. At this level teams regularly use a change management approach from the beginning of their project. Change management work begins at the planning phase of the project.

Level 5

At level 5, change management competency is a part of the skill set of the organisation. Managing change effectively is an explicitly stated strategic goal. Employees across the enterprise understand change management, why it is important and how they can play a role in making change successful. Managers and supervisors routinely use change management techniques to help support a broad range of initiatives from strategy changes to individual employee improvement. Extensive training exists at all levels of the organisation. Change management steps are completely integrated into project management.

RACI Model

The RACI model is a simple tool that can be used for identifying roles and responsibilities during an organisational change process. The RACI diagrams help to map activities to roles and define how roles contribute to an activity. Therefore, they can be used to describe what should be done and by whom during a change process.

Responsible – People who are expected to actively participate in the change process.

Accountable – Person to whom “R” is accountable and who is ultimately responsible for the results.

Consulted – People who have, a particular expertise, which can be utilised for making specific decisions. This also includes people who must be consulted for some reason before a final decision is taken.

Informed – People who are affected by change and therefore, must be kept informed, but need not be consulted.

	Programme Manager	PM Assistant	Board of Directors	Service Manager	Legal Adviser
Activity 1	R		A		
Activity 2	A	R		S	C
Activity 3	RA		I		I
Activity 4	RA				C
Activity 5	A	R		S	

Fig. 4.2: Example of a RACI Chart

(Source: <http://www.valuebasedmanagement.net>)

The various steps in a RACI process are:

- 1) Identify all the processes or activities involved and list them down the left hand side of the chart.
- 2) Identify all the roles and list them along the top of the chart.
- 3) Complete the cells of the chart: identify who has R.A.C.I for each process.
- 4) Every process should preferably have only one "R". A gap occurs when a process exists with no "R", and an overlap occurs when multiple roles exist that have an "R" for a given process.
- 5) Resolve overlaps, if any
- 6) Resolve gaps, if any.

Change Management Iceberg

The Change Management Iceberg given by Wilfried Kruger, enables to visualise the essence of change in organisation and the issue of dealing with barriers.

The top of the iceberg consists of three factors—cost, quality and time. These three are the prime factors of concern for the management.

Below the surface of the water there are two other factors of change management. These are:

- Management of Perceptions and Beliefs
- Power and Politics management

Promoters, Opponents, Middle opponents and potential promoters are individuals who could have negative or positive effect on the change process.

Promoters have a positive attitude towards the change and support the change.

Opponents have a negative attitude towards change. Their perceptions and beliefs need to be moulded by the management to change their mindset towards the affected change.

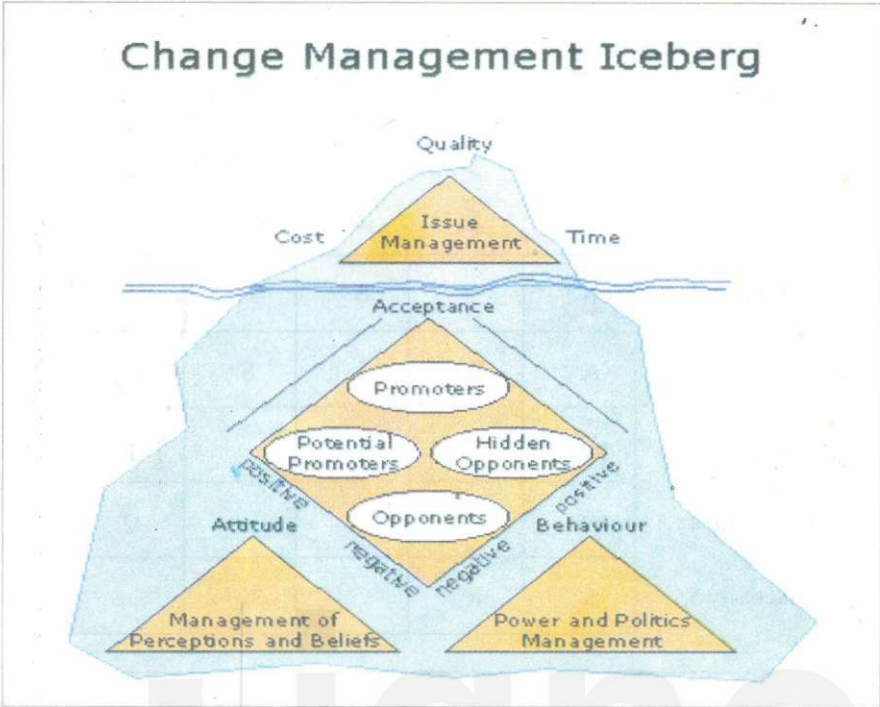


Fig. 4.3: Change Management Iceberg
(Source: www.valuebasedmanagement.net)

Hidden opponents are those who have a negative attitude towards the change though they seem to be supporting the change on the superficial level. Therefore, Management of perceptions and beliefs supported by adequate information is required to change their attitude towards the affected change.

Potential promoters have positive attitude towards the change but need to be assured about the change.

The Change Model

The Change Model (Change Formula or Change Equation) given by Beckhard and Harris (1987) is attributed by them to David Gleicher.

It is simple yet powerful tool that gives a clear representation of the possibilities and conditions to change an organisation. Beckhard and Harris suggested that a change will occur only when three factors (dissatisfaction with the status quo, vision of the proposed change and the first step towards the change) added together are greater than the cost or resistance to change. These three components must be present to overcome the resistance to change in an organisation. This change Model Formula is shown in Fig. 4.4.

$$C = D \times V \times F > R$$

C = Change
D = Dissatisfaction with the status quo
V = Vision of proposed change
F = First Steps
R = Cost/Resistance to change

Fig. 4.4: Change Equation

To meet the affected change all the factors of the change formula must be managed.

Self Check Exercise

1) What are the three stages of change according to Kurt Lewin's model of change.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

ii) Check your answer with answers given at the end of this Unit.

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4.6 CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

A change can be approached in a number of ways. A strategy which is most appropriate should be chosen to implement a change. Five different change management strategies which can be adopted for affecting a change are:

1) Directive Strategy

This strategy involves the use of authority to impose change. Directive strategy is undertaken by the top-level management with little or no involvement of other people. Here, the manager exercises his/her power and authority to manage the change. The advantage of this approach is that it can be undertaken quickly. On the other hand, this approach has a disadvantage that the views and opinions of those involved in or affected by the change are not taken into consideration. In directive strategy, the changes are imposed and not discussed or agreed, thus causing resentment among the staff members.

2) Expert Strategy

In this approach the management change is viewed as a problem solving process and help of an expert is sought to resolve it. In this approach there is likely to be little involvement of those who are affected by the change. In expert strategy the experts are involved for the proper management of change process. The major advantage of this approach is that with the help and guidance of experts the change can be implemented quickly and effectively.

3) Negotiative Strategy

In this approach the top management discusses the various issues involved with those affected by the change. This approach is marked by the willingness of the top management to negotiate and bargain in order to implement the change. The changes to be made are discussed and, the methods of implementation and the possible outcomes are also agreed upon. The disadvantages of this approach are that it takes longer to implement the changes, and it is difficult to predict all the possible outcomes. The changes made may not fulfill the overall expectations of the managers affecting the change. However, the major advantage is that this approach calls for the involvement of all the individuals affecting the change. Thus the management gets the participation and support from all the individuals.

4) Educative Strategy

Educative strategy is based on redefining and reinterpreting people's norms and values thus motivating them to support the changes being made. In this strategy the main focus is on individuals who are involved in the change process. It is believed that people's behaviour and mindset is composed of social norms and values. Therefore, in order to affect a change properly these existing values and beliefs must be changed and redefined first. For this a number of activities are undertaken which comprise education, training and selection, by consultants, specialists and in-house experts. The major disadvantage of this approach is that it takes longer to implement. Whereas the advantage is that it helps in developing positive commitment to the changes being implemented. Thus, this approach helps the management in garnering the support and participation of the individuals within the organisation towards implementation of change.

5) Participative Strategy

In this strategy all the individuals within the organisation are fully involved in the change process. Though the major decisions are taken by the top level management, the change process is driven more by groups or individuals within the organisation. Discussions and meetings are held and the views of all the individuals are taken into account before affecting the changes. Thus the focus is on the full involvement of all who are involved in, and affected by the proposed changes. The views of consultants and experts are also sought to facilitate the change process. The Major advantage of this strategy is that it allows for the participation of all the individuals involved in the change process. The changes implemented by the management get the support of all those affected. The individuals are provided an opportunity to increase their skills and knowledge about the organisation as a whole and its functioning. The main disadvantage of this approach that it takes longer to decide the major changes to be implanted, thus it is relatively slow to implement. It can also be costly and time consuming owing to the number of meetings that take place. Moreover, it is also not possible to predict the possible outcomes. This strategy is more complex to manage and requires more resources and costs.

These strategies are not independent or mutually exclusive. Depending on the situation and the changes to be affected, a range of strategies can be employed to implement the changes in an organisation. Effective change management involves assessment and monitoring to recognise what strategy/s to employ, when, where and how to use them in order to be most effective.

Factors Affecting the Choice of a Change Strategy

The proper change strategy can be chosen taking into consideration a number of factors. Even a mix of strategies can be adopted depending upon a number of factors. These basic factors are:

- i) The urgency of the need for change – based on the urgency for the implementation of the change process a suitable strategy can be chosen and employed. If the situation demands affecting the change in short time the quick change strategies should be chosen.
- ii) The degree of resentment to change – If the changes to be affected is bound to be opposed then the strategies which provide for larger participation of all the individuals within the organisation must be employed. But such strategies are relatively slow to implement. Therefore, the rate of change must also be considered.

- iii) The power of the individual/ group initiating the change – The individual or group initiating the change process must have enough clout within the organisation. Thus he/she will be able to overcome opposition or resistance to change if any, and implement fast change strategies.
- iv) The necessity for information and commitment – If the change process calls for the wider involvement of individuals in affecting the change, this necessitates the education of those involved in the change process. This involves informing the individuals about the various aspects of change and gradually developing commitment to the change process. This factor is essential for choosing strategy because any change can be fully achieved and sustained by the commitment and education of those involved in the change process. (The time period for implementation of change should also be taken into account.)
- v) Available Expertise – If adequate expertise for affecting the change is available then expert strategy can be employed. Otherwise strategies like directive strategy relying on the use of power and authority can be adopted. Even when using directive strategy or educative strategy or negotiative strategy, experts can be involved in planning and implementation of the change.
- vi) Target population – The size of the individuals involved in or affected by the change process must also be taken into consideration. Depending upon their skills, knowledge and attitude towards anticipated change, a mix of the above mentioned strategies can be employed.
- vi) Dependency Factors – If the organisation is more employee-oriented, the management's ability to command or demand is limited. Therefore, the management will have to involve the individuals in the organisation in the change. On the other hand, if the management is powerful and authoritarian, then the ability of the individuals in an organisation to oppose or resist any management decision for affecting a change is limited. If there is a situation of mutual dependency between the management and the individuals then the negotiating strategy can be adopted.

4.7 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Resistance to change can be defined as an individual or group changing in acts to block or disrupt an attempt to introduce change. Koonce (1996), notes that change is difficult because it forces new learning on people, and most people resist new learning a lot of time, as do organisations. Skoldberg (1994) stated that people tend to resist change for six reasons: fear, vested interests, lack of trust or misunderstanding, differences in assessment of the situation, limited resources, and inter organisational agreements.

Some of the reasons for employee's resistance to change are:

- i) **The individual's predisposition towards change.**
This could be very personal and deeply innate. This determines individual's attitude towards change which could be negative.
- ii) **Fear of the unknown**
Change always brings about fear of inability to cope with the anticipated change.
- iii) **Uncertainty**
Employees often resist change because they are uncertain about the impact the change will have on their lives. They may worry about job security or they may be anxious in face of the ambiguity associated with a new way of doing things.

iv) **Self-interest**

At times people have vested interests and definite perceptions of what is needed. They usually resist change as they feel that it will take away something of value of them.

v) **Satisfaction with the status quo**

People are often satisfied with the way things are now and with current priorities and working relationships. Therefore, they resist any kind of change.

vi) **Peer-pressure**

Often people resist change because of the peer pressure, even though they have a mental or positive attitude towards change. Group norms and pressure from the group influences their attitude towards change.

vii) **Disruption of cultural traditions or group relations**

Groups of individuals may be comfortable working together. Therefore, any change which causes disruption of cultural traditions or group relations in the organisation are resisted.

viii) **Lack of understanding and trust**

Some people resist change because they lack proper understanding of the need for change. At times they mistrust the initiators of change and fear that they are being manipulated.

ix) **Speed with which change occurs**

This also leads to resistance to change. At times the organisation itself may not be able to cope. On being overwhelmed by change, people affected by it, resist it. Rapid change causes anxiety and fear among people and leads to inhibition of the change process.

x) **Insensitive manner of change introduction.**

Change must not be forced upon the organisation. No person wishes to have change in his or her working environment forced upon him or her.

xi) **Difficult timing of change**

The organisation may not be ready for change. If the change is introduced at wrong time, this may cause resistance to change.

xii) **Fear of failure**

At times people are not well-informed about the anticipated change and are therefore skeptical about the success of the effort.

Force Field Analysis, developed by Kurt Lewin (1951) provides another way to look at resistance to change. This involves analysing the two types of forces, driving forces and restraining forces, that influence any proposed change and then assessing how best to overcome resistance.

According to Kurt Lewin “An issue is held in balance by the interaction of two opposing sets of forces – driving forces and the restraining forces”. Driving forces are those factors that put pressure for a particular change, whereas restraining forces are those factors that attempt to maintain the status quo and pressure against a change. At any given point in time, the two types of forces push in opposite directions, leading to an equilibrium that defines current conditions, or the status quo. In order to change the status quo to the desired condition, it is therefore necessary to increase the driving forces, to decrease the restraining forces, or to do both. Though managers tend to think in terms of increasing the driving forces, such increases, according to

Lewin, are highly likely to provoke a corresponding increase in the resistant forces. Therefore, the focus should be on reducing the restraining forces.

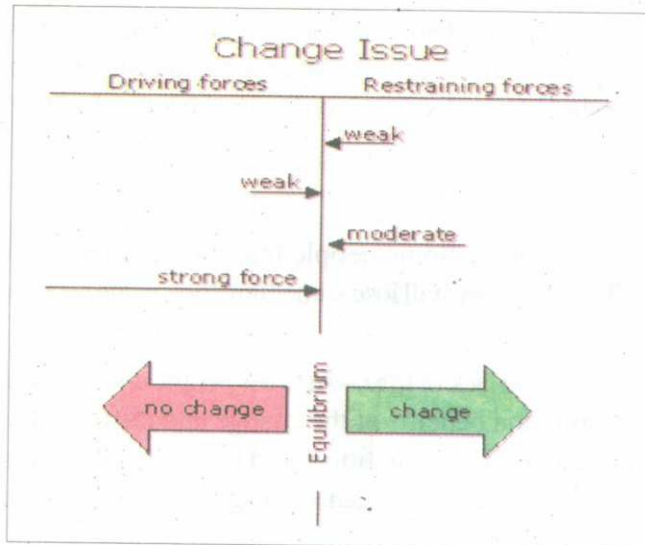


Fig. 4.5: Force Field Diagram

(Source: <http://www.valuebasedmanagement.net>)

Kurt Lewin developed Force Field Analysis using Force Field Diagrams. **The Force Field diagram** is a model built on the idea that various factors like persons, habit, attitude etc. act as force driving and restraining change. Driving forces are listed in the left column and the restraining forces in the right column. Arrows are drawn towards the middle. Longer arrows indicate stronger forces.

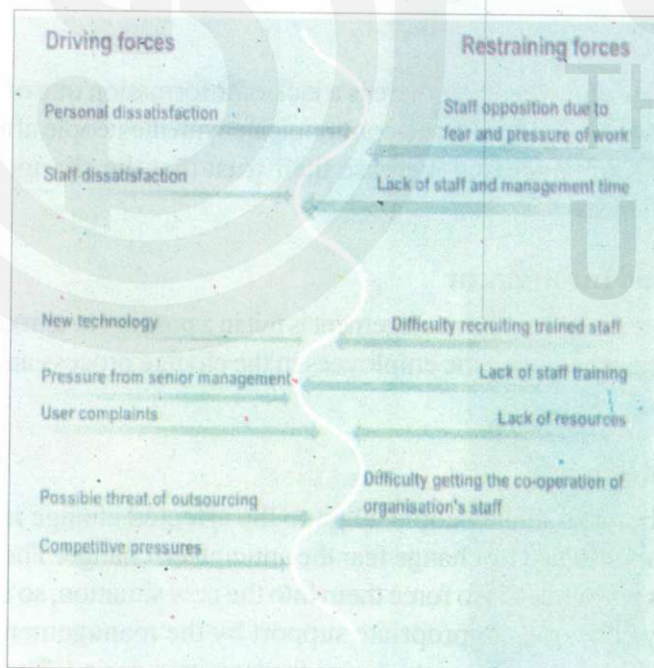


Fig. 4.6: Driving and Restraining Forces in a Force Field Diagram

(Source: <http://www.mhsc.org.uk>)

The diagram provides a mechanism to understand and depict all the forces acting on a change issue. This diagram can be used at any level – personal, organisational or project level – to visualise the various forces that may work for and against the various change initiatives. The force field analysis method helps to – investigate the balance of power involved in a change issue, identify the stakeholders and target groups, and visualise how to influence each target group.

John Kotter and Leonard A Schlesinger suggested a model to prevent or minimise resistance to change in organisations. This model related managerial strategies to the source of resistance to change. Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) suggest that there is no one way of managing every change, but one should adopt an appropriate approach depending on the particular situations. An appropriate strategy for change and management style should be selected according to the type of source of resistance.

According to Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) there are four basic reasons that people resist change.

- i) Parochial self interest – Some people fear the implications of change for themselves. They feel they will lose something they value such as power, status, money etc.
- ii) Misunderstanding and lack of trust – At times people affected do not understand the actual reasons and benefits of the change and mistrust the management initiating the change. This situation could arise because of communication problems and the people in the organisation getting inadequate information.
- iii) Low tolerance to change – Some people are very keen on security and stability in their work, and do not adapt to change by the very nature of their personality, or feel that they cannot cope with the changes that will effect them.
- iv) Different assessments of the situation – This condition arises when both the initiators of change and individuals affected by it disagree on the reasons for the change and on the advantages and disadvantages of the change process.

Kotter and Schlesinger have suggested six change approaches to deal with resistance to change:

Education and Communication

This approach is useful whenever there is a lack of information one of the ways to overcome resistance is to educate and communicate with the people affected by the change so as to for change and increase their trust that the changes are in the organisation's interests.

Participation and Involvement

This approach is useful when the management is not in a position to introduce change. The management can involve the employees in the change process and overcome resistance, if any.

Facilitation and Support

This approach helps to make people adapt to the affected change in situations, where individuals affected by change fear the anticipated change. The best way to prove their fears unfounded is to force them into the new situation, so that they can realise that they can cope. Appropriate support by the management also helps employees deal with fear and anxiety during the transition period. There should be provision of counseling, coaching, further training etc.

Negotiation and Agreement

This approach can be employed in situations where some group or people have fear of losing something (power, money etc.) in the affected change and, therefore may resist the change. The way of lessening such resistance is to negotiate something in return and offer incentives to those resisting change.

Manipulation and Co-option

This approach involves co-opting with the resisters. Co-option involves the patronising gesture in fringing a person into a change management planning group first just for the sake of appearances rather than any substantive contribution.

Explicit and Implicit Coercion

This approach can be employed in situations where change is imposed for the survival of the organisation and speed is essential. Management can explicitly or implicitly force employees to accept change by making clear that any resistance to change can lead to firing, transferring or losing jobs.

This model of six approaches helps in identifying the different types of resistance to change and in understanding different sources of resistance can be overcome by different approaches. Often, a combination of these approaches can be employed.

In his book “A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management (1990)” John Kotter has mentioned eight reasons for the failure of the change processes. These are –

- Allowing too much complexity
- Failing to build a substantial coalition
- Understanding the need for a clear vision
- Failing to clearly communicate the vision
- Permitting roadblocks against the vision
- Not planning and getting short-term wins
- Declaring victory too soon
- Not anchoring changes in the corporate culture

Kotter suggested the following eight phase model to avoid these mistakes.

- 1) Establish a sense of urgency
- 2) Create a coalition
- 3) Develop a clear vision
- 4) Share the vision
- 5) Empower people to clear obstacles
- 6) Secure short-term wins
- 7) Consolidate and keep moving
- 8) Anchor the change

The organisation as a whole must explore the core of any kind of resistance to change, validate its existence, and then try to minimise its impact through understanding and problem solving as emphasised by Stueart and Moran (2002).

Self Check Exercise

- 2) Mention the six change approaches suggested by Kotter and Schlesinger, to deal with resistance to change.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

- ii) Check your answer with answers given at the end of this Unit.

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4.8 ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

The evolution of a skilled approach to bringing about organisational change has led to the emergence of the field of management called Organisation Development.

Organisation development can be defined as an effort (1) *planned* (2) *organisation wide* and (3) *managed from the top*, to (4) *increase organisation effectiveness and health* through (5) planned interventions in the organisation’s “processes” using *behavioural-science* knowledge.

In recent times it is being realised that there is a need for a long-range, coordinated sustained strategy to develop organisation climates, ways of work, relationships, communication systems and information systems that will be congruent with the predictable and unpredictable requirements of the years ahead (Beckhard, 1969).

In the management literature organisation development is recognised as a process by which members of an organisation can influence change and help the organisation achieve its goal. The main purpose of organisation development is to increase the ineffectiveness and health of the organisation. In simple words, organisational development can be viewed “as an elaborate problem solving process”.

The objectives of organisational development include creating an open problem solving climate, supplementing the authority of role and status with the authority of knowledge and competence, locating decision making and problem solving as close to information sources as possible, building trust and collaboration, developing a reward system which recognises the organisational mission and the growth of people, helping managers to manage according to relevant objectives rather than past practices, and increasing self-control and self-direction for people within the organisation. Organisational Development is based on ideas and concepts from the behavioural sciences i.e., psychology, sociology and politics of individuals, groups and organisations.

The generally accepted goals of organisation development are:

- a) To create an open, problem solving climate throughout an organisation.
- b) To supplement the authority associated with role or status, with the authority of knowledge and competence.
- c) To locate decision making and problem-solving responsibilities as close to sources of information as possible.
- d) To build trust among persons and groups throughout an organisation.
- e) To make competition more relevant to work goals and to maximise collaborative efforts.
- f) To develop a reward system that, recognises both the achievement of the organisation’s goals (profit or service) and development of people.
- g) To increase the sense of ‘ownership’ or organisation’s objectives throughout the work force.

- h) To help managers to manage according to relevant objectives rather than according to past practices or according to objectives which do not make sense for one's area of responsibility.
- i) To increase self-control and self-direction for people within the organisation.
- j) To improve effectiveness of the organisation.

Process of Organisation Development

The organisation development process can be viewed as a series of six steps.

Step 1: Recognising a Problem

The recognition of the need to change is the first step towards making a change.

Step 2: Diagnosing the situation

This involves making personal assessment and thorough analysis of the potential problems. A careful study of the people and processes making up the organisation is also made.

Step 3: Identifying the problem and admitting it Exists

The main emphasis in this step is to make the key people affected by the problem to recognise it and "own it". This means that the people involved accept that they are a part of the problem, share responsibility for its consequences, and thus participate in identifying and implementing the changes necessary to solve it.

Step 4: Selecting and 'owning' a solution.

After recognition of a problem, the next step is to choose a solution to deal with the problem. The emphasis should be in involving all the individuals affected in determining a solution to the problem.

Step 5: Planning and Implementing the change

The next step is planning and implementing the change process. The solution selected in the earlier step is implemented in this stage.

Step 6: Evaluating the change

This stage involves evaluating whether the changes have produced the desired results or not. Depending on the results obtained further adjustments are made.

In this stage the impact of the changes which have been implemented, is evaluated. Organisation Development is a method for facilitating change and development in people (e.g., styles, values, skills), in technology (e.g., greater simplicity, complexity), and in organisational processes and structures (Friedlander, 1971). The organisational development process includes organisational analysis feedback from employees and managers and strategy development.

Self Check Exercise

- 3) Mention briefly the various steps involved in the process of Organisational Development.

Note: i) Write your answer in the space given below.

- ii) Check your answer with answers given at the end of this Unit.

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4.9 CHANGE MANAGEMENT IN LIBRARIES AND INFORMATION CENTRES

The library and information centres and other knowledge based organisations are faced with the rapidly evolving rate of change. This change is evolutionary because tasks, technologies and even organisational structure are dictated by constantly changing environmental pressures and relationships (Stueart and Moran, 2002).

The library and information centre is a complex organisation relying upon a trusting relationship among its various units. Worker's roles in adopting a change environment are enhanced as they are allowed, as far as capabilities permit, to grow beyond a traditional hierarchical job to the point of being involved in team problem solving activities (Weber, 1967).

There has been a steady progress in computerisation of almost all the aspects of library functions. The technological changes began with the development of computerised library catalogues, circulation systems, integrated library systems and most recently, the OPACs which have revolutionised catalogue searching. The development of the web and the web-based resources and access tools also has had a significant impact on the functioning of library and information centres. Library and information centres "have had to encompass these emerging services and sometimes embrace them within a traditional library framework".

The library and information centres are faced with substantial and multifold change issues which involve both human and resource factors. Most of all, these changes are often difficult to predict, as they are dependent on the ever-changing nature of technology. The various changes facing library and information services are unknown and unpredictable. Therefore, in the context of library and information centres, managing of change involves organizing "to cope with anything that might come along".

The basic change problems that library and information centres face are the massive challenge of technology; more complex and interrelated problems, shorter time spans; problem-solving that has to be innovative because old solutions will not work; a need to build cross-boundary and cross-sector collaboration; a need for management styles based on identifying common interests and sharing; personnel who are willing to take responsibility; more discerning users who are also ready to exercise some control over how their needs are met; competition and the loss of a previously unchallenged position (Pugh and Fawr, 1999).

Change requires strategic management, a more thoughtful approach. A good organisational climate is high in individual autonomy, low in job structure, high in reward and recognition of achievement (personal or organisational), and high in consideration, warmth and support (Soundek, p.337). Successful organisational change must include these measures as outcomes of the change process. The various theories, strategies, approaches and models for managing change work for libraries and information centres also. Librarians should adopt the approach which is most appropriate to them. The suitability of an approach can be decided on the basis of

personal preference, knowledge about management theories, the conditions in the organisation, and the nature of anticipated changes. The theoretical basis of change management in information services should be very firmly grounded in an awareness of organisational and environmental characteristics (Pugh and Fawr, 1999).

For proper management of change there has to be a “unity between theory, strategy, aims, process and operation”. Selecting a proper strategy is the first step in handling the issues of motivation and resistance in change management. Strategy illuminates, informs and guides the process, and it is the early decisions about how to proceed, that often influence the degree of difficulty and the ultimate success of a change project (Pugh and Fawr, 1999).

Today library and information centres have become complex organisations due to various factors such as:

- use of technology
- internal diversity
- increasingly discerning and informed users
- staff with increased expectations of development management
- the need to respond to rapid environmental change
- potential cross-sectoral working with other information services
- discontinuous change

Keeping all these characteristics, in view proper change management strategy should be adopted.

If the nature of anticipated changes is complex then they can be managed by adapting more flexible and participative strategies. In an organisation good at managing change, different parts should be allowed different modus operandi. Learning about application of knowledge should be at the centre of its operation. Decision making procedures should be decentralised and open, inputs into strategy and policy should be taken from all the parts of the organisation. Management should be participative, with an emphasis on people management.

Change management has become difficult in the case of library and information centres because of the multiple and unpredictable change factors affecting the information services, in the current period. In devising and using strategies for handling change, some basic principles such as an emphasis on the people aspect and also on the acceptance that the process of change is in itself an educational experience, must be underlined and reinforced (Pugh and Fawr, 1999). Creativity, free flow of ideas and innovation should be encouraged.

Managing of a change process involves managing of the people involved in the change process. For this the process of forging cultural change based on organisation development should be adopted. General problems with communication, management attitudes, resources, working conditions and procedures should also be dealt with. Numerous other factors like organisational environment, which also depends on the environment of the parent organisation, the service culture, which is the internal climate, the organisational structure and the preferred management style also influence the change process.

The organisation should not be of closed type i.e., impervious to change, inflexibly managed, exclusive in decision making, functionally organised, and resistant to any kind of change. If it is, then the focus should be on opening up the organisation,

building teams, encouraging natural and spontaneous change, experimenting, learning and creating an atmosphere of involvement and participation.

The library or information center can be regarded as an open system which receives input from the outside, absorbs it, transforms that information, and then transmits it back to the environment. This system consists of a number of subsystems. These subsystems continually interact in informal and formal ways within the overall system. Any change in any one component of the organisation invariably leads to a change in all the components.

There is a combination of forces acting on information services today. Political, social, economic, educational and technological influences are some of the forces driving change inside information services, and across information service sectors. These change forces are “powerful, numerous, complex, interrelated and far-reaching”. To handle these changes successfully, as Pugh and Fawr have stated, libraries will need to strengthen even further their sectoral and cross-sectoral links and collaborate more and more with commercial organisations in the interests of development and of service delivery.

The technique of conflict resolution should be a part of change management process. Organisation culture includes beliefs, relationships, the organisational ideology, social and professional relationships, communication channels, rewards and agreed method of doing things. Proper management of change also calls for a change in the attitude of people affected by change.

Libraries are developing into boundaryless organisations. The development of electronic and digital libraries, virtual libraries, is an indicator to the organisational form of library of the future. A sound approach to managing change in library and information centres should focus on strategic thinking and visioning a strategic vision for the future, and also deciding upon necessary choices about technological and facility investments, staffing, and service needs.

4.10 SUMMARY

In this unit we discussed about the basic concept of change management and various strategies which can be adopted for effective change management. We also studied the change management process and the various models of change. Any change invokes resistance among people affected by it. We studied about various reasons for resistance to change and the approaches to deal with that resistance. Participation, involvement and open communication are some of the factors which help to obtain people's involvement in the change process. Organisational development is an approach to organisational change that has received considerable attention in recent years. Organisational development is a process in which behavioural science knowledge, theory and techniques are employed to help an organisation improve its capacity for effective change. Information services are just like other organisations and various strategies and approaches available can be used for managing change in modern information organisations. The unpredictable and multiple changes facing the library and information centres highlight the importance and need for “real changes in management styles and leadership, real structural change, decentralisation and new ways of looking at education and training” (Pugh and Fawr, 1999). Change management in libraries and information centres should focus on “a way of managing which optimises organisational responses to change, and which embraces structural change, new ways of working, non-traditional ideas about control and responsibility, new forms of leadership and the creation of an organisational culture which has a

positive attitude to change embedded in it" (Pugh and Fawr, 1999), while involving the people, affected by change, in the entire change process.

Change Management can thus be used to create and maintain a healthy organisation, improve operations and culture, and anticipate and manage change.

4.11 ANSWERS TO SELF CHECK EXERCISES

- 1) According to Kurt Lewin there are three phases of the change process:
 - Unfreezing phase— This involves getting the need to change to be accepted.
 - Changing or Moving Phase— This involves putting the changes into effect.
 - Refreezing Phase—This involves consolidating the changes into the organisational system so that there is no revision.
- 2) Six approaches to deal with resistance to change as suggested by Kotter and Schlesinger are:
 - i) Education and Communication
 - ii) Participation and Involvement
 - iii) Facilitation and Support
 - iv) Negotiation and Agreement
 - v) Manipulation and Co-option
 - vi) Explicit and Implicit Coercion
- 3) Various steps involved in the process of Organisational Development are:
 - Step 1—Recognising a problem
 - Step 2—Diagnosing the situation
 - Step 3—Identifying the problem and admitting it exists
 - Step 4—Selecting and 'owning' a solution
 - Step 5—Planning and implementing the change
 - Step 6—Evaluating the change

4.12 KEYWORDS

Closed System	: A system that does not interact with its environment.
Economic Forces	: Pressures on a business that result from the nature and direction of the economy in which the business operates.
Environmental Forces	: External and largely uncontrollable factors that influence the internal structures and processes of organisations.
External Environment	: Social, political and economic factors that might affect an organisation.
Human Resources	: People needed to operate the business and to perform those tasks that require human talent, skills, and abilities.
Internal Environment	: The conditions inside an organisation.

Management	: Management is the process of leading and directing all or part of an organisation, often a business, through the deployment and manipulation of resources (human, financial, material, intellectual or intangible).
Objectives	: Intended or expected end results; recognised by effective managers as essential ingredients contributing to organisational performance.
Open System	: A system that interact with its environment.
Planned Change	: Systematic, deliberate change in the way part or all of an organisation functions.
Planning	: Determining the direction of a business by establishing objectives and by designing and implementing the strategies necessary to achieve those objectives.
Staffing	: Process of obtaining and keeping the number and type of workers, necessary, to accomplish an organisation's objectives.
Strategy	: A strategy is a long term plan of action designed to achieve a particular goal
Technological Change	: Changes in tools, equipment, processes, actions, materials, and knowledge with which an organisation creates and provides its products or services.

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