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Bachelor of Business Administration

PAPER–X

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

LESSON: 1- 20

MANPOWER PLANNING

STRUCTURE

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Process of Man-Power Planning

INTRODUCTION

It is obvious that any organization runs successfully only through effective planning, that too, in man-power planning. A right man should be appointed in the right place at the right time. The two main aims which stand behind are to utilize the present employees fully and to fill the future man-power needs. Man-power planning is done on two levels. One is at national level and second is at firm level.

DEFINITION

According to James J. Lynch:

"Man-power planning is the integration of man-power policies, practices and procedures so as to achieve the right numbers of the right people in the right jobs at the right time."

According to E.B. Geisler.

"Man-power planning is the process including forecasting, developing and controlling by which a firm ensures that it has the right number of people and the right kind of people at the right places at the right time doing work for which they are economically most useful."

The salient features of man-power planning may be clear here;

The first task should be done regarding taking stock of man-power with their skills, qualifications, the future requirement of man-power is estimated. Apart from death, retirement, and resignation, statistical account regarding supply of man-power with optimum skills are calculated. A balance between demand and supply of man-power is calculated. This planning should be benefited both to the organizations and the employees. To achieve these objects, proper recruitment, selection, promotion, training and development, transfers should be followed.

The main objectives of man-power planning are:

- The company's production may be increasing, and there is non-stop production for lack of employees.
- Deficiencies of the workers are notified through training.
- Labour costs may be reduced to a larger extent from under-employment, disguised unemployment through man-power planning.
- Excess man-power are taken out and only needed persons are recruited.
- Skilled persons are available.
- Only trained persons are put in higher positions and worker's morale are kept.
- To keep up the good will and name of the organization by man-power planning.
- Overall economic development can be made at the national level.

Man power planning by the planning commission covers: Population projections, programme of economic development, education facilities, occupational distribution etc. As there are short-term, medium-term and long-term man-power planning, it can be done according to the firm' capacity level.

PROCESS OF MAN-POWER PLANNING

The company's objective should be ascertained clearly for a meaningful planning. The two important things for man-power system are man-power demand and man-power supply. The total man-power requirement of each unit and department should be estimated first. Firstly, man-power demand forecasts should be made for future, and the time period for which such forecasts are made should be determined. Secondly, for estimating future forecast there is certainly of some errors for committing, so this point should be taken into consideration. Thirdly, all the forecasts should be done based on the historical data. By these plans, the firms can take proper decisions as and when needed. Simple Linear-Regression and multiple regression models are used as techniques for man-power planners. Next step after man power demand is the man power supply for cast. This includes both internal supply and external supply. Internal supply results form promotion and transfer within the firm, external supply results from the supply of labour market. The supply plan can be done by studying the man-power inventory analyzing the existing performance of the employees and the study of labour market situation. Next step is the study of man-power inventory. This does not mean totaling the number of employees working in a particular firm. This study should give a clear picture as follows:

How many employees are there in
- each unit, section, department
- age group
- sex
- the date of their joining
- their qualifications
- their capabilities
- their potentialities

whether they are capable of taking higher position which has the more responsibility.

- it should be sound and factual one.
- Each and every employee's qualification, training and experiences are to be noted.
- Other skills and abilities.
- Age structure in management should be taken.

Next step is the systematic examination of the data (ie) man-power audit. It describes and analyses the collected data. The analysis for man-power audit based on the following matters:

- Where to start and terminate.
- In recruitment, which type of labour is difficult.
- Salary and age distribution.
- Whether payment is made at competitive rates.

- The reason for leaving their work to elsewhere.
- The situation in nearly regions etc.

Next step is estimating man-power supply internally and externally. When a person leaves from the organization, it is a waste. So number of employees who leave in a particular year is to be calculated. Number of employees who have joined in a particular period is noted. A group of people is selected from the whole and its behaviour is examined for a short period during a year. The main advantage is that we can know about all the employees.

If internal supply of employees is not adequate, external supply of work force is to be depended. For this, man-power requirements are to be calculated, whether it would be suitable for the company's work situation. Man-power supply can be taken from employment exchanges, colleges, regarding their qualification and different branches of knowledge. After estimating this, next step is the budget, whether the new employee appointed from various man-power supply are able to be financed. So there should be equilibrium between the budgets and man-power plans. For power man-power plans, some points are to be remembered, they are

- Man-power utilization
- Man-power supply
- Training and
- Personnel Policies.

SUMMARY

Maximum productivity can be achieved through proper man-power utilization. For this, the jobs are to be done in a very efficient way. The employees are to be motivated for job satisfaction. Newly recruited persons require initial training; through training and development schemes, employees who get trained are required in future for higher positions. Personnel policies are to be made regarding salaries, perquisites, conditions of service etc, for long time working of the employees.

KEY WORDS
1. Optimum
2. Potentialities

REVIEW QUESTIONS
1. Explain about Manpower Planning?
2. Give the process of Manpower Planning?
3. Define Manpower Planning?

SOURCES OF RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

STRUCTURE
1. Introduction
2. Recruitment Procedure – Tests and Interviews

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays workers should have more administrative, technical and supervisory skills in business. Recruitment is the process of searching the good employees who are suitable for respective jobs. From external and internal sources, recruitment of employees can be made. Some of the important sources are employment agencies, advertising, schools, college, trade unions. The potential persons should be selected for recruitment. There are various sources through which the recruitment is well made. Sometimes, one of the employees' recommend certain person for recruitment. There is a particular agency called Consulting Agency which gives detailed particulars of each person who the firm

Needs. There is a possibility of campus interviews in management institutions. For example in II MS', IITS' its students are given professional training. So many companies find it more easy in recruiting talented persons in heavy posts. Next is through Advertisements in newspapers like Employment News, Times of India and Trade Journals are giving selected and qualified persons who match with the demanded firms.

After recruitment, proper selection should be done. Selection is the process of calling jobs from the persons who have applied for the posts in the organization. There are number of methods used in the organization. Selection process differs from one enterprise to another.

Firstly, it includes Application Blank, which gives details regarding personal details such as date of birth, marital status, sex, age, height, weight, address, educational qualifications, experiences, references with reference to some recommended letters etc.

Secondly selection is made through interviews, for this, the objective of the organization is to be clearly understood. Through interviews, the employee's ability, knowledge, spoken language can be determined. The employer should be prepared and planned for interview regarding job knowledge, back-ground information about the applicant, avoid leading questions, know how and when to close the interview.

Thirdly, medical checkup should be made (ie) physical examination, for technical jobs, medical fitness should be examined. So we can prevent giving any compensation for sickness after his appointment.

Fourthly, business games. This is very particular in management position, marketing and business enterprise. The employee is asked to give ideas for decision making, regarding problem situation. Through his answer, the employer can analyse all his abilities.

Fifthly, group discussion. All the persons are divided into groups and given a topic to discuss and given some time. Employees are able to decide things easily. The employers are also able to choose the employees who are having leadership qualities.

Next, Psychological tests are to be conducted.

Seventhly, the employees are given role pay for measuring his problem-solving abilities.

Lastly, written tests are to be conducted. The descriptive type of questions should be asked. Through this, we can measure the abilities such as organizing, comprehension, power of expression, and the usage of language. Next is giving objective type of tests which has the advantage of testing within a short period of time.

RECRUITMENT PROCEDURE-TESTS AND INTERVIEWS

The availability of jobs does not ensure the inflow of applicants. Therefore an enterprise must engage itself in recruitment process. Recruitment is the process of locating the potential applicants and stimulating them to apply for the jobs in the organization. There are various sources through which this objective is achieved:

1. Word of Mouth: Many a time recommendation from one of the employees of the organization or from well-meaning friends become one of the sources of recruitment. However, this may lead to nepotism and favouritism whereby the advantage is largely offset.
2. Consulting Agency: A consulting agency is commonly utilized to find specialized executive personnel. It either helps the personnel department by supplementing its efforts or works on its behalf. In such situations the agency must understand and estimate correctly the client's requirements and the context of the client's past experiences, history and future projections
3. Campus Recruitment: As a large number of management institutes like the IIM's XLRI, Jamanalai Bajaj Institute of Management and technical Institutes like IIT's are engaged in ginging professional training, many companies find it easier to pick up the best talent right from the institute to fill its managerial positions. In fact these professional institutions have provided an excellent recruitment source to the firms who are capable of offering an attractive compensation and a future to these talents.
4. Through Advertisement: Advertisements in newspapers like The Time of India, Employment News, and trade journals and other magazines of management associations usually help. A well prepared advertisement reduces the possibility of receiving applications from those persons who do not possess the qualifications necessary for the job.

Besides the sources mentioned above the other possible sources are employment agencies, labour unions, casual direct applicants, deputations, etc.

Selection is the process of offering jobs to one or more candidates from among those who have applied for the jobs in the organization.

There are number of methods which are used for selection of personal. However, the selection pattern differs from one enterprise to another and also within the same organization depending on the level for which selection is done.

The earlier attempts were directed towards the development of pseudo-scientific methods, ie., (where in it was assumed that the strength of each mental faculty was indicated by certain bumps on certain parts of the skull), Physiognomy (It suggests a correlation between the facial features of an individual and his behaviour pattern), graphology (study of the relationship between handwriting and personality of the individual) were the crude techniques used. The beginning of 20th century saw a change in the management's thinking, whereby more and more organizations started trying more scientific and rational methods of selection. Some of these methods are:

(1) Application blank; (2) Interview; (3) Physical examination; (4) Business games; (5) Group discussions; (6) Psychological tests; (7) Role-play; (8) Written test.

Application blank is in fact a structured interview in which a selected number of questions are included. An application blank if well prepared can provide important preliminary information which may later help at the interview stage. Although an Application Blank may look simple, its simplicity may be descriptive. Even within an organization, the application blank may vary from one level to other. When closely examined, however, we find that at least it contains information of three types.

a) Personal Details: Under this heading, we find items like date of birth, marital status, sex, height, weight, address for communication, etc. Little empirical evidence is found to suggest that this information can help predict the applicant's behaviour on the job. The study of Naylor and Vincent on a sample of women clerical workers has shown that age and marital status did not have any significant impact on objective. However, they found that there was a positive correlation between the number of dependents and the absenteeism rate.

b) Educational Qualifications and Experience: Say around 20 years back, just a school final certificate or a college degree was enough qualification to get a job. This situation, however, does not exist any more today. The prospective employer looks are the overall academic performance of the candidate and above average academic qualifications has become an important criteria for a job. Again not much research data is yet available to prove what academic back-ground can predict one's performance on the job. It is also true for applicants with past experience. The general feeling is that the past experience can be an indicator of the applicants future performance. But study has found no relationship between past work experience and academic performance at college.

This differs from organization to organization. In some cases, it just requires the applicant to furnish a few names who could be contacted by the employer to verify the reliability of the information. In other cases, it refers to the letter of recommendations written by persons known to the applicant, other than his relatives. One problem that is commonly associated with section is to a certain the validity of the information. Seldom the teachers or the previous employer of the applicant from whom the information about the candidate is sought is negative in nature.

The other factors that one should remember while using the application blank are:

1. A little is known about the predictability of the items that are included in an application blank.

2. it is also not easy to determine what items should be included and how much weightage should be assigned to them. This is more disturbing when one tries to bring objectivity.

3. it is not proved how far the items included in the application blank help predict on the job behaviour of the applicant. If some of the items are not used to make selection decisions, than what moral right the organisation has to ask for such information.

The interview has been described as "the conversation with a purpose". Here we will present some ways in which the employment interviewing practices can be modified and improved through the application of research findings.

Objectives: The objectives of the interview are to match people and jobs. But within this overall objective, we can identify three specific objectives which should guide the interviewer in his conduct of the employment interview.

a) Whether the applicant is ultimately employed or rejected, the interview should serve as a means for creating a good feeling towards the company.

b) The employment interview should be an occasion for giving job and company information so that the applicant may have a factual basis for accepting or rejecting employment, if offered.

c) The employment interview should provide the interviewer with an opportunity for obtaining from the applicant data which are relevant to the employment and placement decisions and are not available from other sources.

The Interview as an Appropriate Method: How well does the employment interview serve as a device for accomplishing public relations? There is little data to substantiate its utility as a public relations device. However, the employment interview has tow major objectives: (1) To seek more information about the applicant's ability, knowledge and skills; and (2) To give information to the applicant about the company's policies and the position for which he is interviewed. The available data on employment interview fails to indicate how far the company is able to accomplish the second objective.

However, there is a wealth of material on the use of this method for the gathering of data for use in making employment and placement decisions. A review of this exposes several shortcomings of the employment interview method. The basic difficulty of this type of interview, as usually conducted, is that it involves making extensive inferences from limited data obtained in artificial situations by unqualified observers.

However, several studies have demonstrated substantial predictive values form the interview when carefully planned, patterned or standardized. The patterned interview has been known to show high validity coefficient with success on the job.

In the employment situation, the interviewer tries to make the best possible judgements or predictions using every piece of information which can be brought to bear

on the decision at hand. This means that the process offers job descriptions and job qualification statements plus personal history data, test scores, reference and work history. It counterchecks whatever information has been gathered from the interview. However in the interest of accuracy and efficiency, sources of information have to be limited to those that are important in the overall decision and are dependable.

The Contribution of the Interview: In so far as the measurement of aptitudes, proficiency, and interest is possible, the evidence points to psychological tests as more dependable and efficient source than the interview. What then is the unique contribution of the interview? Does it serve only an interrogative function?

The unique contribution of the interview is that it provides the relatively unique opportunity to view, probe and judge the candidate with regard to personal and social adjustment traits and to evaluate his interests, attitude, and motivation. The role of the planned interview is in making assessments of personal qualities as well as in the synthesis of all available data in arriving at overall predictions.

A further problem arises in connection with determining the validity of an employment interview method. Thus, care must be taken to follow a per-validated standardized interview procedure. There is no evidence to support the belief that the interview methods, as such, have any universal validity.

Increasing Interview Effectiveness: The information in this context can be grouped into four categories: (i) information about the applicant to be interviewed, (ii) information about the job, (iii) The structure of the interview itself, (iv) Interviewer's skill.

Information about the Applicant: All recommendations dealing with the applicant and data accumulated prior to the interview are put into this category. At this stage, the applicant's file which contains the application blank, reports of reference checks, physical examination findings, test scores, and preliminary interviewer's notes is prepare. From a review of this file, the interviewer determines:

i) Does the applicant meet the minimum standards set for each hurdle in the selection process? He must satisfy himself in this regard before proceeding with the interview.

ii) What background factors and personal qualities must be explored? If all these are satisfactory, then the bulk of the interview time will be devoted to giving job and company information to the candidate. It is more complex since the interviewer will be searching for evidence which can be used as a basis for recommendation for or against employment.

Job Knowledge: Considerable information in the form of job specifications and jobs description is necessary if the interviewer is both to give information and make valid judgements with respect to applicant's qualifications.

It is suggested that in lieu of actual work experience, the interviewer spends time observing the jobs for which he is to interview. The interviewer should keep abreast of changes in jobs and have a periodical checks to ensure that he is working song the current requirements.

The Interview Structure: The completely unstructured employment interview is little more than a casual, social conversation without direction, purpose, control or recognize able terminal point. Neither the interviewer nor the applicant can gain much in the way of relevant information from such a session.

At the other extreme, the completely structured interview is inflexible and offers no opportunity to explore or probe the answers the applicant may give.

In order to avoid either extreme, the use of a "standardized interview" has been developed and tried out by many research workers. It structures the interview by giving a serious of organized question to be asked in four major areas: Work history, family history, social history and personal history. The interviewer's rating of the applicant is summarized in the form of a total score obtained by subtracting the number of unfavourable answers from those judged favourable.

A rather simple form for this type of interview can be readily prepared for this purpose. But it must be noted that these forms be validated in the company situation even though a commercially available form is being used.

Qualities of Employment Interviewer: In conducting the interview, the interviewer may observe these points.

1. He has a prepared plan for the interview.
2. He has adequate job knowledge.
3. He has adequate background information about the applicant.
4. He schedules interviews so that he has enough time.
5. He ensures that interviews are held in private.
6. He puts the applicant at ease.
7. He lets the applicant talk.
8. He avoids leading questions.
9. He adjusts the level of his language to the language of the respondent.
10. He keeps control of the interview.
11. He is aware of his own prejudices and tries to avoid their influence on his judgement.
12. He avoids any suggestion of discrimination
13. He knows how and when to close the interview.
14. He records the facts during the interview and gives his impressions and judgements immediately thereafter.

The qualities of good judge in the interview situation call for wide social and professional contacts, considerable reading of literature, especially books on psychology. The interview, unstructured in character and more in the nature of a probing conversation, could be a powerful instrument for obtaining information. However, the greater the amount of discretion allowed to the interviewer, the more necessary is a high level of competence.

Non-directive Skills in Interviewing: In this approach, the interviewer stimulates the applicant to discover his problems himself and to decide his own course of action. A person is more likely to act upon a solution that he works out himself, because it is acceptable to him. It is interviewer-centered because the discussion and interests are

determined by the interviewer. The interviewer only stimulates the interviewee to talk about himself.

Active Listening: Listening is more than refraining from speaking. A listener must show by his behaviour that he is trying to understand, that he accepts the person as well as what he says.

For a listener to indicate doubt, surprise, disagreement or criticism, places him in the role of judge or a critic; for him to express agreement, pity or even sympathy, places him in the role of a supporter. As a judge he stimulates defensive behaviour and as a supporter he stimulates dependent behaviour.

The active listener's behaviour includes a posture indicative of attention, a friendly facial expression, patience and acceptance of pauses. Certain Vocal expression may rightly be included under listening. ('Uh-Huh', 'I see', 'I understand'. Do you want to tell me about that'). Even if the interviewer is directly asked to express an opinion, he can avoid entering into a discussion, by saying "would you like to tell me how you feel about it."

Reflecting Feelings: Although listening is an easy skill to describe, it is a difficult one to follow. Associating with people is a 'give and take relationship' in which one person alternates talking and listening with another person. But here, one is expected to give up a well-learned manner of responding to another person and merely listen to him. It is difficult because one has to inhabit the tendency to responded by speaking.

This principle suggests that interviewing skills should permit one to replace his advice giving responses with some king of a useful verbal response. The method of responding to feelings by restating or reflecting them effectively satisfies this requirement.

Reflecting feeling seems awkward at first but supplement the benefits of listening and at the same time makes it necessary for the counselor to speak. However, in order to reflect feelings properly an interviewer must listen carefully and selectively. Selective, listening means that one pays attention to looks for certain things in a speech; allowing factual material to fall into the background. Inconsistencies are accepted-what is meant by what is said, not the words used to say it, becomes important.

The method of reflecting feelings is analogous to the interviewer serving as a selective mirror. He mirrors or restates some things that are said to him and allows other things to pass.

Facts, incidents, justifications, chronology of events, where a person went and what he did, are relatively unimportant. But how a person feels about these things is important. These feelings must be reflected so that they can be seen and viewed in a different setting. The interviewer helps a person to get a more objective view of his feelings. This is diagramtically shown below.

It must be stressed that the applicant will speak frankly and freely only when the situation is permissive and the interviewer is accepting and understanding. However, the fact that interviews have a purpose or objective of their own introduces some

conflicts. (Employment manager wants to screen candidates and hire the best, the applicant's objective is to get himself hired and to defeat the function of the screen).

In any interview requiring co-operation, care should be taken to find a mutual interest and this becomes the meeting ground for discussion. General curiosity and interests may also be aroused for obtaining co-operation.

Physical examination is also a form of selection technique. It can be a nominal affair in case of certain executive and administrative positions but a rigorous examination or technical manual jobs.

The necessary physical requirements could be determined on the basis of what the job applicant is supposed to perform. For certain types of jobs it is important that the applicant is required to meet physical standards. Besides making the selection more effective, a physical examination can also help to prevent communicable diseases. It can also save the management from paying compensation for sickness or accidents which may be caused by pre-existing ailments. Mailed question have the validity and use of this selection tool. According to him, physical fitness cannot guarantee that the employee will not meet with an accident. However form the safety angle, the use of this selection tool could be useful.

This is mainly used for managerial selection. It was first developed by the armed forces which was later adopted by business enterprises. It is essentially a decision-making exercise. The participant is put in a hypothetical situation and is required to act as he would act in a real situation. It is assumed that a manager's success depends on his decision making ability and his ability to understand and communicate the objectives and policies of the enterprise to his subordinates. The FTS and Bell Company developed in 1956 the in basket game which provides certain information such as the history of an organization and job description of a particular position etc. This is done with a view to give participant a "feel" of the real life situation.

Summary

The essential feature of this technique is that instead of interviewing the candidates separately, the interviews are brought together in groups of 6-8 persons for informal discussion and the selectors observe and evaluate them. There are two kinds of group-discussions, one where the group is given a problem to discuss and the individual member is free to choose his own approach. In the second type, each individual is given an initial position and supplied with supporting information to defend his own position.

Advantages of this method are that a decision can be made within a very short time, and the selector can very well evaluate the candidate's personality or leadership qualities.

KEY WORDS
1. Communicable
2. Curiosity
3. Refraing

REVIEW QUESTIONS
1. Explain about sources of Recruitment?
2. Explain different types of selection process?
3. What are the different types tests?
4. What are the different types of interviews?

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS

STRUCTURE
1. Introduction
2. Role play and interaction

INTRODUCTION

It is used to measure certain personality dimensions. Psychological tests provide some objective inputs in the selection process.

While choosing a psychological test, it is important to ensure that the test which is used as a selection instrument is appropriate to the candidate in a real work situation. To sum up, this means that the test must be capable of measuring what it is supposed to measure. The four basic procedures to demonstrate the validity of a given test are:

a) Content Validity,` (b) Concurrent Validity, (c) Construct Validty, (d) Predictive Validity.

In India, the common problem is the non-availability of such psychological tests. It is because of the fact that most of these psychological tests are developed in foreign countries. The general evidence shown that it was first developed in the public school of France around the year 1900. It was developed by the French academicians to enable the educator to separate students who lagged behind their classmates. Professor Alford Binet was the man to develop, for the first time, such an objective test. Since then, these tests have gone through several developmental phases and have been used extensively as a selection instrument in the USA and other European countries. However, in India, there is clearly a lack of such tests. Attempts to modify these tests which were originally developed in countries like the U.S.A., have proved to be of little use in this country, mainly because of the failure of translating the themes and cognitions from English to any of the regional languages in India. Professor Mirza S. Siyodin of II M(A) has suggested three alternatives. First, to choose a sample that is proficient in English. This approach, however, has a great limitation because of the job requirement and the shortage of the managerial manpower. The second approach is the use of the language performance test and the third alternative is to develop one's own test. This way prove to be very time-consuming and costly, but in the long run, it may be a very fruitful endeavour.

ROLE PLAY AND INTERACTION

This technique is useful while trying to measure the problem solving abilities of the candidates.

It is used to study the interactions emerging out of the role play as well as in the group discussions to study the interpersonal interaction-orientation and counseling skills.

WRITTEN FORM OF TESTS

Many companies, particularly the public sector enterprises, widely use the written test as one of the selection methods. Some of these are of descriptive type. The

descriptive type test is used by many companies to fill its administrative positions. It is used on the assumption that such type of tests give important clues of certain abilities. It is normally designed to measure abilities such as organizing, comprehension, power of expression, 'and the usage of language. It attempts to measure the candidate's ability to assimilate and evaluate the subject matter.

Normally, this type of test contains the following types of questions:

a) Questions that call for the applicants point of view.

b) Questions that seek to measure the explanatory power of the applicant..

c) Questions seeking an analysis of the relationship of various factors.

d) Questions that call for suggestions from the applicant.

One severe limitation of this method is the high degree of subjectivity in evaluating the test. The subjectivity increases sometimes because of the tendency on the part of the examiner to evaluate the applicant with reference to previous judgements.

The other type of test is the objective type, which does not need explanatory answers. Such types of the test are often time bound. There are many kinds of objective type tests. It may be either filling the blank type, or true or false type of multiple choice test.

Summary:

One great advantage of such type of tests is that a large number of questions can be asked and can be answered within a short period of time.

The second advantage is that examiner's bias is also reduced. Both the types of tests are useful and both have their limitations. The decision whether to use a descriptive type test or an objective type test will depend on the nature of the job for which the selection is to be done and its position in the organization hierarchy.

KEYWORDS
1. Server
2. Assimilate

REVIEW QUESTIONS
1. Define Man-power planning.
2. Explain recruitment procedure
3. What is Psychological test?

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

STRUCTURE
1. Introduction
2. T & D in HRD
3. Training- Needs

INTRODUCTION

The Man-power Services Commission's Glossary of Training Terms (1981) defines training as a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Training may be of technical and management Technical training includes the clerical jobs, direct application of human energy in production work. Management training denotes the application of human energy in leadership position. Thus the main objective which stresses training programmes is to develop the ability and power of the employees and to satisfy the organization.

Development is the result of training and there would be no development without training. It emphasis growth and change.

The forth coming points dealt with, the result of training programmes:

- Due to day to day scientific and computer developments, use of automatic tools, computer s is very essential.

- To get ecological balance, pollution control is necessary.

- In some jobs, the hours of work is less, holidays with pay are more, so that employees can undertake tow or three jobs at a time.

- With the fast changing and challenging world, the individuals should acquire new technical know-how to face the problems.

- To face the inflationary conditions, export-oriented units are to be generated.

- As our economy is a democratic one, according to the government rules and regulations, there is a need for training and development.

T & D IN HRD

Training and development programmes influence HRD in many ways. Firstly, the employees should have positive attitude, motivation, interest to develop by themselves, social and national aspects. Secondly, necessary facilities should be available physically in an organization. Thirdly, it should be supported by the social systems. Fourthly, it acquires knowledge, skill and attitude. Thus T & D is the instrument through which the employees change and grow and influence the improvement of the organization. This can be systematically achieved only by proper maintenance and modernization to fit into the changing world.

TRAINING – NEEDS

To attain the firm's objectives, it has to employ required number of persons of managerial and non-managerial who are capable of performing the given work. For this purpose, the persons appointed should have adequate skill, knowledge and attitude about the delegated work. In practice, the existing competence of the job holder may be lesser than the standard competence required in a job. In order to fill up this gap, the employer should identify the deficiency area and has to give training. Thus, arises the need for training. For this, an assessment should identify the deficiency area and has to give training. Thus, arises the need for training. For this, an assessment should be made with regard to existing personnel, future requirements, and to decide what to do to develop man-power. In the private sector, different methods of training are introduced for their promotion, and growth potentiality.

From the higher level to the lower level in the organization, their performance should be studied and recorded. The problem areas are also to be noted. But this requires heavy cost, skill and time. So analysis can be made for the organization as a whole, or problem areas or ideas of the specialist who desire to train certain categories of employees.

The organizations have a separate training department in which in service training is given to lower and middle level of employees and off the job training is given to higher level employees. If any organization do not have a separate section for training, persons can be sent to the leading training institution. The above said organizational analysis is made in order to – understand the aims, policy, business operations, work force, authority – responsibility relationships.

-   to understand about the present and future training requirements.
-   to understand about the estimation of training, and the position of the trainee.

From the top to bottom level, description about the job and individual analysis should be made. Firstly all the work involved in a job position is analysed. Secondly, major work of the job is analysed. Thirdly, only the tasks of problem areas are analysed. Individual analysis can also be made by comparing the standard performance and the existing performance. In practice, the existing performance always a fall short, so this gap can be filled up by giving adequate training.

Training needs can be made positively and negatively. Positively in the sense, with the technological developments, when the firm is to expand with foreign collaboration, project expansion, product expansion, product diversification, the need for training is stressed.

Uptoday, technological improvements should be known to the persons who are already in jobs. Day to day developments are known only by training methods. If there is an aim to increase the productivity; to achieve that existing persons are to be given training to do that. In those days, minimum qualification is required for ordinary

position, but nowadays even a diploma holder should have training for one year to two years to cope up with the situation.

SUMMARY

Sometimes, inter personal rifts, chit-chats, absenteesm, red-tapism are possible. To avoid these things which will ultimately affect the productivity and goal, concerned employees are given training. The evil effects of these rifts, bad qualities are told, to withstand in the job. These qualities are to be avoided. But apart from these, only after getting the consent of the superior authorities and top level officials, a need for training arises.

KEYWORDS

1. Red-tapism

2. Stressed

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define Training

2. Explain about T & D in HRD

3. What is the difference between Training and Development.?
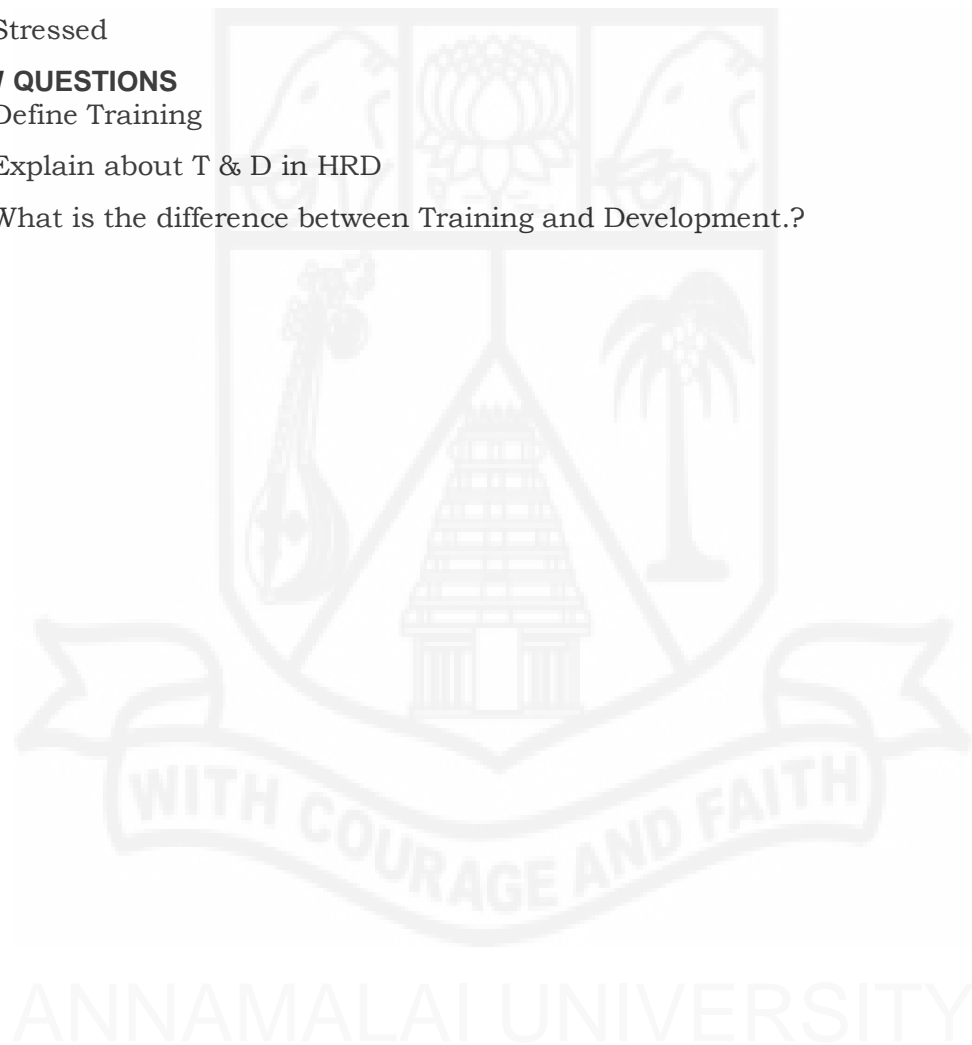
TRAINING-OBJECTIVES

STRUCTURE
1. Introduction
2. Importance of Training

INTRODUCTION

There is a behavioral change in the learner through training. This results increase of individuals contribution to attain the ultimate aim of the organization. Training is given to the personnel to improve knowledge, skill and attitude towards the development of the firs. In practice, skill approach contributes major part. This includes technical know how, new methods of job, managerial decisions, technical skills, etc. This approach is termed as cognative approach which is work-centred, as it specifies mostly the work required after he gets training. This objective is tailor-made (ie) it suits to particular time, what type of skill required is specified. Whether short duration or long duration, and this approach is practical in nature. Since it has practicability in nature, the persons who get trained can get similar behaviour after training.

The knowledge approach develops adequate knowledge and understanding of the subject of the trainee. But each and every trainee will take this own decision at his interest in problem situation. This will not be highly suitable. This knowledge approach is only person-oriented, as his awareness, knowledge and understanding is improved. According to job situation, he cannot take right decision: through skill approach, the trainee is well-versed in specific work given. But in knowledge approach, there is difference of opinion in a particular decision-making situation, among the trainees.

A person should have positive thinking and attitude while undertaking his on. This helps him to learn knowledge and skill. If he has negative attitude, he cannot proceed further. Attitude is the individual's mind which makes him to do any work successfully. It is easy to develop attitude rather than knowledge and skill if he is given full motivation, and it does not require theories and principles. But if he has negative attitude, it is very difficult. This can be changed through group discussions, assignments, visit to institutions. etc.

Thus training objective is determined in terms of behaviour, so that it can matched with predetermined objectives.

Training objectives can be studies from hierarchical view, the employees at the bottom level should be given training regarding safety, new methods job instruction etc. At the middle level, the supervisory cadres should be given training regarding finding out the problems, collecting information, analyzing them and finding a suitable solution. For this, knowledge and skill approach is suitable. At the top level, the objectives behind training are cost reduction, employee performance, methodology, problem-solving, creativity etc. Application of video-audio technique is made in training

In functional view, the employees are trained to achieve the goal in practice; (i) to improve the methods of production, increasing the productivity, sales revenue, reducing

the costs and the wastes, effective execution of work, and after effects of training (i) their views regarding raining programmes. As per A.H. Maslow's Motivational theory, the objectives of training programmes are self-confidence, self-motivation, achievement and self-realisation aspects.

The objectives of training can also be based either to attain immediate profit or delayed print. This can be achieved by sales training which teaches the sales cost reduction, increased sales volume etc. the training objective is not immediate profits but an addition to human working capital. Job rotation programmes through various departments in preparing a present junior executive to take up key posts in the future.

Thus the objectives of a training programme can be listed below:

1. Acquisition of knowledge.
2. Acquisition of skill.
3. Acquisition of attitude.
4. To motivate the employees.
5. To create smooth situation in decision-making.
6. To develop future executives.
7. To bring behavioural change.
8. To improve the organisation's ability to achieve its goal.
9. To motivate better interaction with employees.

In certain circumstances, there is a confusion whether training objective should be a theoretical or practical. The answer is both. Theoretical knowledge should be there to take right decisions in problem areas. But now a days more a book-worm is not applicable to take high posts. The training programme should be prochanges' (ie) to develop innovative capabilities.

Thus an innovative-unstructured practical based training programmes would serve the goal for an organization.

IMPORTANCE OF TRAINING

Training solves many organizational, psychological, technological problems in employees. The merits of training programme stresses the importance of training. It is a problem solving toll in productivity, quality of work, develop new knowledge and skills, use of machines, new methods in production activity and achieve standards of performance.

If any organization to run in a smooth way, its employees should be systematically, scientifically, trained. Due to rapid increase in the day to day science and technological developments, the employees at all the levels are to get trained upto day, to achieve the end goal. If there is gap existed between the actual and standard performance, training is the instrument through which we should fill the gap. If a

person is trained, he gets self-confidence and self-competence. Training is also necessary for those who were already employed. Without special training apart from his educational qualification, jobs cannot be effectively performed. When a person changes his job, to face new circumstance, he should be trained. If a person has to occupy a higher position, to have leadership qualities, to satisfy his subordinates, he should get trained. Training is needed for executives in special managerial fields. The training at all levels helps to increase the productivity, sales force, avoids wastes and spoilages, and other undersirable practices.

SUMMARY

If the training programmes have been systematically and effectively chelkedout, the employees may be benefited to achieve firm's goal and thereby generates the reputation of an organization.
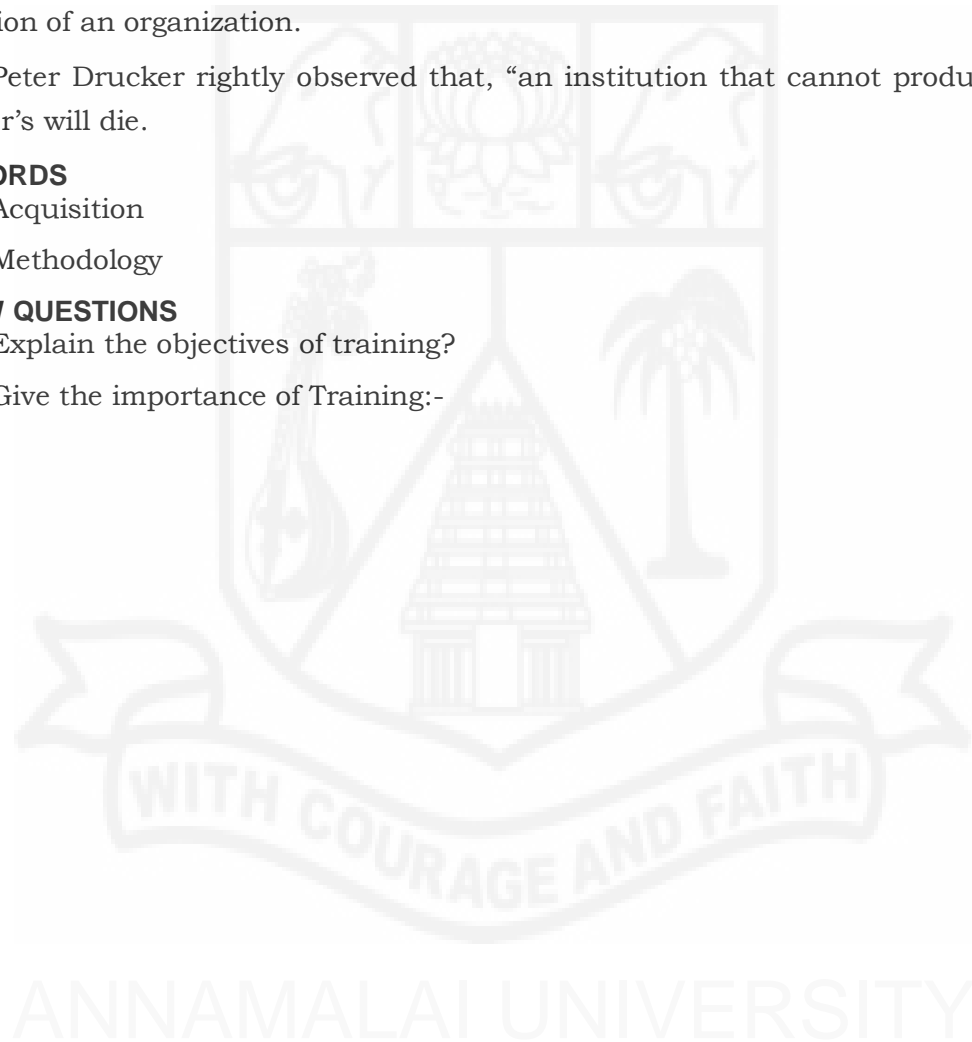
Peter Drucker rightly observed that, "an institution that cannot produce its own manager's will die.

KEY WORDS

2. Acquisition

3. Methodology

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain the objectives of training?

2. Give the importance of Training:-

TWI-TRAINING WITHIN THE ORGANIZATION

STRUCTURE
1. Introduction
2. Training by outside Agencies
3. Management institutes and their role in Training Managers.

INTRODUCTION

TWI refers to training within a room of four walls. The fullest use of man-power is achieved. There are fundamental factors for which TWI is undertaken.

- to achieve the fulles use of person's ability.
- the responsibility of the management to develop their workers.
- the supervisors are responsible for their subordinates.
- TWI is a continuous process for day to day scientific development.
- to train the leadership qualities for executives.
- training instructions should be made in an effective manner. So that it can be reflected in the employees in easy understanding, knowledge and skill developing.
- Standardization of work methods, time and cost consideration is made.

Herbart's four steps instruction model namely, "show, tell, and check" should be insisted.

Some of the following principles should be followed for TWI.

- The supervisors should give training for their subordinates.
- Training work is divided into parts.
- There should be optimum group size for training.
- Training session should not exceed 2 hours at a time.
- The training atmosphere should have instructor – learner relationship rather than teacher – student relationship.
- Personal attention should be given to the trainees.

There are four programmes of industrial training. They are JIT, JMT, JRT and JST. These are called as 'J' programmes. JIT is the job Instruction Training refers to training given to the supervisors to instruct their subordinates such as show the workers how to do the work, explain important points, watch their job, etc. JMT is the Job Methods Training refers to the use of manual and material resources in production. This should be simple and practical. This also involves utilising present method and try to follow the new methods introduced in the world level. JRT is the Job Relations Training which stresses about the group activity, attitude of the employees, their morale. The employee should not be treated as worker itself, but also, study his family health, family background etc., and he should be treated in a friendly way. JST is the Job

Safety Training which stresses the safety training and education. There is a maxim,, "Protection is better than cure." (i) safe methods of performing a job is trained. When a person has to work in a furnace, he has to wear powerful glasses and thick clothes. Like this, according to the job and position, respective protective equipments, safety shoes should be worn.

Thus TWI has made training a profession by itself. As it is goal-oriented, it becomes essential for every organization a separate training department of their own.

TRAINING BY OUTSIDE AGENCIES

Certain advantages of training by outside agencies:

1. Sometimes it is more economical to obtain a training package from an outside agency rather than developing the same form within. The reason is not far to seek. The outside agencies are specialized organization and that their programmes are mass-sold and that they can distribute the development cost across a large number of users. Obviously, single organization, if it were to develop a programme, would have to spend a lot and for that matter, outside programmes are favoured since such programmes are less expensive.

2. The trainer, the outside agency, is accountable for the effectiveness of training. However, measuring the effectiveness of a training programme is set with many practical problems.

3. The organization might not have the technical expertise, equipment and facilities for conduction an in-house training. In such cases, outside training agencies are sought.

4. External ready-made programmes meet the training needs perfectly without any investment of management or staff time for planning and development of such training programmes.

5. In the case of large organizations like government agencies training facilities may be availed of at little or no cost from another agency within or closely related to the organization.

As against these advantages there are disadvantages too. First the training programme prepared by the outside agency may not fit with the training needs of the organisation as such. In most cases this is the result and that the cost advantage of outside programmes is greatly diminished. The trainees also may not show reasonable interest when the training is imparted by an outsider compared to given by an in-side. They may simply take such training courses as a short-so journ outside their place of work.

When training is given by outside agencies there are some specific and responsibilities of the trainer and contractee-organisation.

The trainer should be involved in a all decisions concerning the outside training programme. The trainer is responsible to see that the programme meets the training needs of the organization. For the purpose, the trainer must ascertain first the training needs of the organisation using any or more of the techniques. Systematic survey, opinion poll, attitude analysis, etc., may be adopted to ascertain training needs. The

objective sought to be achieved must be clearly spelt. Having the training objectives and training programme, one is not available readily. Next the course is implemented the trainer has also the responsibility to recommend alternative external programmes if he feels that they will be more appropriate.

The contractee-organisation i.e. the line organization management also has some responsibilities. First, it must co-operate with the trainer in determining the training needs Besides, it must tell the trainer what changes in job performance it wants to effect. Since the line organization is the customer seeking performance improvement, it must be involved in all decisions concerning the use of external training facilities.

There are many sources from which training programmes and packages can be obtained. Management institutes, productivity councils, professional bodies, management association, education institutes and consultants are the important source. In this lesson the training programmes 'sold' by the first four sources listed above are discussed.

MANAGEMENT INSTITUTES AND THEIR ROLE IN
TRAINING MANAGERS

Indian institutes of Management (IIM). Ahmedabad, IIM, Calcutta, IIM, Lucknow, IIM, Bangalore, etc., are premier organizations imparting managerial education in the country. The aim of these institutes is to provide post-graduate education in management to students, thus providing them an opportunity to acquire and develop knowledge, abilities, attitudes and understanding which will constitute a foundation for their growth into competent and responsible administrators. The emphasis is largely on general management.

Apart from the above course, special management development courses/programmes are also conducted periodically. For example, two such course conducted by the IIM. IIM, Ahemedabad conducts one management education programme (MEP) of a 4 months duration. The course is open to middle level managers of large and medium organizations, financial institutions and banks and young owner-managers of small scale industries. The programme is designed for those executives and entrepreneurs who have made a mark in their work in one or more of the functional areas and are to shoulder general management responsibilities, but have not has an opportunity to acquire formal management education. This programme prepares the participants for responsibilities in general management through its emphasis on skills and attitudes for:

i) integration among different functional areas and between macro and micro aspects.

ii) Communication with peers, supervisors and subordinates; and

iii) Team-work to channalise individual excellence for achieving objectives.

The institute also conducts a short programme on management of agricultural and rural development. Persons engaged in agricultural and rural development work such as officers of the Central or State Governments, Project Directors and Manager of IRDI'S executives financial institutions of agro-industries corporation and rural

development corporations and organizations engaged in promoting agriculture and rural development.

All over the world, there are many management institutes. Their main emphasis is general management development. These general management development programmes aim at developing managerial Competence by imparting broad understanding of the manager's job. Pro. Paul M. Heanni Geneva, Switzerland, says that there are principally three types of programmes depending on whether their emphasis is in polyvalency and integration, breadth of outlook or a combinations, of both."

Polyvalency approach aims at preparing generalists, i.e. managers who are possessing a basic understanding of all functions of management. A polyvalency programme con-cent rates on inter-function relations general aspects of business environment. The contribution of these programmes is more on development of knowledge and skill than on attitudes and value systems since the emphasis is on knowledge, management institutes could do a good job in imparting this knowledge skill can be developed, after necessary knowledge is provided, through job rotation lateral transfer, experience in multiplant activities and similar job changes.

Breadth of outlook approach aims at harnessing the managerial talent and competency by giving a varied exposure both in business activities and business related activities, (i.e. environmental factors). Breadth programmes, also called an environmental programmes, aim at imparting knowledge on business and its environment, the inter-relationship between them, the relative significance of various environmental factors and the like. Thus breadth approach emphasizes more on attitude and value development than on knowledge and skill improvement.

The third approach is the 'hybrid' of the previous two approaches, of course it represents the 'best compromise' of the above two approaches.

The contents of GMP's vary with the level of management. Junior managers, middle managers and senior (top) managers need different programmes to suit their respective cadre needs, since managerial tasks vary within the level of management. Besides the nature and size of the concern would also influence the programme contents.

At the junior level, the training needs of a manager are more general, than specific. He or she is just springing up as a manger. His/her basic requirement at this level is knowledge on management principles, tools, techniques and functions. Next he/she needs the necessary skill in employing the various tools and techniques in different situations efficiently. Therefore, Junior management programmes (JMP) aim at providing a concise and general introduction to modern management. The intention is to make participants aware of the various managerial function and their interrelationship. Further, tools and techniques of management which could be used to better one's performance as a manager, are to be introduced to the participants. Normally the programmes cover management principles, financial administration, marketing, personnel, social science and management, communication, work study, production planning, computer applications to decision making, operations research and

mathematics for decision-making. Lectures, field study, project work, plant tours etc. are tools and techniques generally adopted to impart knowledge.

At the middle level, more than knowledge and skill attitude is important. Hence middle management programmes (MMP) emphasise (i) to develop the participant's personal talents and attitude towards better management capability, not only in their present jobs, but also in the kind of jobs they may have to face in the future, (ii) to update their knowledge and skills on contemporary management techniques and principles, (iii) to develop the problem solving skills of the participants, (iv) to acquire a good insight into the working of environmental forces, (v) to develop a capacity for taking a corporate view of managerial problems (vi) to create an in creasing awareness on the part of the participants relating to his role and responsibility in the society and so on.

MMPs generally cover; principle, philosophies, skills, tools and techniques of management, dynamics of organization development; economic environment of business, dynamics of national and international management, basic principles on functional management; reviewing and improving performance evaluation, performance improvement through T&D trends in management and motivation development. Management in action-management team building leadership, problem solving conflict resolving, business simulation, managerial effectiveness and so on. Lectures and business games are the major tools for imparting knowledge role playing, workshops and seminars may also be adopted to some extent.

At the seminar level, their emphasis is on providing an increased understanding of the changing economic, social and technical environment as it affects the work of those attending and the work of their subordinates. Also developing an appreciation and a critical evaluation of their management thinking and techniques through a study of the developing relationships between industry and government and international economic and business developments and their implications on the concern are emphasized. Senior management programmes (SMPs) are not instructional in nature. These are designed to provoke for reaching through, to uncover new visit as of perception into, and deeper layers of awareness of, the fundamental forces and compulsions underlying human organization and activity; to sharpen insights into the potentialities and present day managers embrace' embrace; to reconsider ideas, ideologies, philosophies; to consider directions in which rewarding response to them (the managers) might be sought and so on. These programmes covers innovation and creativity in organizational methods; industrial democracy; social responsibilities of business; dynamics of policy; the inter-actions between organization and initiative, poser and responsibility; corporate mergers; systems and contingency approach to management; government and business; managerial psychology and development; human relations, management information systems and the like. Group discussion, panel discussion, syndicate method and such other participative learning methods are generally adopted. Workshops, lecture, case methods etc., are also adopted.

To sum up, management institutes generally provide general management development programmes for different levels of managers. The above discussion on

course content course methods. etc., is not exhaustive nor unique. Variations are there. But, in our overall sense, our discussion is not far from the reality.

Productivity councils have as their main objective an increase in the productivity of the country or area. The creation of productivity councils all over the world has its roots on the role played by the International Labour organization (ILO) which as a special agency of the United Nations, took the lead throughout the world and offered advice and technical assistance in the organization of productivity councils or productivity centers, as these are called in some countries.

National productivity Council (NPC), New Delhi, India was established in 1958 by the Government of India as an autonomous society to provide productivity services-technical consultancy, training and development, industrial research leading to increased and efficient production, etc., to all sectors of the nation's economy. The council also organizes programmes for foreign nationals, particularly persons from developing countries, when approached by international organizations.

The NPC, India has offices in many places in India including those at Madras, Bombay, Bangalore, Kanpur and Calcutta. The regional offices of the productivity council look after the needs of the area problems relating to productivity.

The programme of the NPC, India are designed for different levels of managers and for supervisors. Workships, seminars, lectures and case discussion are the methods generally used for impart in training and development. The relative importance of different methods of teaching depends on the individual case. The programme content also depends on the training needs of the participants.

National Institute for Training in Industrial Engineering. Bombay, India is also a type of productivity organization. The NITIE was established in 1963 as a National institute for Training Executives in industrial engineering techniques, methods and practices. The NITIE is administered through a board of Governors representing nominees of the Central Government the National productivity Council, All India Council of Technical Education, and other technical Institutes, professional groups, etc. Most of the programmes of the NITIE are residential.

The programmes of the NITIE include the following:

1. Human Relations Programme – designed to enable participants to achieve greater co-operation from colleagues, superiors and subordinates, thus contributing to increase efficiency.

2. Industrial communication programme – designed to develop correct attitudes and obtaining knowledge of the process of communication.

3. Industrial marketing programme – designed to identify and investigate techniques and approaches to industrial marketing.

4. Job evaluation and merit training – designed to impart practical knowledge of wage administration and finding solutions to related problems in a practical way.

5. Manpower utilization programme – designed to help participants to review systematically the various aspects of organizational practices and learn the different approaches of the utilization of manpower for achieving the organization objective.

6. Marketing management programme – designed to give participants knowledge of the increasing complexity of modern marketings to give them new and different approaches to marketing function and to increase the decisions-making ability in this field.

7. Materials handling programme – designed to enable participants to analyse and improve the materials handling activities in their own organization.

8. Method study programme – designed to enable managers to better utilize men, equipment and plants by training Members to approach problems systematically, critically and imaginatively through application of method study.

9. Motivation techniques programme – designed to give the participants a systematic approach to motivating techniques with the organization and for evaluation and measurement of work.

10. Other programmes – like the organization and methods, principles of supervision, product engineering, production management, production planning and control, sales budget and forecasting, standardization and variety control, stores and inventory management, value engineering, waste reduction (methods and procedures), operations research, computer operations, PERT, CPM, MIS cost quality circles, vendor rating, plant maintenance, managerial, delegation, organization and techniques of training, work study, working capital management, zero base budgeting, etc.

The duration, course content, teaching method, cost, etc. vary with the different programmes. Most of these programmes are of 2 weeks duration, the balance being of 1 week duration. Most of these programmes are highly useful for managers.

Certain regional productivity councils offer advanced management courses through correspondence study. For example the Baroda Productivity Council, Baroda, India is conducting EKS (Energo-Cybernetic Strategy) diploma course in association with News System of Frankfurt, West Germany. The course highlights the value of crucial factors like instincts, insights, but feelings, emotions, power and above all, strategy in influencing the success of a businessman.

There is no dearth of executive development programmes conducted by various professional bodies. Administrative staff college of India, Hyderabad, Institute of Public Evterprises, Hyderabad, India, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi, Institute of Applied Manpower Research, New Delhi, India, Indian Institute of Foreign Trade, New Delhi, Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur, Indian Institute of Materials Management, Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, New Delhi, Institute of cost and Works Accountants of India, Culcutta, and Institute of Company Secretaries of India, New Delhi, are notable professional bodies which do a good job of providing training and development to members/participants. Of these organizations, the first three provide various functional training to managers, while the rest concentrate on their chosen specialized field. Below are given few samples of programmes conducted by some

os the institutes mentioned above. The Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad, has announced the following programmes.

1. Spare Parts Management – designed to meet the following objectives: minimize investment in spare parts minimize stockouts through scientific management techniques, formulate policies for different categories such as maintenance, capital, insurance, overhaul and notable spares. The course is meant for maintenance managers, service engineers, design engineers, inventory managers, purchasing executives and other with responsibility for spares management.

2. Management of Education Systems – designed to provide an opportunity for senior college and university administrative personnel to develop effective leadership and enhance management skills.

3. Management of Industrial Relations – designed to provide the necessary skill and approach to senior organizations responsible for industrial relations and officials of labour departments.

4. Management of R & D Systems- designed (i) to examine R & D Management issues within the contexts of innovativeness and productivity of the firm and also national policy; (ii) to provide an overall frame-work of the concepts of management approach to the problems of R & D units; and (iii) to familiarise the participants with some important techniques of research management. The programme is meant for R & D managers/directors, managers with R & D units under their control and senior scientists with managerial responsibilities from private and public sector Government Department and National Laboratories.

5. Project Planning and Management for Rural Development-designed for familiarizing rural Development planners and administrators with modern project management techniques, besides enhancing their decision making capabilities for promoting efficiency and effectiveness in development projects. The programme, is meant for Joint/Deputy Secretaries of Central and State Government from Department such as Rural Development, Health, Agriculture, Irrigation, Education, Tribal Development, District Collectors, Project Administrators of District Rural Development Agency; officers of Banks and other financial institutions working in rural areas; and project officers from voluntary organizations.

6. Finance for Non-financial executives – designed for familiarizing the non-financial executives in all aspects of financial resource management so that they can play their role better. The programme is meant for non-financial executives occupying senior/middle level positions such as Directors or Managers in-charge of Production, Marketing Personnel, Research and General Administration.

7. Managing Creativity in Organisation Programme-designed to identify, develop and utilize the creative potentials for organizational growth and effectives. This programme focuses upon the nature, process and scope of creativity and innovativeness in the organizational context.

The above referred programmes are only few examples. The administrative Staff College, Hyderabad is a premier training college for practising managers both in the public and private sector. Its programmes are highly commended by participants. It conducts many management development programmes on a regular basis.

The Institute of Materials Management conduct regular programmes on effective materials management. The programme contents of one of its programmes – Computers in Materials Management.

1. Computer Hardware, Computer Software

2. Systems Development Cycle

3. Computers in purchase-stock control, price control, Delivery Control and Vendor Rating.

4. Computers in stores – Inventory Control Non-moving Slow moving items, obsolete items, Excess Inventory Control, Stock out, Location, Quantity control, Stock out, Location, Quantity control.

5. Computers and Direct Material Planting (MRP) system) Computers and Spare Parts Management.

6. Personnel computers and their applications – spread sheet/Word Processing Applications.

7. Recent trends in computerization – on line environment – Data Communication and Distributed processing – Data base management.

8. Guidelines for implementation - Choice of computers Management involvement – Controls and, security – Systems Audit.

The course is mainly intended for officers at Senior and Junior levels in industries.

It is needless to add that programmes of this sort are very much valuable to practicing managers since these programmes are developed by expert in the field their utility, relevance to present day business conditions, etc. are generally begin. But in certain cases, programmes that were proclaimed to be meant for low and wanting in many respects – the ability of the faculty to give sufficient treatment to the different aspects of the subject, the course content, the allotment of time among different subjects, etc. These pitfalls must bad avoided through conscious study and development of faculty itself and other course inputs.

Management associations are in multiples in the country. At the national level there is one all India Management Association. Apart, there are many State Level and regional Management associations, like the Madras Management Association, Calcutta Management Association, Ludhiana Management Association, Delhi Management Association, Gowahati Management Association, Jamshedpur Management Association, Sonapat Management Association etc., these management associations do a good work on management development. Periodical management development programmes, lectures, executive meetings, workshops snap programmes are conducted for instance for 1986 the All India Management Association has a long list of programmes.

The important programmes are:

1. Top Management conference on human resource development.

2. Management Training Programme for I.A.S. Officers

3. Top Management Conference on Project Management.

4. Top Management Conference on using Micro-Computers in Business or Personal Computers for Managers.

5. Corporate Financial Management Programme.

6. Top Management Conference on Strategic Decision.

7. Management Training Programme for I.A.S. Officers.

8. Senior Management Programme.

Apart a number of refresher courses are conducted.

The various regional management associations have equally attractive programmes, lectures, workshops, annual conventions, seminars, etc. During 1985, the Madres Management Association conducted 27 programmes. 13 lecture meetings and 3 film show. In all 3671 business executives participated in the various programmes and meetings. Some of the important topics covered during the programmes and lecture meetings include. National Workshop on Motivation for Productivity, Business Leadership, New Technologies and Industrial Growth, Workshop on Finance Bill 1985. Credit and political risks in international trade, modular programmes on personnel function I, II and III, value engineering, management change in computer environment, human relations and productivity, managing employee turnover. A strategic human perspective, strategic management for business success, international industrial competitiveness, leadership and performance beyond expectations, successes of consumer movement, problems and perspectives of small scale industries, management lessons form recent events in the American electrical power industry, quality revolution in American industry, developing trends in management education, "Decisions, decisions", 'meetings, Bloody meetings' I n search of excellence etc.

Management associations at other places also have commendable programmes. These programmes help in imparting the latest developments in the field of management and industry. Besides, the participants are able to exchange views and share know ledges and experiences. These associations bring out monthly or fortnight periodicals. – magazines, news bulletins, etc, which contain valuable articles on various facets of management and industry. The MMA brings out a bulletin every month which details the deliberations that took place in the concerned month, among other matters. Executives and persons who could not attend the programmes are benefited by these bull tins. The AIMA brings out a magazines, "Indian Management" containing articles on business subjects written by eminent persons, quiz, management abstracts (giving details of classified articles on business studies published in leading journals throughout the world), management cases, etc. Some, young and prospective managers are sure to gain by reading these materials. The AIMA concentrates also on training administrative

personnel (IAS personnel) and that it conducts a number of refreshed courses quite frequently for them.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, the following shortcomings are noted. First there is a note of duplication in the conduct of training programmes organized by the various training Institutions in the country. In this respect some sort of co-ordination at the regional level is very much needed. The various training institutions should try to pool their resources and bring out a 'common programme'. But such a type of co-ordination should not be stretched beyond a limit, since the divergent needs of various industries could not be covered by a "generalized" programme.

Second, no training institution in the nation is at present offering any training programme meant to serve the needs of the general Managers, Managing Directors, and such other top bracketed personnel. The Harward Business School, Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Illinois, USA, etc., conduct advanced management programmes for General Managers, Managing Directors, Presidents and Vice-Presidents-cum General Managers. It is high time that the premier institutions in India should evolve suitable programmes for the highest level business executives.

Third, there is lack of rapport between business and management development training institutions in the country. It is no exaggeration, nor surprising. Business executives in India generally decry the caliber of trainer professor and consider they are not subservient to the teacher-theoreticians.

Fourthly, there is a need for ascertaining the training needs of the various training institutions themselves. At the moment, these institutions are not making any self-evaluation.

Lastly, the training institutions should be more practical in designing training programmes. They simply develop programmes without adequately studying the training needs of business houses. "The needs are assumed by the Institutions on the basis of some hypothesis and some, 'free-size' programmes are developed and offered, which the industries try to fit among their executives. Programmes developed for Indian conditions are rare to find. The above observation made in 1973 remains true even today. This should change atleast in the near future.

KEY WORDS

1. Eminent
2. Fortnight
3. Vendor

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are all the advantages and dis-advantages of training by outside angelicas.
2. What are all the management Institutes and their role in Training Managers.

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

STRUCTURE
1. Executive Development
2. Objectives of Executive Development.

EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT

Executive development refers to "a program of training and planned personal development designed to prepare and aid managers in their present and future jobs. Programmes try to discover and forecast the problems with which managers must deal and help them in handling these problems. Executives are the persons charged with the organizational and operational responsibilities of managing an enterprise. They are responsible for the work performed by others. Middle and top management personnel are referred to as executives. Their work is managing people, work, and managers below one's rank. It involves planning, organizing, directing, motivating, controlling, co-ordinating and budgeting. Hence, training for managers must be directed toward developing their knowledge, skills and attitudes in planning, organizing and other managerial functions in relation to managing men, materials, money and managers. As such the training programmes for executives are quite different from those for workers. Executive development is defined by George B. Corless as, "on effort to apply the same principles of nation and control, to the selection and development of personnel which are used in the physical and financial phases of a business, in contrast to haphazard methods based on the hope that 'cream will come to the top."

1. The need for more number of managers has been on the corless emphasizes the need for conscious development of executive training programme increase. To meet the need, one cannot wait for the "cream" to come up, rather available persons should be developed in managerial skills.

2. Managers are made and not born. This has been accepted by business leaders all over the world. Hence to meet the demand for managerial personnel, executive development programmes have become very handy.

3. We are living in an era of continuous change. To keep oneself 'fit' with the ever-changing world is to constantly develop oneself in the contemporary, knowledge skills, attitudes, etc. To managers this has become and inevitable requirement, last they have to suffer managerial obsolescence.

4. Today the task of a manager has become highly complicated and difficult owing to many changes in the business environment – economical, social, legal, international etc. Equally the internal environment – dealings with union leaders and labours, has become stiff and more pressing. In the state situation the old style management cannot do well. There is a need for change in the style of management itself. Hence the need or executive development.

5. To replace the present managers who are at the verge of retirement, new talents have to be identified and developed.

6. Peter F. Drucker observed that, executive positions need wider knowledge and understand and this can be assured through planned executive development programmes.

7. Management decisions and actions have far-reaching consequences and broader effects. Unless the personnel are trained in decision – making capabilities, the chances for bade decisions would be more. To avoid this, executive development is needed.

8. A manager is supposed to get things done through subordinates. That is he is not intended to execute work himself. Precisely, this means the manager must be good at delegation of authority and execution of accountability. This needs some training.

9. Managers these days are accused of lacking in ethics, are sometimes as 'bureaucratic manipulators. 'Executive development would help in providing new competence to managers to boost their status and image.

10. A concern must develop its own managers from within. So whether it develops new products or not; it must develop new managers. This would help in achieving executive continuity.

11. Executive development is time consuming process; that is overnight, we cannot develop managers. Hence broader planning well-in-advance of time and pragmatic execution of executive development programmes are needed.

12. For a growing concern continuity, vitality and flexibility are very essential and this can be achieved by main-training an 'inventory of executives.

Process of executive development is a time consuming and continuing process. There are many stages involved in the process. Knowledge of these process is essential for drawing up a programme for executive development.

1. The objective of executive development, the needs of the concern for executive personnel; etc. must be determined first. The objective may be to supply future executive by developing the present employees.

2. The identification of individuals with requisite qualifications, aptitude and characters come next. A continuous inventory of present and potential executives must therefore be created.

3. The plans for developing the selected individuals must be drawn up. It may be noted that executive development must be individualized. The training needs of the individual programmes of development should be drawn.

OBJECTIVES OF EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT

Some of the important objectives of executive development are briefed below:

a) To increase the effectiveness of the functions of the organisation, through better utilizing the executive abilities, assisting executives to function as managers who think broadly from the point of view of the organization as a whole, and how foster team work ion the management group.

b) To build a reserve of qualified personnel to back up key positions.

c) To devise performance indicators, so that executives competence can be measured before they are elevated along the hierarchy.

d) To improve morale of the members of management group

e) To attract desirable personnel of the company.

f) To retain desirable personnel in the company.

Several principles of training have been developed as a measure to effectively provide the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes. These principles are:

The executive development programmes must contribute to the accomplishment of the organizational, group and individual objectives.

A training programme may ensure the achievement of objectives, but it may involve unnecessarily high costs in rupees, hours, low morale or individual dissatisfaction. Training programmes may prove very costly, complex and burdensome. Business cannot afford to fritter away resources if adequate returns do not forth come. Hence the training programmes must be cost efficient.

An important measure of effective development programmes is that they must be tailored to the needs and requirements of individual participant. Although group training is economical, adjustment of individual abilities enhances the effectiveness of training.

Effective and efficient executive development programmes require objective, accurate and suitable standards. Training programmes are goal oriented. That means, measures and standards must be established. So that, the degree of achievement or goals can be measured.

Training and development programmes must be designed to reflect organizational structure. Organizational structure influence the authority responsibility systems, decision systems and other systems of the organization. Accordingly role, action, importance etc, of different persons would vary. In developing and adopting a training package its relevance to the organization must be verified.

The trainee must willingly undergo the training. He must want to learn, must have the motivation to improve his job performance or to acquire new skills and knowledge and to improve his attitudes and behaviour through training and development.

The trainee must be rewarded for enhanced results, resulting from the training h e has had, positive reinforcements like career opportunities, better monetary rewards, avenues for personal developments, etc. must be granted to successful trainees.

Both when a trainee is undergoing the training and after the completion of the training, performance evaluation should be carried out and the results should be communicated to the trainee indicating his strong and weak points. This sort of feedback would enable the trainee in correcting himself, while striving for achieving improved performance.

Training must emphasis the practical side of learning process. Effective learning can be achieved through actual doing rather than by mere listening.

The training programme should not be too stuffy and tightly scheduled. Rather, it should be developed in a step-by-step fashion and between two stages, adequate time must be provided so that the trainees can assimilate what he has learnt so far.

Training is a continuous process. Undergoing a particular course is not the end of it. Since there can virtually be no limit to one's horizon of knowledge, skill, etc. The training and development process should be an ever-on-going activity in any institution and in the life of any individual.

Training given by the immediate superior is considered more effective than that is provided by anyone else.

An executive development programme must have specified objective and must be designed to reflect the special needs. In other words it should not be too general.

Adoption of these principles would lead to more effective and quicker learning. Mc Gehee had' observed that phased training with reasonable interval between two successive phases would reduce the training time. (In an empirical case the saving in time was 30%). When the trainees know the objectives if the training programme, that is, if they are aware of the "why" aspect of the training and its relevance to their career, there would be reduction in "defects". McGehee (University of Pittsburg) had observed that in one case the "defects" halved when the trainees were informed about 'why' they were doing a particular job. Thus training principles contribute to effective training outcomes.

Executive development programmes are of different types. These may be broadly put into two namely on-the-job training programmes and off-the-job programmes. In the former case executive-trainees are trained on the job, usually by their immediate superior. It is a sort of learning by doing. The superior teach his subordinates, observes them while carrying out the given assignment, corrects them when they deviate from the established standards. Off-the-job programmes are run outside the organization usually by professional training institutes either in collaboration with the concerned organizations where from executives re drawn for training or other wise. Each types of training has its won merits and draw back. In the following section some of the on-the-job training programmes are discussed. Off-the-job development programmes will be discussed in the next lessons.

Coaching is "an important development tool for converting potential performance to actual performance." Marion Kellogg of American Management Association had observed that coaching is a means of reinforcing on-the-job development, putting development into the work itself. Coaching has been generally recognized as an important factor whereby superiors can help subordinates reach objectives. In helping the sub-ordinates to reach the objectives through development, some useful lessons can be learnt by studying the parallel with a football game.

In a football game, as in any other game, the coach observes his men in action from the sidelines to find their strong and weak points. The coach never directly participates in the execution of the play. He assists each player in practice and helps him develop so that he is ready to achieve goals, ie., winning the game. He urges,

prompts, leads, helps, instructs, corrects, disciplines, and trains the players to prepare themselves, for meeting not only the expected developments of the game but also the unexpected. Coaching is a neverending process. It requires time; but, if done well, it will save time, money, energy and costly mistakes by the players. It is the art of making a poor performer better, a better performer best and best performer superlative. The coach not only builds the strength of the team, but also instills the sense of trust, confidence will and desire to rise above the expectations. The coach will continue to watch his men even if they perform the way they should, so that they don't slip into bad habits. If need be he will repeat his coaching and develop his players to their fullest potential.

In the same analogy, in business also, the supervisor coach has to coach his subordinate-players. The coaching process used by the superior is potentially the most direct and effective way of influencing the subordinates. It provides daily guidance and help to subordinate in meeting their commitments. The assistance maybe iun the form of enhancing the skill and knowledge or motivation and stimulation that is often needed when the going gets tough.

Coaching can use many techniques though on one technique is superb. Kellogg has prescribed a list of do's and Dont's for effective coaching. Effective techniques will vary with the objectives, jobs, the level of subordinate personality and ability, the character of relationship between the coach and trainee and so on. Whatever the technique is adopted it must fit the situation, if it were to be effective in guiding, helping and encouraging trainees to achieve the goals.

Coaching must be done by the superior and should not be delegated. The coach must be readily available for the trainees as and when the latter need for former's assistance some of the principles and guidelines of effective coaching are given below.

a. Coaching must be a two-way interactive process. Daily face-to-face interactions are effective for work progress and individual growth.

b. Good timing in offering corrections and suggestions will improve performance.

c. Excessive disciplining or criticizing will defer the subordinates from moving ahead.

d. The coach should set up an environment free from excessive interferences.

e. The coach should limit his guidance, etc., to a specific few but important areas need change or improvement.

f. The coach should confine his coaching to the work and ability of subordinates.

g. The coach should inculcate habits of feeling responsible and accountable for job accomplishment on the part of the subordinates.

h. The coach should show a sincere and keen personal interest in subordinates' development.

i. The coach should allow the subordinate to express his individuality in his work by letting him to the work in his own way.

j. Cost of coaching should not exceed the benefits of coaching.

At this state the difference, between managerial coaching and coaching workers can be cited. In the latter case, the trainees are presented objectives. In the former case, however, the trainees are themselves required to set the objectives, of course, the superior would help them and guide them in the right direction. A positive aspect of a managerial coaching is that of requiring the subordinates to establish annual and quarterly objectives. The attempts of the subordinates may not be 100% successful; in fact the results always fall short in some respects. However, in the process of attempting to establish objectives the subordinates learn more than under any other of management systems.

Understudy arrangement is one of the on-the-job training programmes. In such an arrangement, the trainees work directly with those whom they may replace. The senior executive is given the major responsibility for training his understudy. He is expected to prepare, the latter to assume full responsibility for the job. In fact it is the clinical phase of development where there is a formalization of the old informed, "rubbing off" process, where every manager at the next higher level becomes teacher in the everyday world of practical and specific events. The management hierarchy then becomes a vast training network in which each level represents a level of development, and in which, consequently, a higher level becomes competent to train the immediate lower level and is held directly accountable for doing so effectively. It is a sort of internship training the medicos undergo. But, unlike the case of physicians, managerial internship is a never ending process.

To be successful, the understudy arrangement must be made the sole responsibility of the superior. It must be included as one of the formal duties of managers. It must be made a systematized daily and continuous function rather than a haphazard chore or a function which is taken up only when need arises. The subordinates are periodically assessed and given suggestions as to how they might be able to eliminate the undesirable and further enhance the desirable. The manager must indoctrinate the understudy into his job. It should become natural for him to share his knowledge with the understudy to make it possible for him to apply this knowledge and to gain experience in situations calling for good management decisions.

SUMMARY

The understudy arrangement is not an unmixed blessing. The shortcomings are:

a. Some managers assume that an understudy ie., the trainee, requires to imitate them.

b. Understudies may learn to imitates the weak as well as the strong points of the manager

c. If the manager-understudy relation is that of observant, the learning process is handicapped. Then suggestions border closely on being orders. Results are not hoped for; they are specified.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain briefly about executive development program?

2. What are the objectives of this program?

OTHER TRAINING DEVELOPMENT TECHNIQUES

STRUCTURE

1. Introduction

INTRODUCTION

In spite these shortcomings, this method has been successfully adopted in the west.

Job rotation is one of the widely used executive development programmes. Certain well known institutions like the Sears, Roebuck and company, the Bank of America, the National City Bank, etc., in the U.S. have adopted job rotation programme to develop their executives. Job rotation, simply involves, shifting the trainee from one position to another as a means of broadening his experience and familiarizing him with many areas and aspects of business management. During his stay with each department the trainee is assigned to spend some time in each of the department activities, where he learns by carrying responsibility in a line or staff role in the activities concerned.

The objectives of job rotation programme are may and these are:

a. To provide a wholesome development to executives, Top executives need to practice in making decisions and in carrying out responsible jobs in various business phases. To equip them properly in an "all-round" fashion, job rotation is a handy method.

b. To bring substantial improvements in the departments of the business. When job rotation is practiced, the trainees move through a number of departments and they offer new ideas to improve the functioning of the various department.

c. To develop the know-low, understanding ability and judgement capacity of executives in approaching and dealing with diverse people and varied situations, in thinking their way through to conclusions or plans, and in carrying plans into successful operation. All these can be acquired only through actual experience in handling different job, situations.

d. To develop managerial traits and abilities on the part of future executives.

e. To learn by doing is the basic objective of job rotation programme of executive development.

The merits of job rotation programmes are highlighted by Dwight S. Sargent, American Management Association. These are listed below.

a. It provides a well-rounded training and experience for the individual, familiarizing him with many phases of the company's operations.

b. It enables the executive in making decisions more intelligently and in the light of their effect on all activities of the company.

c. It stream lines the organization through continuous introduction of new managerial view points and eliminating the unnecessary practices.

d. It stimulates the development of individual through competition.

e. Vested interests in any job held by any individual cannot be continued for ever.

f. It tests the individual. The executive ability and versatility of individuals are tested, and those with promising potentials are identified for promotion and rewards.

g. It provides a means of placing individuals in the jobs for which they are best fit and qualified.

h. It tries to prevent uncooperative attitudes, on the part of individuals, by periodically changing them from job to job, from association to association, etc.

i. It minimizes friction caused by personality clashes or personal feuds. Exposes chronic source of such friction and enables to take suitable corrective action.

j. It widens the trainee's circle of acquaintance among company executives.

Job rotation proramme has certain limitations too. These are stated below:

a. It encourages generalization and prevents and defeats specialization. As the trainee is moved from department to department, what be acquires is only an A-B-C level of knowledge on each of the functions. He does not master any one particular function. Continued professional and technical development is not possible.

b. Sometimes continued movement through the several phases of the rotation is not adopted, inadvertently or deliberately, this is bad.

c. The validity of job rotation as a developmental device is still a matter of opinion.

d. Special career patterns that combine experience in selected divisions and jobs are considered superior to general rotation.

SUMMARY

No training programme is free from pitfalls; so is the job rotation programme. However, in the end it may be suggested that instead of organization wide rotation, rotation may be limited to select divisions so that professional specialization can be ensured.

KEY WORKS
1. Pitfalls

REVIEW OF QUESTIONS
1. What is Training Need?

2. Explain TWI

3. Write short notes:
    i. Productivity Council
    ii. Management Association

4. What is Executive Development?

5. Explain few of the Methods of EDP?

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL-NEED

STRUCTURE

1. Introduction
2. Methods of Appraisal
3. Critical Incident method
4. The rules of Rating
5. Appraisal Programme

INTRODUCTION

Every organization should have a separate performance appraisal activity to the effective running of an organization. This periodic appraisal would differentiate between efficient and inefficient workers. It should not be done, not only on the basis of a degree he possesses but also his performance, aptitude and other qualifies.

Thus performance appraisal is defined as an evaluation made by the employer to the employee on the basis of his skills and potentialities and other qualities which are necessary for carrying his job successfully.

By doing the performance appraisal activity, each and every employee are motivated to do their job in the best way. Comparative records between the employees can be made. It had him in giving advices regarding future developments, where he stands; It creates self-improvement and growth. This activity helps in making determinations regarding promotion and transfer.

There are number of methods followed in performance appraisal. Some of them are ordering by comparison, grading, scales, etc.

METHODS OF APPRAISAL

The first method is Rank order method one the oldest methods followed in performance appraisal. One person is compared with all the other men in the firm. Performance is taken into consideration for comparison. Secondly, the person who stands at the highest degree of leadership may be compared to the rest of the employees. This is very much useful in job evaluation. This is man to man rating system. Thirdly, the personnel are divided into three categories such as Outstanding (O), Satisfactory (S), and Unsatisfactory (U), all the employee are compared and analysed on their performance and graded as O, S & U. Sometimes percentages are also taken into consideration for analysis. Fourthly, some of the performances nature such as efficiency, his nature of work, etc., are factorized on one side, on the other side, different classes such as Excellent. Best, Average, Poor & Worst is given. These can be written on a chart basis, so that each employee's performance can be thoroughly analysed. Nowadays, this method is followed in most of the organizations. Sometimes, points are given for each work and appraisal can be done as per his efficiency.

The first method tells about the man to man comparison in a simple rank order. For example, Employee X's performance is compared with 'Y' and with 'Z' etc., according to that decision is made. The same approach is used for the other person. Thus all the

person's performance is decided by comparison. The results of these persons performance can be tabulated by rank order method.

The second method is the man to man rating system, called Man-to-Man Comparison. Through this method, certain factors such as leadership, initiative and dependability can be easily selected and they are placed at the upper end of the scale. Instead of comparing whole men to whole men, persons are compared to key men of one particular factor at a time.

The third method is through Grading method, certain categories of worth are made in advance, and performance is compared as outstanding, satisfactory and unsatisfactory and the person is allocated to the grade which best his performance. In federal civil services, this method is followed as O, S, & U. Sometimes percentages are established for each grade. This is forced distribution system (ie) 10% of the total personnel should go to the top grade, 20% should go to the second grade, 40% should go to the middle, 20% should go to the fourth and 10% should go to the lower grade.

The fourth method is that, here a line is drawn for each factor & graded. Different classes are mentioned. The line starts with the best class and ends with the worst. Factors such as quantity of work done, quality, ability, locality, leadership, efficiency, health, different classes of grades are, excellent, best, good, average, poor & worst. At last, data, total marks, signature should be made. Two subdivisions of this method are adjectival method and numerical method. In case of adjectival method marks made in the column of adjective which best suits him. The main advantage of this method is that it is very simple. In case of Numerical method, numbers are used. All the numbers are totaled and the employee is evaluated. The most commonly used system is establishing scales. The two types are initiative and dependability and quantity and quality of work. In this variety of rating scales, the overall score is determined by adding up the scores given to specific factors.

Next step is the never rating methods; In this method, behaviour check-list method and forced-choice method are there. In case of behaviour check-list method, a statement is made regarding the qualities and behaviour of the employees. The statement made should be analysed and marks should be pointed out. In case of forced choice method, number of statements are given, it is analysed and evaluated. All the statements may be favourable or not. It is more objective.

CRITICAL INCIDENT METHOD

It aim to make representative sample of observed behaviour which can be used as basis for obtaining objective, quantitative data regarding the job. Activity analysis can be made to yield the type of sampling data which can lead to inference and predictions. Actual observations made of the on the job activity and the product of such activity. The aims and objectivity of the activity must be known to the observer. The basis must be clearly defined.

THE RULES FOR RATING
1. Selection of rates is done carefully.
2. Planning required.

3. The qualities to be evaluated should be properly interpreted.

4. It should be simple

5. It should be done objectively.

APPRAISAL PROGRAMME

An appraisal programme for employee in organization should be carefully planned and executed. The employees should not feel it as suspicious and should not perceive for victimizing them. The main objective of programme is to support them and make them feel confident about it. generally any programme of this type requires co-operation and co-ordination of staff and line authorities. The programme principles and ideas need be consented may help in the implementation stage. The points to be considered are following.

1. The main purpose of the programme

2. Objective and subjective criteria to be evaluated.

3. The main use of the programme

4. Current performance.

5. Future training requirements

6. Team work and group effect

7. Any link with welfare schemes and fringe benefits including incentives.

When employees are well consulted on the above points, the programme will be receiving wide support from them.

SUMMARY

This lesson tells you about the performance appraisal? and what is the need for it. By 90 throughing is we can understand that performance appraisal is nothing but support employee and them confident about the work.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is Performance Appraisal?

2. What is need for Performance Appraisal?

3. What are the Methods of Performance Appraisal?

DEVELOPING AND ADMINISTRATING APPRAISAL PROGRAMME

STRUCTURE

1. Introduction

2. Developing Appraisal Programme

3. Administering Appraisal Programme

INTRODUCTION

Appraisal programme in organization should be organized in a systematic way. A committee can be constituted for this experts opinion. Line staff opinion and consultants opinion can be sought before the implementation. The feasibility of the programmes should be studied before implementation. The feasibility include the factors viz;

1. Current employee performance

2. Aptitude and attitude of employers

3. Areas of development

4. Training skills to be acquired

5. Criteria for evaluation

6. Utility of appraisal

7. Any modifications required in current method of appraisal.

After having taken the above points, employees opinion can be sought.

DEVELOPING APPRAISAL PROGRMMES

An appraisal programme when developed, requires coordination from all sections. There is no cut and dry formula. The needs of the Appraisal should have been ascertained. The appraisal objectives, components, criteria for evaluation, ranking scale, employees attitude, future training requirements, current job performance etc., should have been decided earlier. The appraisal programme should always fit into organizational culture, policy and procedures. The programme should always reflect the employees interest and current job performance. There are many constraints at the time of formulating programme. Different of opinion and vagueness may be possible at the time of introducing the system. The committee when constituted earlier should take a time bound programme in constituting the appraisal. It has to go in details about the structure, format, evaluation criteria and the time of implementation. It should also take into account the need for training the supervisors who are going to merit rate employees. There is difference between confidential report and appraisal. There is no system in confidential report. But the appraisal calls for some sort of system approach. System in the sense the factors for evaluation are predecided. The feasibility and practical constraints are probed much earliest before the programme gets implemented.

ADMINISTERING APPRAISAL PROGRAMME

When we call basically appraisal a system approach, are has to see that it is done carefully. When everything is predecided earlier about the total scope of the system, the merit raters should have been either trained or appraised about the programme. It is

better at times, a pilot study was done before the real appraisal. Any drawbacks and remarks can be curtailed before the real meritrating.

The formats of the appraisal are printed and a person is made responsible for keeping the books. Then, they can be distributed to the trainers and supervisors who are responsible for this venture. When the trainers or supervisors were already aware of the appraisal, it is easy to implement. The trainers must be briefed about the scope of the programme and the techniques of merit rating. They must also be briefed about the time of appraisal and the span required for ordinary completion of appraisal. It is always correct to select experienced supervisors for doing appraisal. There must be co-ordination and co-operation among employees when programme is implemented. The doubts of employees can be clarified. The supervisors should not have any bias in evaluation. At the time of evaluation, cross checking can be done so that errors may be minimized. The evaluation system should be subject to overall supervision by the representatives of top management. After the evaluation is over, all the formats and books to be recollected an deposited in personnel department. A group of experts can process the evaluated sheets and ascertain the facts and data. A Master chart can be prepared and all the details can be recorded. The result of the evaluation should be disclosed earlier so that management can take steps in dividing on promotion and training.

SUMMARY

In this lesson by 90 throughing one can know about the performance appraisal. not only that how to implement the performance appraisal and how to develop the performance appraisal. So that the employee will work more. For the development of the company. By this lesson we understand that not only performance appraisal is needed and also how to develop it in a meaningful way.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is performance appraisal
2. How will you Develop Appraisal Programme of a company?
3. Explain few methods of Employee Performance Appraisal.

PROMOTION AND TRANSFER-PURPOSES AND OPERATIONAL ASPECTS

STRUCTURE

1. Introduction
2. A good promotion policy
3. Recruitment from outside
4. Promotion seniority of ability
5. Calculating Seniority
6. Arguments in favour of seniority
7. Argument Against Seniority
8. Disadvantages of Seniority Policy
9. Merit and Ability
10. Striking a Balance-Seniority and Ability
11. Policy elements in promotion
12. Types of Transfers
13. Remedial Transfers may be used in
14. Records and Reports

INTRODUCTION

Promotion and transfer are necessary for filling up jobs. They have influence on manpower planning. Proper management of promotion and transfer help in decision making related to compensation, security and welfare schemes. The supervisors can get right directing in their departmental functions. There are several types of promotion. In recession, advancement may not be accompanied by salary. There may be additional responsibility. Upgradation may also denote increase in pay. The promotion provides opportunities for employer to adjust the work force to his requirements. It can increase the morale of employees. It is an incentive for workers. It attracts skilled people. It creates satisfaction among people.

Promotion can be done within the organization in order to reduce the dependence on outside recruitment. Specialist on the job can be promoted. People who work in organization may have good knowledge about procedures, rules, culture, job techniques etc., they may not need special training for this purpose. People get motivation to work in better way. People must believe that promotion will be automatic. This will increase the moral. People can get more job satisfaction. People need additional responsibility with better pay and living conditions. Promotion can be made from recruitment. People with right ability can be recruited. There must be a optimum mix of new candidates and old employees.

The criteria for promotion-seniority is actually a task for trade union and management. Trade union may prefer seniority. Management may prefer ability and skill. Seniority will also be the criteria for promotion seniority means length of service.

It may be measured as the number of days and service with period of absence automatically deducted. It refers to the longest period of consecutive service. It may also refer the length of service in the department. Part-time employees will not get the privilege. Specific provisions established with respect to leaves of absence. For trainees, seniority accounted within the group for higher level executives seniority provisions may be modified by special provisions; seniority may be determined of length of time employee worked in company; Department or held a specific job. Seniority will give employees the sense of equity. Employees feel that promotion is made as routine affair. It is reward for loyalty. It is an encouragement for the employees to continue the employment.

Seniority policy ignores merit of ability, dull people coming for elevation and productivity factor may be absent.

Among the operative and clerical categories in the lower ranks, seniority should be the basis for promotion. In respect of technical supervisory personnel, seniority come merit should be the criteria. for higher level post, merit should above the criteria. The promotion policy should be understood by all the people.

A GOOD PROMOTION POLICY

The promotion policy includes the encouragement of promotion from within, ability and seniority and clear organizational chart. The policy should be understood by all the people. The approval is given by the management. Promotion should be for employees to know the stage of progress. List containing staff in relation to present job, skill acquired, future career, training, aptitude should be maintained to fill up vacancies.

Any policy on promotion should take into account of job analysis and methods. The job description and methods informations should be periodically updated. It is better for any organization to form a committee for this purpose. The hints on promotion can be developed with meetings of supervisors, line heads, consultants and specialist etc; the committee can go through these points and formulate a uniform policy; The trade union can be consulted with policy. Their opinion and feedback can be sought. Sometimes, a consultant can observe and make out a survey and give ideas before formulating a policy. A democratic policy generally adopted by the management is the discussion with trade union members before the implementation of policy. When merit rating/appraisal properly done, the results could have been carried in promotion norms. The main idea of promotion policy is to help the management to identify the job challenges and organizational requirements. So the employees needs and organizational requirements. So the employees needs and aspirations should also reflect in policy and thereby dispute can be avoided after implementation of policy. Promotions from within creates serious problems.

a) Some employees question whether those who are promoted are most deserving.

b) Charges of discrimination and favoritism are to be expected.

c) It prevents the employment of outsiders whose know how and new ideas may be needed.

d) The inevitable limitations on numbers of positions in upper echelons create problems.

RECRUITMENT FROM OUTSIDE

Many organizations seek outsiders to sit on their boards of directors in order to introduce new perspective, Likewise, they reserve certain number of positions for the new comers. This infusion of 'new blood' keeps the system from growing stagnant, repetitions and overly conformist. This is of less importance in temporary or hourly paid jobs than in staff and managerial jobs.

Recruitment from outside the firm reduces the expenses of training new employees, particularly for skilled tradesmen. Promotion completely from within can discourage the highly ambitious and well-trained qualified persons. Many companies purposefully hire a greater number of young, well trained managers or specialists than even can be promoted. They hope that the competitive atmosphere thus generated will serve to test the candidate's mettle and weed out the less able and energetic. The competition may become destructive and may lead to the loss of the best people rather than the worst. Actually, there needs to be an optimum mix of new comers and old timers. Too many highly competitive, hard driving executives can be almost as destructive as too many time serving old fogies.

PROMOTION-SENIORITY OR ABILITY

Management must face a difficult task of deciding who to promote, since there are usually more candidates than openings. The choice usually revolves around evaluations of relative merit, ability and length of service.

The extent to which promotions should be based on seniority is almost always an area of dispute between unions and management. Trade unions tend to argue in favour of seniority, and management naturally thinks in terms of ability. Trade unions think in terms of their membership as a whole and are constantly suspicious of favoritism. To the individual worker, the picture may be different. What incentive is there to a new employee to improve his performance, if there is no chance of his promotion until all those senior to him have been promoted.

In current practice, seniority has become a major consideration in promotion and in many transfers. Seniority rules and rights have assumed such importance that neither policy nor practice can be discussed without detailed reference to them. Some form of seniority is specified in 90 to 95 per cent of all the existing collective agreement. It is coupled with ability or merit as determining eligibility for promotion in a majority of such agreements. As Elinore H. Herrick has pointed out the impact of seniority provisions extend to almost every contact between managements and their employees. Seniority means length of service. It refers to the fact that some employees "get these first." The general idea is that those who were first should have first choice, that relative new comers should get less of the benefits or working and accept more of the hardship. In more general language, seniority describes "the principle that an employee's relative length of service in an enterprise is a factor in determining his employment rights and job opportunities in that enterprise." The growth of industrial unionism in mass production industries was accompanied by the broad demands for seniority as a

production against favoritism, arbitary discharge and employers' preferences for younger employees.

Seniority means essentials length of services which subject to numerous interpretations. It may be calculated as the time elapsed since the employee's name first appeared on the pay roll or it may be measured as the number of days of service since that date with period of absence or lay off automatically deducted. Again, it may refer to the longest period of consecutive service. Absence from the payroll for extended periods causes loss of seniority. Seniority may be determined by the length of service within a particular department. No seniority rights for the part time employees.

Seniority may be limited to those whose period of service is unbroken except for the approved leaves of absence of causes beyond the control of the employee. Specific provisions may be established with respect to leaves of absence, absence on account of illness or attention to union. New employee, placed on probation for a stated period acquires no seniority is calculated from the date on which they were hired. Current practice generally permits employees to maintain seniority and to continue the acrual of seniority during specified types of absence from work. At the same time, employees may lose their rights arising out of seniority because of quitting employment being discharged for cause, violation of leave of absence provisions, unexplained absence form the job etc. For trainees and apprentices, seniority is granted only within their own groups. In the case of exceptional employees persons specially trained for managerial positions and other persons who are essential even when operations are restricted, exemption may be granted from the seniority rules. Where necessary, simple seniority arrangements may be modified by special provisions granting preference and special rights to certain individuals or groups. Foreman and supervisors are usually assumed to hold up seniority.

Calculation of length of service may be made on either a departmental or a plant-wide basis. It may be limited to a single plant, or it may extend to several plants operated by the same employer in which case, it is called as company-wide. The plant wide seniority provides a single seniority list in which all job holders are included. It works best when all jobs require similar skills and experience. Company wide seniority is appropriate only if the whole organization is composed of jobs having similar requirements of skill and experience. Departmental seniority permits the exercise of seniority rights only within the department.; in some cases, the length of service is calculated in terms of time spent in the department. In other, it is calculated from the date of joining the firm i.e. the seniority they may have accumulated within the firm. In some practices, an employee who is transferred from one department to another retains whatever, the seniority he may have in each of the departments. He may exercise his seniority rights in any department in which he has worked. In some other practice, the employee can exercise his rights in the department in which he has the longest service. A combination of plant-wide or company-wide seniority and departmental seniority is developed and practiced in many organizations. In a plant wide expansion, plant-wide seniority is applicable whereas if the expansion is restricted to a single department, departmental seniority is applicable.

CALCULATING SENIORITY

There are a number of ways or calculating seniority:

a) Company wide seniority: the length of time employee has worked for the company.

b) Department seniority: the length of time an employee has worked in a particular department in the company.

c) Job seniority: the length of time an employee has held a specific job in a particular department of the company.

CALCULATING SENIORITY

i) Objectivity and Equity: The use of such criteria as performance valuation, selection tests and supervisory opinions lead many employees to feel that promotions are not made fairly. Employees charges of favoritism and discrimination may lead to decline in morale and productivity. Therefore, promotions must be based on some objective criterion namely length of service. When management knows that it is going to promote the employee with the longest service, chances are that the company will give him the training he needs to move into the job. Management will also tend to perfect its initial selection procedures.

ii) Inequity through seniority: Excessive emphasis on seniority, however, may violate employee attitudes about the right way of getting a head. Some employees lack the desire or the ability to advance. But they want to know that others who are more able and more ambitious are receiving appropriate recognition.

iii) Contribution to ability: Upto some point, it seems likely that the longer an employee works at one job, the more qualified he becomes for promotion to the next higher job. Research among the production workers suggests that the employee with the longest is initially willing to admit. For many jobs, particularly at lower levels, differences in ability from one employee to another may be less important than management thinks. Therefore, the gain in morale derived from promoting the most senior employee may more than off set any slight loss of a efficiency.

iv) Reward for Loyalty: It is a fact that granting promotions on the basis of seniority is to reward employees for loyal. If the management wants to hold on to its employees and avoid costly turnover, a type of guaranteed promotion play may be an effective personnel policy.

v) Promotions done peacefully, and people think that seniority is security and long experience helps in anticipating what, how etc. Security is a matter of major concern to the employees. Seniority has achieved acceptance in larger measures because no one has suggested or provided a better measure of employee's worth to the work team.

vi) Encouragement for retention and continuous employment. It encourages the retention of continuous employment of older employees who would have difficulty in finding other jobs especially in a period of labour surplus.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST SENIORITY

Policy on seniority has been the subject of long consideration indecision, controversy. Many employers have opposed the principle of seniority and have resisted proposals to give it an important influence in policy. They have argued that it is unsound, encouraging inefficiency that it exerts an adverse effect on morale and that it restricts management in making important decisions. In many cases beyond a certain level, seniority and continued service brings very little again, Indeed, after a point increased length of service actually reduces an employee's ability to change jobs, producing in him what is knows as "a trained incapacity " i.e. he becomes so immured with the problems and procedures of his present job that he is unable to adjust to new circumstances and situations. The expert becomes simply too expert in what he is done.

DISADVANTAGES OF SENIORITY POLICY

  i. Ignores merit or ability.

 ii. No guarantee is there that length of service will produce ability (George Hill)

iii. No incentive to new employees.

 iv. Does not guarantee selection of competent men.

  v. It provides no incentive towards preparation for advancement. It drives ambitions and able men, with little service out of the firm.

 vi. From the point of view of productivity merit counts most.

MERIT AND ABILITY

Pigors and Charles Myers state "Management should stress ability above seniority in promotions. Seniority should be considered but only when the qualifications of two candidates for a better post are for practical purposes substantially equal."

If promotion is to be a incentive, the best performing employees must be advanced. But differences in merit may not be readily measurable. People may develop demoralizing belief that favoritism rather than superior performance was a critical factor in promoting people. In many job the achieved results reflect the co-ordinated activities of many people or chance factor. But there is also the questions of ability i.e. potential performance on there jobs. Gopu may be doing fine on his present job but lack the ability to do the work on a higher ranked job. But Ram may be doing poorly at present because of inadequate supervision or the unchallenging nature of the work. He may blossom if he is put on more difficulty and challenging work.

Long term factors are also relevant. The individual best fitted for an immediate promotion may not have the greatest long term potential. The most deserving candidate at the moment may be a senior employee who has the ability to move only one more step up the promotional ladder, but it may be better to promote a younger man who may eventually advance into higher management.

However, ability is as difficult to measure as merit. The specific traits. Attitudes, personalities and skills that make up ability are frequently ambiguous. For this reason, companies often rely on objective measurements-e.g. years of education. To complicate matters further, some people may be given special opportunities to acquire valuable skills whereas others are not. Certain jobs give employees an opportunity to move about

freely, bringing them into contact with high level personnel whose opinions are crucial in promotion decisions. They learn their way around the organization and are on the spot when a promotional opportunity comes up. The concept of ability is like that of merit, surrounded by subjective elements that may create inequities. However, it is still important to make an effort to measure and reward excellence in service, or that have relied too heavily on personal relationships or length of service, suffer in terms of both efficiency and morale.

STRIKING A BALANCE-SENIORITY AND ABILITY

Every organization must decide on the relative weights it will give to merit, ability and seniority in making promotion decisions. Even when company policy sets up merit and ability as the prime determinants, some companies give more weight age to the seniority. Supervisors, in general, believe that relations with their subordinates will be easier and better if they promote the most senior employee. Almost all companies give some weight to the seniority in practice whereas unionized firms give more weight age.

The National Commission on Labour has suggested that as a general rule, particularly among the operative and clerical categories in the lower ranks, seniority should be the basis for promotion. In respect of middle management, technical supervisory and administrative personnel, seniority-cum-merit should be the criterion. For high managerial technical and administrative positions., merit alone should be the guiding factor. This is an attempt to oversimplify the whole issue. The highly skilled or even skilled categories of labour could hardly be on the basis of seniority. Nor could promotion from unskilled to semi-skilled. Similarly, among clerks, seniority could not be dependent on for promotion to, say, Head Clerks or Section-in-charge whose skills in supervision play a major role.

Therefore, both seniority and ability must be taken into consideration. In order to overcome suspicions, there must be a promotion policy which should be understood by all. It can, for example, be laid down that workers will be considered in order of seniority and if not selected for promotion, they will be told the reason for their suppression.

POLICY ELEMENTS IN PROMOTION

In general, a sound policy in this area is to secure and hold the best possible employees. It aims to find those who are qualified for the jobs to be filled and to train and develop them to their highest potentialities. It tries to encourage their versatility and mobility, so that they can adjust themselves to technological and other changes. It proposes a maximum of economic security and the prevention of prejudice of favoritism in hiring or relations of employees.

In a good policy, the lines of promotion should be clear so that a worker knows the possibilities of promotions. Moreover, the management must decide how promotion is to be handled. A good promotion policy may include:

i. Encouragement of promotion within the organization instead of looking outside to fill vacancies in higher posts.

ii. An understanding that ability and seniority will be taken into consideration in making promotions.

iii. Drawing up an organizations chart to make clear to all the ladder of promotion. Where there is a job analysis and planned wages policy, such a chart is also to be prepared.

iv. Making it clear to all concerned who may initiate and handle cases of promotion. Though departmental heads may initiate promotions, the final approval should lie with top management after the personnel department has been asked to check from its knowledge any repercussions which are likely to result from the proposed promotion.

v. All promotion should be for a trail period, in case the promoted person is not found capable of handling the job. Normally, during the trial period he draws the pay of the higher post, but it should be early understood that if he does not make the grade" he will be reverted to his former post and his former pay scale.

Trade unions frequently argue that they should have some say in promotions, but industrial courts have so far held that promotion is a management function.

If there is an annual rating of all employees recorded on their service registers, it will be of great assistance in deciding their promotions. It is a good practice to let each employee know how he is progressing and what are his faults that may be corrected. This should be done either by the departmental head or the personal department and a decision on this point can be reached after consulting all concerned. Planning for future replacement, especially for higher posts, is important and this should go hand in hand with any promotion policy. Departmental heads should be encouraged to keep men trained sufficiently earlier so that they can be promoted to higher jobs as these fall vacant. The more important the job, the more important it is that replacement is planned in advance. Management should distinguish carefully, in their selective programmes, between persons they hire for positions that are likely to lead to promotions and those who are regarded as likely to remain relatively permanent and stationary in original appointment.

Whenever there is a vacancy in a higher job, sound personnel policy requires that its filling should be promotion from within, if possible.

PROMOTION PROGRAMME

Dealing with the individual. The individual employees in any organization can be broadly, classified as those who are likely to be promoted, unlikely to be promoted and those who doesn't want to be promoted. A supervisor must be able to predict who will be most likely candidates for promotion when vacancies arise. He must keep those unlikely to be promoted from taking it for granted that they will soon be promoted. If his misapprehension is allowed to continue the employee will be sadly disappointed. This problem can be avoided, if the supervisor makes a point of discussing with the hopeful candidate the exact nature of the new responsibilities long before the opening actually occurs. If the employee is clearly not qualified, he may be convinced to accept his unsuitability. The supervisor may be able to suggest a way in which the employee can supplement his back-ground or improve his performance so that he will eventually becomes eligible for a promotional opportunity. If he is unwilling easier to make the extra effort required, supervisors job becomes much easier to pass over. At an

appropriate time the supervisor has to inform the individual that he is likely to be promoted. The candidate will be anxious to undertake additional training to prepare himself and tensions in the group may be reduced when the decision is reached. However, informing the likely candidate too earlier may appear unfair and discriminatory.

Any one who does not wanto advance is regarded as queer or lazy. Many individuals take on higher level jobs even when they are not suited for additional responsibility, but the cost is high to themselves and to the organization. Actually a clear recognition of each employee's psychological and intellectual limits is valuable both to the organization and to the individual. The employee who has reached the limit of his ambitions or abilities still has a vital role to play. But non-mobile people must not be permitted to monopolise the jobs in which more suitable candidates can be prepared for higher positions.

Serious problems are experienced by the man who does move up into a new position, particularly if it involves supervision. The employee who is promoted to a non-supervisory position has his problems, too, for he may be facing new responsibilities for which he is not wholly prepared. If his supervisor or superior is aware of these strains, he can provide the understanding that will help the new man.

If opportunities for promotion differ greatly from one department to another, morale may be seriously affected. The opportunity for promotion is a function of the width of the promotional ladder. If a management assures that without affecting their accrued benefits, men can transfer easily from a department in which they are blocked to a department in which there are more openings, inequities are less likely to occur-one way of widening the leader is to tie together "families" of jobs that call for common skills and common experience.

It is more desirable to have "many road to the top" so that no group is favoured. Major training and development programme can project promotional opportunities. Department sometimes try to hoar more employees than they need. Excess man power can mean absence of job challenger; if there are too many people for too little work they get into one another's way. If some supervisors are reluctant to let their trained workers move on to higher rated jobs in other department serious inequities are bound to develop.

The number of promotions possible is determined in part by the number of different wage of salary grades in existence. Too few promotional steps may injure morale by eliminating the sense of personal progress and accomplishment. Too many promotional steps may mean that an excessive amount of time and effort must be spent in selecting candidates qualifying for the choices. The result may be chaos.

TYPES OF TRANSFERS

Life would be simpler if all movements of employees in an organization upward to higher skilled and more responsible positions. But in practice, because of the changing needs of the company and the shifting desires of employees there is a great deal of horizontal movement transfer between jobs paying approximately the name salary.

A transfer may be regarded as "lateral shift, involving the movement of employees from one position of the department to another generally without involving any significant change in duties' responsibilities, skills required or compensation" – Dale Yoder.

The most frequent type of transfer appears when the need for manpower in one job or department is reduced or increased. Employees may then be transferred to meet the changing demand.

1. Production transfer is made to meet the new need of the company. When production is declining in a given department, special rush order comes through and work force has to be temporarily increased. According to S. Watkins, production transfers are used to deal with fluctuation in work requirements and to increase versatility and competence of key employees.

2. Remedial transfers: It represents shifts made to meet the needs of employees rather than those of the employer. It is also called as remedial transfer. It is used when original placement is false, for health reasons, because of general personal difficulties etc. Also when the employee is not adjusted in his present situation. In some cases, individuals may have changed their interests since their original placement. They may have broadened their knowledge and developed skills so that they require transfer for that reason. In other cases, personal relationships may make such a shift necessary.

REMEDIAL TRANSFERS MAY BE USED IN

    a. Correcting erroneous placement / wrong placement

    b. Relieving monotony and boredom

    c. Providing an outlet from blind alley jobs

    d. Correcting incompatibilities in employee relations

    e. Interest or health or age of employee

    f. Providing creative opportunity

    g. Training employees for later promotion etc.

3. Replacement transfer is used in conjunction with lay off when a long service employee replaces one with less service.

4. Versatility transfer is to benefit both the employee and the company by providing a broad background of a variety of the job experience.

5. Shift transfer is made when there are more than one shift used and when there is regularized rotation.

In current practice, a rather sharp distinction is made between temporary and permanent transfers. The distinction is of special importance to both employees and employer because it affect wages and salaries. Permanent transfers are those in which the new job is regarded as the work assignment until changed by promotion or another transfer. Temporary transfers are those in which both employee and employer expect a return to the original position or to a different assignment in the near future. Following are the problems in transfer.

1. It is not possible when a person is found not replaceable.

2. Specialist can only go from one such job to other specialist job. It may lead to frustration when he goes to an unspecialized job.

3. Change of adaptation makes a new demand-concerning efficiency

4. Frequent transfers create personal troubles and inconveniences.

5. It breaks the continuity of work.

So, there is a lot of planning necessary if there is a transfer. The departmental heads should be encouraged that they have men trained sufficiently in advance to step into other jobs when these fall vacant. The company's policy on transfers concern the conditions under which personnel transfers will be made and the basis for compensating employees in production transfers. Some employers prefer an informal policy on personnel transfers. They argue that such changes" take care of themselves" and that policy should let them do so. If an employee wants to transfer, let him ask. If a supervisor thinks, an employee should move, let him make necessary arrangements for the shift. But difficulties may develop out of such a policy. To avoid this a more specific policy is advisable. Such a policy indicates, when and under what circumstances transfer will be made and the channels through which requests for transfers wil be routed. This policy has uniform application in all departments. It is given wide publicity to ensure that all employee become familiar with it. policy requires that requested explain with the reason for the desired shift. Such requests must be considered and acted upon with a reasonable period of time and notice of action must be given to the employee as soon as possible. Production transfers are initiated by the employer to meet his needs. They raise a number of questions upon which employees may have prejudices and powerful reactions. A primary questions is "shall policy make production transfers easy or difficult? The answer depends upon labour market conditions.

1. PLAN OF JOB RELATIONSHIPS

The basic step in building a plan of promotion and transfer is that of determining the vertical and horizontal relations between jobs. For each job a schedule must be provided of the jobs to which promotions maybe and to which transfer may be made. Job analysis is an indispensable tool for securing the information upon which such determinations can be made. It provides information on the skill, experience, training, responsibility and environmental factors involved in each job. Then job study can be undertaken to determine which jobs are related vertically and horizontally. When job relationship are fully explored, promotion and transfer charts are constructed. Study of such diagrams provides quick answer regarding the jobs to which promotions or transfers can be made.

2. SELECTING APPROPRIATE EMPLOYEES

The next step in determining which employees are worthy of considerations when vacancies occur. This is the crucial step of the company's promotion and transfer plans. Utmost care should be exercised to select the best qualified employees and to be prepared to justify the selections. Where union is involved, some agreement will be reached regarding the relative weight to be given to seniority and merit. Beat plan is to have a good overall procedure of employee evaluations which calls for merit rating. The

plan of employer evaluation should include an arrangement for consultation and perhaps vocational guidance. A person's strong and weak points have to be discussed. Those who are ambitions can get suggestions to improve themselves.

RECORDS AND REPORTS

A third important step in building a promotion and transfer plan is that of designing adequate records and reports. The system should include.

i.   Forecasts of job vacancies

ii.   Central reporting of vacancies

iii.   Locating qualified employee

iv.   Notification of all parties concerned

v.   Follow up of promotion and transfer.

SUMMARY

Whether or not and to what extent, a transfer and promotion plan can be put into operation depends upon a number of factors.

a. There must be sufficient vacancies to warrant investments in an involved plan.

b. Satisfactory horizontal and vertical job relationship must be readily established.

c. If there is a danger inbreeding, a plan of filling the vacancies from within should not be adopted.

KEY WORDS

1. Relieving

2. Conjunction

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is good promotion policy?

2. What are the types of transfers?
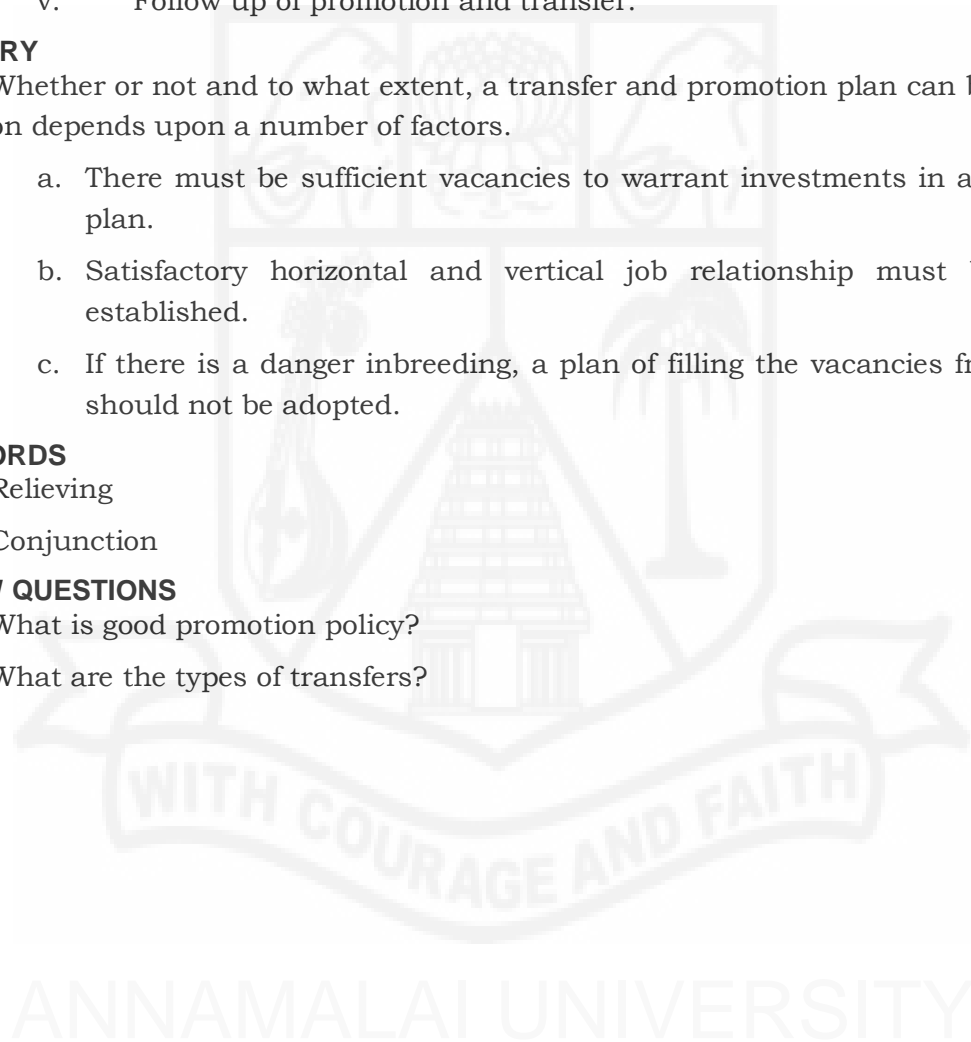
WAGES AND SALARY ADMINISTRATION VARIOUS INCENTIVE SCHEMES

STRUCTURE

1. Introduction

2. Aims

3. Wage Plan and Payments

4. Group incentive methods and plans

5. Wage incentives

6. Financial Incentives and Advantages

7. Disadvantage

8. Aims of incentive schemes.

INTRODUCTION

In knowing the condition of employment, wages and salaries are very important. Usually, the main aim of earning money is of fulfill various needs. Man has enormous desires to fulfill during his life time. The various needs which man has to fulfill through his job are physiological, sociological, psychological and so on, from the organizational point of view.

Maslow identifies these needs as; Physiological, security, social, self-esteem, and self actualization. The employees at the lower levels give more stress on money the workers at the middle and higher level, and Management level.

There is relationship between material rewards and work efforts. According to the productivity, payments are made.

To Taylor, the father of scientific management, the basic hypothesis of motivational theory of wages is that differential increments of income will produce differential increments of efforts or outputs. This results in dissatisfaction, frustration and breakdown in morale.

AIMS

1. *To attain optimum performance by motivating the employees:* Various incentive schemes are introduced inorder to make the employees to work in an efficient manner thereby attain the profit goal, higher wages and lower selling prices.

2. *To control employee costs:* New policies and procedures are established inorder to make the costs competitive and proportionate with their contribution, so that they can face a favourable balance between the employees costs and the returns.

3. *To provide a basis for the effective utilization and promotion of employees:* By establishing job standards and evaluating their performance, greater employee job satisfaction can be created.

4. *To promote close and smooth relationship between employee and employer:* This can be attained by giving a fair payment.

In large organizations, a separate department known as personnel department is created inorder to look after the problems and created administration of wages and salaries. But in small units, an accountant handles wages and salary matters. Thus wage and salary administration is the method of deciding and paying wages and salaries to the employees for the services they rendered. This includes planning, organizing and controlling.

The term 'wage' applies to all monetary payments and brings benefits paid to Workers for the work they perform wages are paid on time unit basis in united states. While in India the wages rate is computed on a day basis.

The responsibility of conducting wage need lies with the personnel department of the organization. But the responsibility must be specifically assigned to a person or a group or a department within the personnel area depending upon the size of the organization. Once, the responsibility is assigned, the next step is to establish a criteria in selecting the companies for the survey. For instance, a company may wish to assess companies of the same type in the same industry. This approach provides standardization for comparison of jobs among the companies in the same industry. Unions also often insist on comparing the wages paid by other companies in the same industry. Some organizations assume that the standard of living in their community or region is the same for all organizations and include the companies of the same type as their and other industries in the community or regions for the survey. The firm included in the survey must be adequate and a good representative sample for the statistical point of view.

When a decision is made on the type and number of companies, the next step is to explain the purpose to the companies included in the survey and secure their co-operation. Some organizations may view such information as confidential and may refuse to share with other companies in the community. But the majority of the organizations feel that such exchange would contribute to healthy relationships among the companies in the same community. Anonimity must be assured to other companies in securing information on wages and wage rates.

As important step in the procedure is to select the number of particular type of jobs to be included in the wage survey. The jobs selected must be commonly present in the companies included in the surveys, so that comparison will be effective. Riegal contends that if a certain job is peculiar to one organization alone, then it is useless to include such a job for survey purposes.

First of all, the information collected will be useful for determining wages and thus solve wage problems. The information is also useful for selection and recruitment purposes. It may provide an answer why an organization is not getting talented and well-qualified human resources which other companies are getting. A firm can up-date its wage rates in line with the rates of other companies, for the same jobs and attract good personnel. The wage survey information is also useful for job evaluation purposes.

WAGE PLAN AND PAYMENTS

Wages and salaries and paid to workers in a number of methods. Some of the plans commonly used in industry are based on day work, piece work, group plans, time

saving plans, and profit and revenue sharing plans. These methods can be grouped under two broad classes, namely, time method and output method. Under the time method the wages are determined by multiplying the number of hours worked by the wages her hour.

Example: No of hours worked X wage rate per hour = Wage 8 hours per day X

Rs. 2.50 per hour = Rs. 20 per day.

The wage plan based on time method has several advantages. It is relatively simple method of computing wages. This method is commonly used for blue-collar (factory) workers and these workers can understand this method without much problem because of its simplicity. Many unions may prefer this plan, because it does not stimulate speed ups or penalize the average or less-than average worker. The worker is not pressurized to work more hours. If he wants to increase his earnings, he is going to work for more hours. This method does not complicate record keeping work in that, it avoids clerical details involved in keeping payroll accounts. There are some disadvantages in using this method of wage plan. Since wages are not directly related to productivity, motivating the workers may be a problems. From the cost accounting point of view, it may be difficult to compute unit labour costs in advance. The supervisor has to closely and constantly watch over the workers to see that they are putting out the amount of work required to put out in an hour's time.

The wage rates are based on the productivity of number of units produced by the worker under the output method. Wage rate is determined for each unit or number of units produced in a certain period of time.

Number of units produced in a X wage rates per unit
Certain period to time   or number of units

Example: 150 units per day x 5 paise per unit

Earnings = 750 paise Rs. 7.50 per day.

This method of wage plan has certain advantages. Merit is required under this method. An employee's earnings increase according to his performance. Increased output maybe an indication of employee's efficiency. Under this method, unit labour costs are determined easily and accurately. Unlike under the time method, supervision, is general in nature when output method is used. The employee has more freedom and less control. Despite these merits, this method has certain limitations. Output wage plans are relatively costly to install and maintain because they require highly specialized skills and technical knowledge. Though cost accounting is less complicated under this method, computing the total earnings of workers may be a laborious task. The supervisors, may have to perform the clerical work besides their supervisory responsibilities.

In the United States, the time method and output method of wage plans are popular. The salary method of payment is common in India. The salary normally consists of basic pay and dearness allowance (cost of living allowance). The basic pay is determined according to grade and occupation and remains fairly constant. The time

method is applied to casual workers hired for contingent work. These casual workers are hired mostly in small scale industries.

While bi-weekly and weekly payment of wages is common in the United States, monthly payment of wages appears to be popular in India. Bi. Weekly and weekly payments are common only in mining, tanneries plantations and similar other industries. The payment of wages Act of 1963 stipulates that no wages period should exceed one month and that wages earned should be paid to workers within a prescribed time limit after the expiration of the period of to which they relate. Organizations employing less than 1000 employees must pay wages before the 10th of the succeeding month. The workers who are discharged must be paid within two days of the termination of their employment.

Incentive is a kind of compensation under which earnings are directly, promptly, and automatically related to the productivity by a predetermined formula which measures performance by a specific standard. "The assumption behind any incentive plan is that any increase in the earnings of workers will automatically lead to productivity increases and thereby increase in profits. The incentive system can be traced back to Taylor's Scientific Management movement. Taylor recommended an incentive plan, known as the differential piece rate. Under this system, the employees whose output is lesser than the standard amount of output were paid at one piece rate and those who produced more than the set standards of output received, a higher piece rate. Of course, this system is not applicable for all types of jobs. Since, Taylor's time, the incentive system underwent a number of changes and modifications and as a result, today, we have variety of incentive systems.

A number of incentive plans are in use in many organization. The Research in this field has proved a positive correlation between incentives and productivity. While some organizations use individual incentive plans others use group incentive methods. There are incentive plans for operative employees, executives, professional employees, sales personnel, and staff. It is impossible to discuss all the incentive plane here. Therefore, only certain significant incentive plans are discussed in this chapter.

STRAIGHT PIECE WORK

This is an oldest and most popular method of incentive plan. Under this method certain amount of money is paid for each unit or piece of output of the workers. The time study determines the number of units a worker can produce in a even period of time. The base hourly rate for this given period of time is established on the basis of prevailing rates or using some other criteria. Then the base rate is divided by the standard number of pieces or units a worker can produce in an hour and the wages are Rs. 1 per hour. Then the piece rate for this job or worker will be 5 paise. His daily wages will be computed by multiplying the number of units he produces in a day by the rate per unit or piece. Thus the formula is:

Wages = No. of pieces or units produced x piece rate.

The incentive plan based on straight piece work is simple and easy to understand. The worker perceives this method as fair because he is paid according to the units he produces. This method provides direct and a constant unit labour cost for management.

The problem in this method is computing an acceptable piece rate. The time studies ae viewed by workers irrespective of their output. To overcome this weakness, many orgnaisations use straight piece rate with a guaranteed base. This is more or less similar to straight piece rate, except that an hourly base rate. (usually the going rate for the job) is guaranteed. Using the previous example, a worker producing number of units below the standard rate (20 units) will be paid Rs. 1 per hour irrespective of the units he produces below the standard.

The Hasley Plan: This plan is named after its originator, F.A. Hlasey. Under this plan, standard times are determined on the basis of past experience (production records) rather than on time studies. This method guarantees a base rate to the worker and also a bonus for the time the worker saves from standard time in completing his job. The total time saved is divided between the worker and the management on a 50-50 basis. For example, let us assume that the standard time for a job or task is 4 hours and the base rate is set as Rs. 2 per hour. If the worker completes that task or job in 3 hours, he will be saving one hour time. But wage will be computed as follows:

Standard time for the task or job = 4 hours

Base wage rate for this task of job = Rs. 2 per hour

At this rate his wages would be = 4 x 2 = Rs.8

If he, the worker, complete the job in 3 hours, the time save will be:

Standard time-time taken for the job

= 3 hours – 3 hours = 1 hour

the amount saved will be

1 hour XRs. 2 (base wage rate 0 = Rs. 2

If this is shared between worker and management on a

50-50 basis, the worker will get Rs.1

His total earning for the task or job would be

= Rs. 8 + Rs. 1

= Rs. 9

This method benefits the workers and the management. The time-saving concept is effectively put into practice under this method. There is a guaranteed income for the worker. The problem in this method may be that the workers may not be willing to or enthusiastic in sharing their bonus with management. As there is no way of determining labour costs in advance, cost and budgeting problems may be the limitations of this method.

The Rowan Plan: James Rowan of Scottland suggested this plan. It is similar to the previous plan discussed. The difference in the Rowan Plan is that time saved is expressed as a percentage and it is figured by dividing the time saved by the standard time. For instance, if the worker completes the job in 3 hours out of 4 hours, standard time for that task, he will be saving one hour or 25 percent of time. Using the figures of the previous example, the bonus will be:

= per cent of time saved x base earnings

= 25% X (3 hours x Rs. 2)

= 25% X Rs. 6

= Rs. 1.50

Earnings = Rs. 6 + Rs. 1.50

= Rs. 7.50

Under this method, the workers are motivated to save time and increase their earnings. For the management, there is an increase in the productivity. This method appears to be some what complicated and requires clerical details. Lack of application of motion and time study in setting standards may be the limitation of this method. As in the previous method, workers may not be willing to share their bonus with management.

The Bedeaux Plan. This plan uses motion and time study method in determining standard time. The standard time is expressed in "B's" and one hour equals 60 B's. The worker is motivated to perform the job in fewer B's than the established standard time, because he is paid a bonus for saving time of B's. The worker is guaranteed a base rate. The computation is as follows:

Standard time for task or job = 4 hours (one hou equals 60 B's)

Base rate = Rs.2

Time saved (4-3) = 1 hour or 60B's

= B's saved X base rate

Bonus amount = 60 X Rs.2

= 120 / 60

= Rs. 2 per hour

Total earnings = Base earnings + Bonus

Total earnings = 3 x 2 + Rs. 2

= Rs. 6 + 2

= Rs. 8

The objectivity of this method is increased by using motion and time studies in determining standards. "B" is used as a common measurement which can be used for comparing the performance of employees. Compared with the methods discussed so far, this method appears to be complex. Like some of the previous methods, it requires clerical and administrative details, and involves cost and budgeting problems. Many organizations are eliminating the bonus sharing aspect of this plan of incentive system. Under the original plan, management and the worker shared the bonus at the ratio of 25:75. This plan is in a way, a straight piece rate plan with a guaranteed base rate.

GROUP INCENTIVE METHODS AND PLANS

Where it is not possible to isolate and measure the output of individual workers from the output of a group, group method of incentive plans are effective. a wide variety of plans are available for administering group incentives. Most of the methods discussed

above can be used for groups. Usually the total earnings are distributed among the members of the group based on some formula or ratio. The group incentives have several advantages over the individual incentive plans. Better co-operation is secured through group incentive methods. The personal rivalry or grudge among the individual workers, commonly seen in the individual incentive plans is nto seen in the group method. The constructive competitive spirit of the groups may increase the efficiency. But care must be taken to see that the competitive spirit of one group does not under mine the effort of another group.

The modern approach to the incentive system lies in its application to the majority of the employees in the organiation using the incentive system. The assumption, behind the company wide incentive plan is that all the members of the organization directly or indirectly contribute to the productivity of the organization and must share the profits. This sharing of profits is accomplished through stock ownership plans. Profit sharing, and other fringe benefits programmes. The stock ownership plan gives an opportunity to employees to buy a certain number of shares at a stated price. Sometimes the employees receive stocks as a bonus. The advantage of this approach is that employees consider themselves as partners in the company and this feeling improves their morale and motivates them for better performance. Many employees may have some immediate needs to fulfill and they may not be interested in stock option plan. Another interesting company wide incentive plan is profit sharing. Under this method a share of the profits are distributed to the employees in the form of a cash bonus. This cash bonus maybe distributed annually or it cash bonus. This cash bonus maybe distributed annually or it may be deferred until retirement. "The amount that is shared with employees may range from 5 to 50 per cent of the net profit. Generally, however, most plans provide for the sharing of about 20 to 25 per cent of the net profit." Some innovative organizations are really interested in their employees welfare and offer bonuses voluntarily. In India, legislative measures had to be taken to support labour's claim to the bonus as a right. As a result of a long sequence of decisions, the bonus in industrial law has now acquired the meaning of "an annual payment which the employees may clam as a matter of right on two main considerations, viz., (1) that there is an 'available surplus' out of the profits from which (the) bonus can be paid, and (2) that there is a gap between the present wages and the living wage which (the) bonus is intended to shorten." The area of granting bonuses had been an issue of industrial dispute in majority of the cases. A Bonus Commission was represented by employers, employees and the public. The commission was given the authority to investigate and to make recommendations. The commission's report became the payment of Bonus act in 1966 with certain modifications. According to the act, about 60 per cent of the balance left after deductions such as normal depreciation, income tax, return on paid up capital of 8.5 per cent, and return of working capital of 6 per cent is to be allocated to bonus payments. In the case of foreign companies the percentage is 67. The Act also states that the bonus must be at least 4 per cent of the total of annual basic wages and dearness allowances, or Rs. 40, whichever is higher and the maximum bonus is 20 per cent. All employees drawing up to Rs. 1,600 per month (the total basic pay and dearness allowances combined) are eligible for bonus.

If employers would have taken this step without any outside pressure it would have crated a good environment for employer employee relations. In general, profit sharing, whether a voluntary measure or in voluntary act motivates the employees for higher productivity, because employees known that they will be given bonuses only when the company make adequate profits. There are some unique and successful profit sharing plans which ensure employer co-operation and enhance their morale and motivation. Let us discuss briefly some of these plans.

The Scanlon Plan. This plan was developed by Joseph I. Scanlon. As a first step in this plan, the labour costs involved in the total value of production are determined. Any savings in the estimated labour costs will be shared by the employees. Let us say, for example, the labour costs are estimated as 40 per cent in the total value of production suppose the actual labour costs at the end of a particular period added up to only 30 per cent, a screening committee composed of management members, and workers or union members supervises the operation of this plan. A major problem in this method is computing labour costs. A conflict may arise between labor and management in determining what constitutes an item of labour costs and the reliability of the figures of costs.

The Rucker Plan. This plan was developed by Allen W. Rucker. Under this method, a relationship is drawn between the total earnings of hourly employees and production values they create. The value of production added by manufacture is determined. For instance, if a company made Rs. 75,000 the value added by manufacture is Rs. 25,000. It must be decided what percentage of this value added by manufacture must go to workers. Let us say that 50 per cent of this figure is attributed to the efforts of workers. This would be Rs. 12,500. The balance left in this amount after paying wages, would be distributed as bonus consisting of management members and workers supervise the operation of this plan.

We learn that the area of wage and salary administration is a crucial one both for management and the workers. This is the field where the true sense of human relations is tested. The management must show sincere interest in the welfare of employees who contribute their efforts to the well being of the organization. An employee with too many unfulfilled needs may not get involved in performance of his job, though he is physically percent on the job. On the other hand, the workers and unions must take a reality centered approach in demanding wage increases. High demands and too much pressure from workers may lead an organization to bankrupt condition.

WAGE INCENTIVES

Incentives are the stimulus, mainly psychological and it maintains and strengthen the desire to achieve improved performance. Incentives are mainly of two types (1) Financial Incentives, 2) Non financial Incentives. Financial incentives helps the individuals to meet their basic needs and non financial incentives assist in meeting the higher order needs such as social needs, ego needs and self actualization needs. Non financial incentives are based on sociological and psychological principles of higher behaviours. Some of the non financial incentives are:

1. Welfare skills

2. Social and sports activities

3. Educational opportunities

4. Suggestion schemes

5. Meritorious services awards

6. Sound performance appraisal.

7. Promotional polices

8. Better working condition

9. Creation of healthy and organizational planning and development

10. Knowledge of results

11. Growht opportunities in the organization

12. Recognition.

FINANCIAL INCENTIVES AND ADVANTAGES

These incentives are payments for improved productivity, attendance and general improvement in employees' performance. Financial incentives schemes can be direct or indirect in nature. In direct financial incentives scheme, the payments are based on employees' own performance or contribution to the job such as production. Incentive schemes, attendance bonus, profit sharing, Bonus etc. Indirect financial incentives, the payments are not directly related to employees' contribution and schemes are like subsidized means, leave encashment, gratuity scheme, leave travel concession etc.

It is difficult to underline the advantage of incentive schemes. However, following are various advantages of incentive schemes.

1. Achievement of higher production

2. Lesser break down and defective work

3. Cutting down the cost of production

4. Opportunity for higher earning to employees

5. Reducing the supervision time

6. Effective use of man power planning.

DISADVANTAGES

The incentive schemes are not free from disadvantages. The following are some of the disadvantages of incentive scheme:

1. Possibility of incentive schemes to be mis-understood because of its complexities.

2. Lack of consistency

3. Psychological problems in the incentive systems

4. Delay in the payment of the scheme.

AIMS OF INCENTIVE SCHEMES

Following are some of the important objectives for which incentive schemes are used:

1. to increase: Production productivity, yield, manpower untilisation, earning of employees, sales and quality.

2. to improve: Quality, reduced cost of production, reduced inventory and reduced wastages, easy administration etc.

AIMS OF INCENTIVE SCHEMES

Following are features to be considered in any incentive scheme:

a. It should be easily understood and the amount of benefits should be really assessed.

b. It could be sold to the employees.

c. It must benefit employees as well as employer.

d. It must have relation between the benefits to the employees in relation to their efforts.

e. It should not be costly to operate.

f. It should stimulate the interest among the workers.

g. It should stimulate the co-operation amongst the employees.

h. It should not be detrimental to the welfare of the employees.

i. It should assist in supervision.

The Incentive schemes should be used at an appropriate time. Following are the factors which can help as a guideline to intervene in the scheme:

The possibilities of improving methods of production, equipment and technology have been tried.

The productivity stabilized on a particular level and there is a feeling that productivity cannot be increased further without financial motivation.

There is a place for employees to be motivated.

Good labour management relations exists.

NON FINANCIAL INCENTIVES

These are generally introduced as a normal practice in good management. These elicit from employees' sense of participation and belongingness and their importance is not to be under estimated.

The non financial incentives touch the inner feelings of employees' and bring out a response much more impressive than could be possible through financial incentives.

The non-financial incentives are the outcome of an enlightened management. The provision of better working condition, encouragement and appreciation of good work and a general atmosphere of willingness and co-operation in dealing with common problems are all those contributed to excellence in all areas of work and higher productivity. Thee is no doubt that introduction of financial incentive schemes and the acceptance of workmen bring a radical change in industrial relations. Management often is faced with a challenge when they introduce incentive scheme. For the incentive schemes to be effective, management must ensure that they will be able to do good to the management and the worker alike.

We have seen that incentive plans provide for higher reward for increased output. Its objects is to increase the production by giving an inducement to workers in the form of higher wages. An efficient incentive plan must provide for minimum guaranteed wage, based on hourly rate and extra remuneration for increased output. The incentive plan must include in its purview the characteristics of time based and output based systems of wage payment. Before the installation of any incentive plan, we must ensure that incentive plan is installed primarily to benefit the person who is any way be effected by its installation. The incentive plan should try to cover all the employees whose jobs can be adopted to the incentive method of payment. Before the installation, a job evaluation must be carried out and the incentive plan should plan no limit on incentive earnings because more the employees produces, the more the organization is benefited.

1. TYPES OF INCENTIVE PLANS

A wide variety of incentive wage plans for operative employees have been devised and used by the industrial concerns. They are classified as follows:

PRICE RATE PLAN AND TIME RATE

1. Taylor piece-work plan.

2. Merrick differential piece rate plan.

II. TIME RATES PLAN

    a. Based on time saved.

    b. Halsey premium bonus plan.

    c. Bedaux point premium plan.

B. based on time worked

5. Rowan plan

6. Emerson plan.

C. Based on standard time

7. Gantt task bonus plan.

Symbol used in Calculating Various Incentives

    St = standard time allowed for completing a particular operation or task.

    At = Actual time worked

    R = rate per hour or piece as the case may be

    N = number of pieces produced

    T = premium percentage

    E = employee's earnings.

TAYLOR'S DIFFERENTIAL PIECE RATES & MERRICK RATE

Taylor's wage system call for two piece rates, a higher one where the worker equals or exceeds task and low one when he fails to equal task. For instance, if the standard is set for 100 pieces per day at 10 per piece. The rate in case of failure to achieve the standard would be less, such as 9 paisa per unit. In such a situation, a worker would earn Rs. 10/- for achieving the standard task and Rs 8.91 only, in case his output fell short of task by one piece. Thus difference in one unit of output will fetch for

the workers Rs. 1.09 less. According to Taylor, this differential exerts a powerful pressure on the worker to exert himself constantly to achieve task standards. It needs to be carefully established so that an average man who was properly instructed could make it. it also places a heavy burden on management to keep conditions standard so that workers may not be penalized. This plan in manifested too severe on the workers unless the management consistently does its job. This plan did achieve the importance because, the existence of low piece rate provides a negative incentive to workers and so it fails to attract workers who are receiving time rate wages or piece wages backed by a guaranteed wage.

M.D.V Merrick realized that it was unreasonable and unrealistic to classify all workers into two categories only i.e. efficient and inefficient ones. In fact there are certain employees, who work to produce more only for their own progress. These employees deserved to be encouraged. Merrick, therefore, introduced three piece rates and made the lowest piece rate equal to the 'Basic Piece Rate'. The rates introduced by Merrick are as follows.

1. Less than 83% of task   Basic Piece rate

2. From 83% to 100% of task   110% of Basic Piece rate

3. Over 100% of task   120% of Basic Piece rate

To the workers who are potentially high producers, Merrick plan is a good incentive system. It seems reasonable to pay 100% of the basic piece rate to the workers, who have reached 83% of the target. We know that most of the employees should be able to reach 83% task with a little extra effort and when they do so, they will be encouraged to reach the 100% task. Merrick has removed the punitive wage rate originated by Taylor by introducing the basic rate for low output. Merric plan is only a modified form of Taylor Plan.

BALSEY PREMIUM PLAN AND BEDAUX PLAN

In Halsey plan, a minimum time wage is guaranteed. The time allowed for completing the job is set from the records of previous performance rather than by time and motion studies. The amount of time saved is multipled by the hourly rate, forms the sum that is to be shred between the worker and the owners according to the ratio agreed upon more often equally. Because of this fixed proportion of sharing bonus. Halsey plan can be called a 'Constant Bonus Sharing Plan['. The standard length of time for doing a job, not being derived through the use of time and motion study, is usually greater than would be the case under more scientifically measured procedure.

In Bedaux point system, the amount of work one does per minute is known as standard work unit. Each job is rated in terms of the number of standard work allowed for its performance. The worker is guaranteed the base rate for each job and is paid a bonus for performance above standard. The workers may be paid for the full time saved. The standard time for a worker for a given period is determined by dividing by 60 the number of standard work minutes that he has been allotted for the work completed. This system makes possible the comparison of the efficiency of one department with another, since all work is reduced to a common denominator.

According to Bedaux, all human efforts can be measured in terms of a common unit composed partly of actual work and partly of compensating relaxation. Bedaux point premium plan stresses that human labour and relaxation are closely related. Therefore, in determining the task, time or operation time for a job it is necessary to take into account the actual time for operation and the time of rest. Earnings under this plan can be calculated by this formula: E = RT + P (Sc – At) R, when the worker is paid for the full time.

ROWAN PLAN AND EMERSON PLAN

Under this plan, the employee is guaranteed wage at the ordinary a rate for the time taken by him to complete the job or operation. The difference between the Halsey Premium plan and the Rowan premium Plan is only in the calculation of the bonus. Under the Halsey plan, bonus is a fixed percentage of the time saved whereas under the Rowan Plan, bonus is in that proportion of the wage of the time taken which the time saved bears to the standard time allowed. The proportion of the bonus to be paid to a worker is a variable quantity and so the Rowan Plan is also known as "Variable Bonus Sharing Plan.' The formula for computation of an employee's earning is:

$$E = RT + \frac{St - At}{St} \times RT$$

Emerson was a pioneer in scientific management and brought out his efficiency bonus plan in 1910 by which he tried to remove the defects in Taylor Gantt, Marrick, Halsey and Rowan Plans. Emerson Plan pays for the standard time worked plus a bonus for performance task, with a guaranteed day rate and a sliding scale of bonus for performance from 66 2/3% efficiency to 20% bonus on reaching standard. Using the measured standard as a base, he gave an initial base when the worker exceeded the initial performance, which was 66 2/3% of the measured standard. This served to spur the worker to increase his efforts to reach standard and was not so discouraging when he fell short of standard performance.

Thus in Emerson Plan, a worker gets a bonus whenever the efficiency of worker is more than 66 2/3%. As his efficiency increases, his bonus also increase. When his efficiency is 100% the worker receives no bonus at 20% of the basic wage. When the efficiency is more than 100% for every 10% increase in efficiency, there is one per cent increase in bonus. Like other plans, a minimum wage is granted in this plan. According to Emerson, the efficiency of a worker should be determined on the basis of his monthly or at least on his weekly output. This procedure would compensate the decrease in worker's efficiency because of certain unforeseen reasons.

GANTT TASK BONUS PLAN

This plan is a mixture of time rate and piece rate plans. Gantt, one of the pioneers of scientific management, modified Taylor's plan considerably and introduced a better plan. By substituting Taylor's punitive wage rate by a guaranteed basic wage. Under this plan, if a workers output in task time is equal to or more than the stipulated take, he is paid a bonus at a certain percentage of his guaranteed basic wage. The guaranteed basic wage is always a time rate wage. The basic wage rate and task

standards have to be carefully determined. Gantt Task Bonus Plan classified worker's wage into two parts, namely:

1. A guaranteed minimum wage on time rate which is usually an hourly rate. This time rate is the basic wage rate under this plan; and

2. A bonus which is paid to the worker when his output is equal to or more than the task. This bonus is a percentage of the guaranteed wage. This bonus may vary from 10% to 100% of the guaranteed wage rate according to the nature of the work.

The plan has a strong incentive force and is likely to help workers to increase their efficiency. This plan will be very much useful in those industrial units where the fixed overhead and other expenses in maintaining and running the factory and machines are higher than the total wage cost. It is important to note that no single wage plan depends upon its administration. Experience has shown that some wage plan with clearly undesirable features have proved to be successful through the intelligent administration.

SUMMARY

For sound administration of incentive plans the management should recognize that the effectiveness of incentives depends on the total situation which includes workers and management confidence in the incentive plan, relations with the union, the quality of communication and of supervisors a the tradition of the industry.

KEY WORDS
1. Emerson
2. Pioneer

REVIEW QUESTIONS
1. What is wage administrating?
2. What are the incentive methods?

GRIEVANCES – MEANING OF GRIEVANCE FEATURES OF GRIEVANCE PROCEDURE

STRUCTURE

1. Introduction
2. 2. How to handle Grievance
3. Disciplinary Action penalties guiding principles of disciplining employee.
4. Penalties
5. Termination of Employment
6. Forms of Indiscipline
7. Causes of Misconduct
8. Forms of Misconduct
9. Procedure for Punishment

INTRODUCTION

The term 'grievance' is used to designate claims by workers of a trade union concerning the workers' individual or collective rights under an applicable collective agreement, individual contract of employment, law, regulation, works rule, custom or usage. Such claims involve questions relation to the interpretation or application of the rules concerned. The term "grievance' is used in certain countries to designate this type of claim while in some other countries reference is made to disputes over "right" to "legal" disputes.

An indication of what is usually meant by the term "grievance" is given in the Examination of Grievance Recommendation (No. 130), adopted in 1967 by the International Labour Conference, taking into account the variety of national practices. The Recommendation states that:

"The grounds for a grievance may be any measure or situation which concerns the relations between employer and worker or which affects or may affect the conditions of employment of one or several workers in the undertaking when that measure or situation appears contrary to provisions of an applicable collective agreement or of an individual contract of employment, to works rules, to laws or regulations or to the custom or usage of the occupation branch of economic activity or country, regard being faith."

Grievances generally arise from the day-to-day working relations in the undertaking, usually a worker or trade union protest against an act or omission of management that is considered to violate workers 'rights. Grievances typically arise on such questions as discipline and dismissal, the payment of wages and other fringe benefits, working time, over-time and time-off entitlements, promotions, demotion and transfer, rights deriving from seniority, rights of supervisors and union officers, job classification problems, the relationships of works rules to the collective agreement and the fulfillment of obligations relating to safety and health laid down in the agreement.

Such grievances, if not dealt with in accordance with a procedure that secures the respect of the parties, can result in embitterment of the working relationship and a climate of industrial strife.

It is widely recognized that workers should be provided with appropriate procedures through which their grievance can be submitted and settled. This recognition is based both on consideration of fairness and justice, which require the workers claims concerning their rights should receive fair and impartial determination, and on the desire to remove from the area of power conflict, a type of dispute that can properly be settled through authoritative determination of the respective rights and obligations of parties.

It has been pointed out that adequate measures for the examination of grievance are essential for the promotion and maintenance of good labour management relations and a high degree of efficiency in the undertaking; conversely, the lack of opportunity for workers to air their grievances and have them seriously considered, tends to promote dissatisfaction and a poor level of morale among the work force, which in turn may have a negative effect on the workers' performance at their jobs. Moreover, effective grievance procedures facilitate communication to management of difficulties within the undertaking which might require remedial measures on the part of management. Further more, by contributing to the creation of a climate of mutual confidence and respect, such procedures help to establish a relationship between the parties which enhances the prospects of the harmonious functioning of collective bargaining itself. Grievance procedures constitute in certain systems a substitute for or a delaying factor in respect of direct action in the form of strikers.

The procedure for the settlement of grievances is sometimes established pursuant to legislation or often to general agreements between central organization of employees and workers. if the procedure is to function effectively, it is essential that the workers should be familiar with it; they have confidence in the fairness of the management in handling grievances and should not suffer reprisals for presenting them; and the procedure must also be expeditious.

In large undertakings, a common type of grievance procedure involves successive steps at different levels, a workers' grievance being first discussed with the immediate supervisor, and then if no solution is found with higher levels of management. The number of levels and steps in the procedure usually increases with the size of the undertaking. Sometimes, when an important question of principle, which would involves number of workers, is concerned the matter may go directly to a higher level of management. Under some procedures, bipartite or joint grievance committees within the undertaking hear grievances when they have been considered at lower levels at a number of earlier stages I the procedure. A settlement reached jointly by the worker and management representatives at any level is generally regarded as final and binding on the parties. A grievance is also deemed to be settled if an appeal is not lodged at the next highest level within a given time.

Till the enactment of the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946, the settlement of day-to-day grievances of workers, in India, did not receive much attention

in the legislative framework, clause 15 of the Model Standing Orders in the Schedule of the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) 1946 specified in his behalf with the right of appeal to the employers".

Under the Factories Act, 1948, the State Governments had framed rules requiring Labour Welfare Officers to ensure settlement of grievances but this provision did not prove substantially helpful because of the dual role of these officers.

Hence, in some industrial units, detailed grievance procedures were worked out by mutual agreement. But all units did not have any machinery for redressal of grievances, and when day-to-day grievances piled up, the accumulated dis-content of the workmen often culminated in industrial disputes. The matter regarding the formulation of a grievance procedures. The matter regarding the formulation of a grievance procedure was, therefore, referred to the 15th session of the Indian Labour Conference, 1957, which accepted the Code of Discipline. It specially laid down that management and unions will, "establish, upon a mutually agreed basis, a grievance procedure which will ensure speedy and full investigation leading to settlement". The guiding principles, which were evolved under the Code for this purpose and the Model Grievance Procedure for adoption by the parties, were settled in a tripartite committee in September, 1958.

The Industrial Disputes (Amendment) Act, 1982, has provided for a reference of certain individual disputes to grievance settlement authorities. Section 9C of the Act stipulates that in every establishment in which one hundred or more workmen are employed or have been employed on any one day in the preceding twelve months, the employer shall set up a time-bound grievance redressal procedure.

The three cardinal principles of grievance settlement, under the procedure, are: i) settlement at the lowest level; ii) settlement as expeditiously as possible; and iii) settlement to the satisfaction of the aggrieved. Like Justice, grievances must not only be settled but also seem to be settled in the eyes of the aggrieved.

The Model Grievance Procedure has a three-tier system for settlement of grievances at the levels of the immediate supervisor, departmental or factory head; and a bipartite grievance committee representing the management and the union with the provision for arbitration or appeal to the organization head with a specified time limit for the resolution process.

The procedure has successive time-bound steps, each leading to the next step in case of lack of satisfaction. Under the procedure, an aggrieved employee would first present his grievance verbally to a designated officer who would give a reply within 48 hours. In case the worker is dissatisfied with the decision or fails to get an answer within the stipulated time, he would, personally or accompanied by his departmental representative, present his grievance to the head of the department. If the department head fails to give a decision within 3 days or if the decision is unsatisfactory, the aggrieved worker can seek relief through the grievance committee, consisting of nominees of management and workers. This committee would communicate its recommendations to the manager with in 7 days of the grievance reaching it. if recommendations are not made with this time, the reasons therefore would be recorded,

and if the unanimous decision is not possible, the relevant papers would be placed before the manager for end decision. The manager is expected to communicate his decision within 3 days. The worker would have a right of appeal to higher authorities for revision of the manager's decision. All such appeals have to be decided within 7 days of the workers' petition. The worker, if he so desired could take a union official with him for discussion with the appellate authority. In case of failure to settle the grievance even at this stage, the union and the management may refer it to voluntary arbitration within a week of receipt of the management's final decision.

The procedure then goes to deal with various procedural matters, such as: when a grievance arises out of an order given by management, such an order is first to be complied with before the procedure is involved; the right to workers' representative on the Grievance Committee to see a document and the right of managements' representative to refuse to show a document of confidential nature' the time limit (72 hours) within which an appeal can be taken from one step to another; payment for the time spent for the redress of any grievance, etc. In the case of a grievance arising out of discharge of dismissal, the workman has the right to appeal either to the dismissing authority or to a senior authority, specified b the management, within a week from the date of dismissal or discharge.

The Procedure provides a model, under the Code of Discipline, which also lays down that a grievance procedure should be evolved in consultation with the union in the organization.

a. There should be a statutory backing for the formulation of an effective grievance procedure which should be simple, flexible, less cumbrous and more or less on the lines of the Model Grievance Procedure.

b. It should be time-bound and have a limited number of steps, namely, i) approach to the immediate supervisory staff; ii) appeal to the departmental head/ manager; and iii) appeal to bipartite grievance committee representing management and the recognized union. In rare cases where unanimity eludes the committee, the matter may be referred to an arbitrator.

c. A grievance procedure should be such that gives a sense of i) satisfaction to the individual worker, ii) reasonable exercise of authority to the manager, and iii) participation to unions.

d. The constitution of the grievance committee should have a provision that in case an unanimous decision is not possible, the unsettled grievance may be referred to arbitration. At the earlier stages, a worker should be free to be presented by a co-worker and later by an officer of the union if one exists.

e. It should be introduced in all units employing 100 or more workers.

HOW TO HANDLE GRIEVANCE

Any suffering on dissatisfaction caused in labour and management relations unnecessary is termed as 'GRIEVANCE'. This should be in writing and it includes about the service conditions, unfair treatment by the employers, or violation of any instruction. This grievance leads to frustration non co-operation among workers, disloyalty and

finally it affects the quality and quantity of output. Sometimes, employees do not know for what purpose they get dissatisfied.

Grievance handling procedure is an employer-employee communication. It can minimize dissatisfaction of employees. The number of steps may differ from 2 to 10. Conference held among the aggrieved employees. Meeting between trade union and management and arbitration are the different approaches. Grievances should be settled at the lowest level. A grievance committee can be referred to authorities. A grievance committee can be constituted taking union representative and the departmental representative. Grievance system encourages the problems to be disclosed. The management can correct the situations, the causes of labour problems can be investigated.

The accumulated grievances may burst and serious breakdown in industrial relation among employees can be vested if grievances are not handled properly.

The important steps in grievance handling are:

1. The nature of grievance to be recorded. One must see that it is correct.
2. Collect information and the facts about the real issue.
3. Management must investigate issues and find alternate answers for the problem
4. Company's experienced officers opinion can be sought
5. The correct decision taken should be communicated to problem employees.

Adequate time must be spent in investigation, conversation and for gathering data. The employees should believe the system. Sincere effort into the investigation will give better results for the problem identified. The employee should be aware of their responsibilities. The grievance procedure in the method by which a grievance is handled and carried through different steps to ultimate decision.

DISCIPLINARY ACTION PENALTIES GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF DISCIPLINING EMPLOYEE

Discipline refers working, co-operating and behaving in ordinary and orderly manner from the view point of manner from the responsible entrepreneur. Discipline is obtained by enforcing obedience. It is employee self-control to work according to organizational standards and procedures. Indiscipline among employees are the result of some wrong practices of organization, poor pay, service conditions, ineffective leadership, frustration etc., Indiscipline in organization can be identified by the way of employee's behaviour in work life, eg., absenteeism insubordination, late coming, gambling, violation of rules and regulations.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF DISCIPLINING AN EMPLOYEE

The person who conducts enquiry should not show interest in outcome as an aggrieved party or being hostile to the person proceeded against. He must be impartial and should not show difference in the decision taken. The disciplinary authority should not have sense of elation or triumph or sadistic pleasure when problem employee is charge sheeted. The disciplinary authority should give enough time to the offender to defend himself.

PENALTIES
ISSUING A CHARGE SHEET AND HOLDING OF ENQUIRY

Charge sheet in writing based on written complaint by the aggrieved party giving details of allegations of offence. It stipulates the penalties to be proposed. The charge sheet may be explained to workers in their own language. Refusal of it will constitute fresh charge. The same can be announced in public.

After the issue of the charge sheet, the workman has to submit explanation within a reasonable time. When it is decided to hold enquiry, an enquiry officer is to be appointed. A notice of enquiry has to be issued to worker, giving time, date and place of enquiry. The enquiry will be held in the presence of workman. The details of enquiry are to be recorded and signed by all the persons. All supporting evidences, documents may be called for and examined. The enquiry officer is expected to give his findings which must contain the procedure of enquiry. He must explain which changes stand proved or not proved. He has to decide penalty. The employee concerned has to be communicated with the order in writing giving a Subsistence allowance and other compensatory allowances. The Allowance is paid for 90 days if the enquiry is prolonged beyond 90 days, the allowance will be increased to ¾ the of his normal emoluments.

TERMINATION OF EMPLOYMENT

When employer issues him notice to resign duty within a reasonable specified period, and if he fails, he will be deemed to have lost his lien on the job., a resignation is not effective unless it has been accepted by the employer and such acceptance has been communicated to the employee in writing.

FORMS OF INDISCIPLINE

The act of workman is inconsistent with the peaceful discharge of duty. Act of employee is unsafe for employer to continue him employment. The employee is insulting sub-ordinates. The workman is abusing or disturbs the peace at the peace.

CENSURE OR WARNING

Before imposing penalty, the workman should have been found guilty of misconduct. It should be imposed for a good and sufficient cause. It is issued after giving notice to workman after considering his explanation.

FINES

Fines may be imposed on the workman after giving him reasonable time to explain his conduct. The amount on fines depends on the type of misconduct.

SUSPENSION

A worker is placed under suspension when he causes willful damage to or loss of, the employer's goods or property, taking or giving bribes, habitual absence without leave, habitual negligence or neglect of work assigned. When a worker is placed under suspension, he has to be paid subsistence allowance. A good human relations is essential on the part of the management of analyse and eliminate to a certain level, disciplinary problems.

INDISCIPLINE MISCONDUCT

Webster's Dictionary has defined discipline thus: "first, it is the training that corrects, moulds, strengthens or perfects individual behaviour, second, it is control gained by enforcing obedience; and third, it is punishment. According to Bremblett,

"Discipline does not mean a strict and technical observance of rigid rules and regulations. It simply means working, cooperating, and behaving in a normal and orderly way, as any responsible person would expect an employee to do." In other words it may be noted that discipline is employee self control which prompts him to willingly co-operate with the organizational standards, rules, objective, etc.

Misconduct is a transgression of some established and definite rules where no discrimination is left to the employee. It is violation of rules. Any breach of these rules and discipline may amount to misconduct. It is an act or conduct which is prejudical to the interest of the employer or likely to impair the reputation of the employer or create unrest and can be performed even outside the premises of the establishment and beyond duty hours. It is for the management to determine in its standing orders as to what shall constitute acts of misconduct and to define the quantum of punishment.

CAUSES OF MISCONDUCT

Indiscipline is generally created because of:

a. Unfair labour practices and victimization on the part of employers, like wage differentials, unreasonable declaration of payment of bonus or non-payment, wrongful work assignments, defective grievance procedure, etc.

b. Bad service conditions, defective communication by superiors and ineffective leadership also lead to indiscipline.

c. Poverty, frustration, indebtedness, generally overshadow the minds of the workers which makes him agitated and indiscipline. His mental diversion is seen more towards destruction than towards construction.

d. Generally speaking, absenteeism, insubordination, dis-honesty and disloyalty, violation of plant rules, gambling, incompentence, damage to machine and property, strikes, etc., all lead to industrial indiscipline.

FORMS OF MISCONDUCT

Misconduct is a serious form of indiscipline against the management. The scope of misconduct (as per the decision of the Gujarat High Court in Jagmohan Dass Jajivan Dass Mody vs. State of Bombay 1962-II, LLJ 507) can etend to the following cases.

1. Where the act of a workman is inconsistent with the peaceful discharge of his duty towards his employer.

2. Where the act of the employee makes it unsafe for the employer to retain him in service.

3. Where the act of the employee is so grossly immoral that all responsible men would not trust that employee.

4. Where the conduct of the employee is such as to open before him ways for not discharging his duties properly.

5. Where the employee is insulting and insubordinate to such a degree as to be incompatible with the continuance of the relation of master and servant.

6. Where the workman is abusive or he disturbs the peace at the place of his employment.

7. Where the conduct of the employee is such that the employer cannot rely on his faithfulness.

8. Where the employee is habitually negligent in respect of the duties for which he is engaged.

According to Bombay High Court (in S.O. Tiwari Vs. Central Railway, 1960, I.LLJ, 1967) the following act would also constitute misconduct.

i. Theft, fraud or dishonesty in connection with employers business;

ii. Illegal strike

iii. Breach of discipline, disrespect or assaulting superior or subversion of discipline; distrupting relation with co-workers.

iv. Delinquencies like telling lies; disloyalty and corruption; damage to property and goodwill; and

v. Disabling or disrespectful conduct; disreputable outside conduct.

Clause 14 of the Model Standing order gives an illustration of acts and omissions which can generally be regarded as misconduct and provided for disciplinary action for such a misconduct.

These are:

a. Wilful insubordination or disobedience whether alone or in combination with others to any lawful and reasonable order of a supervisor.

b. Theft, fraud in connection with employers business or prosperity.

c. Wilful damage to or loss of employers' goods or property.

d. Taking or giving bribes or any illegal gratification

e. Habitual absence without leave or absence without leave for more than ten days.

f. Habitual negligence or neglect of work

g. Habitual breach of any law applicable to the establishment

h. Riotous or disorderly behaviour during working hours at the establishment or any act subversive of discipline

i. Frequent repetition of any act or omission for which a fine may be imposed to a maximum of two per cent of the wages in the month.

j. Striking work or inciting others to strike work in contraventions of the provisions of any law or rule having the force of law.

These are not exhaustive but illustrative examples of misconduct under the Model Standing Order, framed as a part of the rules made under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946.

REMEDIAL MEASURES FOR MEETING IN DISCIPLINARY ACTIONS

Since in any organization, labour is the most important factor of production or at least as important as the machines and other materials, the organization would prosper if the labour is properly geared and motivated towards certain objectives. A tactful human relations approach becomes necessary if management wants to extract more and

efficient honest work from his employees. It is, therefore, timely for all management to analyse and study as to why the worker becomes in disciplined, and when take necessary action in the matter.

Each worker, as an individual, needs a fair or reasonable wage to maintain him and his family in good health and spirits. Therefore, the payment should, at least, be sufficient so that the worker may meet the economic needs of his family.

When a worker joins an organization, he agrees under a contract of employment, to give a certain amount of work and loyalty and in return expects suitable economic reward, security for employment, fair treatment and other kinds of support from his employer. So to encourage him to say at his job and to allow him necessary security and amenities, and freedom to express his feelings and sentiments, a human relations approach should be adopted.

Trade union leadership should be developed from within the rank and file of workers. a leader who come from within is part and parcel of the workmen's associations and he would be in a better position to known the feelings and reaction of the fellow workers so that he may be able to put their demands in a right manner.

Finally, the policies for recruitment, promotions or transfers should be made more realistic and progressive.

DISCIPLINARY ACTION

Indiscipline is the related of many inter-related reasons-economic, psychological, social, etc. It need be properly handled. Disciplinary action must conform to certain principles, particularly:

1. The principles of 'natural justice' must guide all enquiries and action. This means that no person should be appointed for conducting the enquiry who himself is interested in the outcome-either as an aggrieved party or being hostile to the person proceeded against or for any other reason.
2. The principle of 'impartiality or consistency' i.e. under identical situations where even the extenuating circumstance are alike there should be no marked difference in the action taken.
3. The principle of 'impersonality' i.e., the disciplinary authority should neither have a sense of elation or triumpth or sadistic pleasure when a recalcitrant or delinquent employee is brought to book.
4. The disciplinary authority should afford reasonable opportunity to the offender to defend himself. Article 311 of the constitution of India says that 'No person employed by the Union or a state government shall be dismissed or removed until he has been given a reasonable opportunity showing cause against the action proposed to be taken, in regard to him."

The model standing order lay down that "Before dismissing an employee, he should be given an opportunity to explain the circumstances alleged against him."

Awards given by the Tribunals also mean that a departmental enquiry must be held in every case before a decision is taken not only to dimiss but to punish in any other way, unless the employee confesses his guilt.

PROCEDURE FOR PUNISHMENT

Usually the following procedure is adopted, under the Model Standing Orders, while passing an order for suspension, dismissal or discharged.

1. Framing and Issuing a charge-sheet

The first step is to frame a charge-sheet in writing, based upon a written complaint by some one, giving details of allegations of misconduct / offence and indicating the time within which the replay to the charge-sheet is to be submitted to the authorities. It requires the authorities to show cause why disciplinary action should not be taken against him. The charge-sheet also indicates what penalty is proposed to be imposed if the charge are substantiated.

The charge-sheet may be explained to the workmen in his own language, before some witness and a copy handed over to him. If he refuses to accept it, it has to be sent at his registered address by registered post under acknowledgement due. Refusal to accept a charge-sheet would itself constitute a fresh charge of misconduct. If the employees refuses to take delivery, and it returns undelivered, or when the workman disappears from his known address, it may be published in a local paper, having a wide publicity.

2. Receiving the Defendants' Explanation

The workman is required to submit his explanation within a reasonable time or he may demand extension for its submission. In preparing his case, he should be allowed access to documents he considers necessary for the purpose. If the replay given is satisfactory, the management may withdraw charge promptly. But if the explanation is not satisfactory, the enquiry would nevertheless proceed ex-parte.

3. Issuing Notice of Enquiry

When it is decided to hold an enquiry, an Enquiry Officer is to be appointed, preferably aided by a person knowing the law or outside expert well conversant with the intricacies and procedures of domestic enquires. Then a notice of enquiry has to be issued to the worker, giving time, date and place of enquiry, the name of the person . officer holding the enquiry. The worker is required to be present along with his witnesses at the appointed time and date.

4. Holding the Enquiry

On the appointed day and time, the enquiry is held by the enquiry officer in the presence of the workman. The process of enquiry, the contents of charge-sheet and the explanation about the procedure of enquiry is all explained in the workman. If he pleads innocent, the enquiry is proceeded with, but if he pleads guilty in writing and unconditionally, the enquiry is dropped.

The details of the enquiry are to be recorded and signed by all persons. After all witnesses have been examined, then and then only the defence witnesses (including the workman) are required to submit their statements. All supporting evidences, documents may be called for and examined through.

5. Findings of the Enquiry Officer

The enquiry being over, the enquiry officer is required to give his findings, which should invariably contain the procedure of enquiry, the parties heard, the documents produced and examined, the charges made and the explanations given, the evidences produced and then his own findings on each of the charges and his grounds for these. He must specifically mention which charges stand proved and which of them are not proved. He submits his findings to the authorities empowered to take disciplinary action. He, however, is not required to make his recommendations.

6. Decision of the Disciplinary Authority

The authority will have to decide if he accepts the findings or accepts them partially or totally rejects them. In the latter even, he might even order for a fresh enquiry or let the matter rest. In other cases, he will decide upon a penalty (i) Commensurate with the evidence, ii) With the accentuating or extenuating factors, if any, and iii) Keeping in mind the previous record of service of the offender. The decision has to be in writing.

7. Communication of the Order of Punishment

The employee concerned has to be communicated with the order in writing, giving a clear idea of the charges established, the punishment awarded and the reasons thereof. With the service of the order of punishment the domestic enquiry is concluded.

All the documents need be carefully preserved for future reference, for, all standing orders provide for appeals against any order by which a workman is aggrieved.

TERMINATION OF EMPLOYMENT

The Model Standing orders provide for termination of employment by notice or as punishment of misconduct or by retirement on reaching the age of superannuation.

Termination of an employee can brought about in any of the following ways:

a) Voluntary abandonment of service by the employee, where an employee overstays his leave. When the employer issues him a notice to resume his duty within a reasonable specified period, and if he fails, he will be deemed to have lost his lien on the job.

b) Resignation by the employee, where the employee gives a notice to the effect. A resignation is not effective unless it has been accepted by the employer and such acceptance has been communicated to the employee in writing. A resignation is revocable till it is accepted. If the resignation is obtained by duress by the employer, it could be treated as wrongful dismissal.

c) Discharge by notice thereof given by the employer, where a proper notice is given by employer of 14 days that the services of the employee would not be needed hence forth.

d) Discharge or dismissal by the employer as a punishment for misconduct. The following conditions are essential and must be satisfied before an employee is discharged from his service by way of punishment for misconduct.

i) The misconduct of the workman should be of such a character that discharge ordismissal would be the appropriate punishment and has been provided either under standing Orders or otherwise.

ii) As enquiry must be held by the employer in respect of that misconduct with which a workman has been charged after filling the charge sheet and serving it on the workman and after giving him due notice of the date, time and place of holding enquiry.

iii) The enquiry must be held in such a manner as appears to be proper and in conformity with the rules of natural justice. The workman concerned must be given adequate opportunity to defend himself and to present his witness.

iv) The officer holding the enquiry must be one who is not disqualified for any reason such as bias, personal interest, being an eye-witness or victim.

v) At the conclusion of the enquiry of findings with reasons based on the evidence must be recorded by the enquiry officer.

vi) The findings must be based upon the evidence recorded and should not be baseless or perverse.

vii) The order of dismissal or discharge passed against the workman must be bona fide and in good faith.

viii) The order must be duly communicated to the workman. Retirement on reaching the age of superannuation.

TYPES OF PUNISHMENT UNDER THE STANDING ORDERS

The Act provides for punishment for misconduct. The Model Standing Orders provided for punishment like fine, suspension and dismissals. Some of the Standing Orders may also contains provisions for imposing censure or warning as a punishment.

1. Censure or Warning

This may either be as a matter of caution or a punishment. When a simple warning is issued in writing to caution the workman against misconduct, it is deemed to a be caution. But if a workman is found guilty of misconduct, after an enquiry is held and after a warning is issued, it is imposed as a penalty. Before imposing a penalty, three conditions must be fulfilled:

a. The workman concerned should have been found guilty of some misconduct.

b. It should be imposed for a good and sufficient cause

c. It is issued after giving notice to the workman and after considering his explanation.

2. Fines

Fines may be imposed on the workman but only after giving him reasonable opportunity for explaining his conduct.

3. Suspension

The last-resort is to suspend the worker from work, till the enquiry is completed. If he is placed under suspension, he has to be paid a subsistence allowance which is

equal to one-half of the basic wage, dearness allowance and other compensatory allowances to which he would have been entitled if he had not been suspended. Such subsistence allowance is paid for 90 days. If the enquiry is prolonged beyond 90 days, the allowance will be increased to three fourths of his normal emoluments. If, however, the responsibility of prolonging is that of the workman, the allowance would be reduced to one-forth of his normal emoluments.

SUMMARY

In this lesson can understand about Grievances and what are the fines, punishment which should be imposed to an employee. And what are the forms of misconduct and how to reduce the misconduct in an organisation.

KEY WORDS
1. Dismissals
2. Abandonment

REVIEW QUESTIONS
1. What is Grievance Handling?
2. Explain the procedures in handling grievances?

CONFLICT AND STRESS

STRUCTURE

1. Conflict

2. Stress

3. Intra individual aspects of stress

4. Facts about stress and work

5. Symptoms of stress

6. Physiological symptoms

7. Stress and Performance

8. Different Approaches of conflict

9. Nature of conflicts

10. Sources of conflicts

CONFLICT

Meaning Conflicts continually occur in our social life. They various levels within the individuals, between individuals in a group and between groups. Conflict have important implication on the work and effectiveness of the persons and groups involved. The nature and intensity of conflict varies from individual to individual, and from group to group. A manager often experiences his most uncomfortable moments when he has to deal with conflicts or difference among people or group of people at work. Presence of conflict, complicates his job in so many ways. Therefore, it is of great importance that the manager should understand the conflict and the technique to handle it effectively.

Management of conflicts has assumed a great importance, because it influences the human relations at work. People, almost every day return home from work in despair, depressed and disgusted with their job problems. Because of differences in their minds and with other people, they always feel uneasy and unhappy. Though they spend about one-third of each day at work spot, the psychological hand-over of the tension and conflict generate at the place of work continues even beyond the hours of work. He has also to face conflicts in his social life. This means that a major portion of the employee's life goes in managing conflicts. These prolonged conflicts and tensions tell upon employee's mental and physical health and set at the very root of his efficiency and productivity.

Because of the growing complexities of organizational life and demands, made upon individuals and group, conflict is more likely to be a casual occurrence. Basically, conflict refers to a clash of opposing demands. It is likely to crupt at any level of the organizational system and so it is necessary to diagnose and understand the conflicts and to resolve them as soon as possible. Definition of the term 'conflict' is used in different senses. It is not synonymous with quarrels and rights. However, it represents a clash between ideas, and actions. The term 'conflict' has been described in the literature on management as:

1. antecedent conditions, e.g. scarcity of resources, policy differences among individuals etc.,

2. effective states e.g., stress, tension, hostility, anxiety, etc., of the individuals involved:

3. cognitive states of individuals, i.e. their perception and awareness of conflict situations; and

4. changed behaviour ranging from passive resistance to over aggression.

Conflict may be more easily understood, if it is considered as a dynamic process. A conflict relationship between two or more individuals in an organization can be analysed as a sequence of conflict episodes.

STRESS

Meaning from an international, social, organizational, group, interpersonal, or intraindividual point of view, the dynamics and ramifications of conflict and stress are becoming increasingly important. In the study of organizational behaviour, conflict and stress have 'arrived' as an important topic area.

Stress has just recently emerged as a topic area for organizational behaviour. Stress has some of the same characteristics as conflict but is usually associated with more psychological outcomes. The following comprehensive definition reflects this physiological emphasis.

Stress is defined by a set of circumstances under which an individual cannot respond adequately or instrumentally environmental stimuli, or can so respond only at the cost of excessive wear and tear on the organism-for example, chronic fatigue, tension, worry, physical damage, nervous breakdown, or loss of self-esteem.

With the surge of interest and concern of contemporary society for physical fitness and the quality of life, stress takes on increased importance in the field of organizational behaviour. For example, a recent study found:

1. The average employee sees himself or herself physically fit and in good health.

2. From the standpoint of objective coronary risk, the average employee is in unsatisfactory shape.

3. The average employee engages in no regular vigorous exercise.

4. The average employee is strongly interested in modifying his or her coronary risk factors.

INTRA INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS OF STRESS

A smooth progression of the need drive goal motivational cycle in reality. Within every individual there are usually 1) a number of competing needs and roles; 2) a variety of different ways that drives competing needs and roles can be expressed; 3) Many types of barriers which can occur between the drive and the goal and 4) both positive and negative aspects attached to desired goals. These complicate the human adaptation process and often result in conflict and stress. Intraindividual forms of conflict and stress can be analysed in terms of the frustration paradigm, goals and roles.

Stress sis a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important. This is a complicated definition. Let's look at the components more closely.

Stress is not necessarily bad in and of itself. While stress is typically discussed in a negative context, it also has positive value. It is an opportunity when it offers potential gain. Consider, for example, the superior performance that an athlete or stage performer gives in 'clutch', situations. Such individuals often use stress positively to rise to the occasion and perform at or near their maximum.

More typically, stress is associated with constraints and demands. The former prevents you from going what you desire. The latter refers to the loss of something desired. So, when you take a test at school or you undergo your annual performance review at work, you feel stress because you confront opportunity, constraints, and demands. A good performance review may lead to a promotion, greater responsibilities, and a higher salary. But a poor review may prevent you from getting the promotion. An extremely poor review might even result in your being fired.

Two conditions are necessary for potential stress on to become actual stress. There must be uncertainty over the outcome and the outcome must be important. Regardless of the conditions, it is only when there is doubt of uncertainty regarding whether the opportunity will be sized, the constrain removed, or the loss avoided that they are is stress. That is stress is highest for those individuals who perceive that the are uncertain as to whether they will win or lose and lowest of those individual who think that winning or losing is certainty. But importance is also critical. If winning or losing is a unimportant outcome, there is no stress. If keeping you job of earning a promotion doesn't hold any important to you, you have a reason to feel stress over having to undergo a performance review.

FACTS ABOUT STRESS AND WORK

The research on stress has uncovered several important facts. First stress, creates some every real costs to organizations. Second, stress is additive in nature. Third people react differently to stress situations. Each of these facts are relevant to our discussion.

Over one million American suffer heat attacks each year. Half of these attacks will be fatal. One out of every five average, healthy, male Americans will suffer a heart attack before he reaches sixty-five years age. There is no doubt the organizational stress is a major contributor to coronary heat disease. Beyond their significance for the quality of human life, these statistics have direct implications for organizations. Stress induced heart disease increases both short-and-long term absenteeism, and the need to replace employees due to premature retirements or death. While the linkage is less clear, stress also undoubtedly contributes to mental illness, alcoholism, drug abuse, and other work-related dysfunctional conditions and behaviours.

Stress is additive. It builds up. Each new and persistent stressor adds to an individual's stress level. A single stressor, in and of itself, may seem relatively unimportant, but if it is added to an already high level of stress, it can be "the straw that

breaks the camel's back." If we want to appraise the total amount of stress an individuals is under, we have to sum up his or her opportunity stresses, constraint stresses, and demand stresses.

Another important fact about stress is that it does not necessarily follow from a stressor. Whether a potential stressor actually provokes a stress condition depends in large measure on the personality of the individual exposed to it. individual differences moderate the relationship between a potential stress condition and the reaction to it. individuals react differently to common stress situations and this difference can be substantially predicted by these individual's personality characteristics. The relevant personality constructs will be elaborated upon later in this section.

SYMPTOMS OF STRESS

Stress shows itself in a number of ways. For instance, an individual who is experiencing a high level of stress may develop high blood pressure, ulcers, irritability, difficulty in making routine decisions, loss of appetite, accident, proneness, and the like. These can be summed under three general categories. Physiological, psychological, and behavioural symptoms.

PHYSIOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS

Most of the early concern with stress was directed at physiological symptoms. This was predominantly due to the fact that the topic was researched by specialists in the health and medical science. This research led to the conclusion that stress could create changes in metabolism, increase heart and breathing rates, increase blood pressure, bring on headaches, and induce heart attacks.

The link between stress and particular physiological symptoms is not clear. There are few, if any, consistent relationships. This is attributed to the complexity of the symptoms and the difficulty of objectively measuring them. But of greater relevance is the fact that physiological symptoms have the least direct relevance to students of OB. Our concern is with behaviours and attitudes. Therefore, the two other symptoms of stress are more important to us.

PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS AND BEHAVIOURAL SYMPTOMS

Stress can cause dissatisfaction. Job-related stress can cause job-related dissatisfaction. Job dissatisfaction, in fact, is "the simplest and most obvious psychological effect" from stress. But stress shows itself in other psychological states for instance, tension, anxiety, irritability, boredom, and procrastination.

This evidence indicates that when people and placed in jobs- that make multiple and conflicting demands on in which there is a lack of clarity as to the incumbent's duties, authority, and responsibilities, both stress and dissatisfaction are increased. Similarly, the less control people have over the pace of their work, the greater the stress and dissatisfaction. While more research is needed to clarify the relationship, the evidence suggests that jobs that provide a low level of variety, significance, autonomy, feedback, and identity to incumbents create stress and reduce satisfaction and involvement in the job.

Behaviourally related stress symptoms include changes in productivity, absence, and turnover, as well as changes in eating habits, increased smoking or consumption of alcohol, rapid speech, fidgeting, and sleep disorders.

There has been a significant amount of research investigating the stress performance relationship. Given our particular interest in factors that influence employee performance, this research is summarized in the following section.

STRESS AND PERFORMANCE

The best-known and most thoroughly documented pattern in the stress-performance literature is the inverted U relationship.

The logic underlying the inverted U is that low to modern the levels of stress stimulate the body and increase its ability to react. Individuals then often perform their tasks better, more intensely, or more rapidly. But too much stress place unattainable demands or constraints on a person, which results in lower performance. This inverted-pattern may also describe the reaction to stress over time, as well as to changes in stress intensity. This is, even moderate levels of stress can have a negative influence on performance over the long term as the continued intensity of the stress wears down the individual and saps his or her energy resources. As athlete may be able to use the positive effects of stress to obtain a higher performance during every Saturday games in fall season. Or a sales executive may be able to pay herself up for her presentation at the annual national meeting. But moderate levels of stress experienced continually over long periods of time-as typified by the emergency room staff in a large urban hospital can result in lower performance. This may explain why emergency room staff at such hospitals and frequently rotated and why it is unusual to find individuals who have spent the bulk of their career in such as in environment. In effect, to do so would expose the individual to the risk of "career burnout."

The inverted –U hypothesis is moderated by at least two important contingency factors' the type and the personality of the individual.

DIFFERENT APPROACHES CONFLICT
INDIVIDUAL CONFLICT

In this case, the individual is not in a position to take decisions about certain in matter. He faces difficulty to choose out of the alternative courses of action, which are either unacceptable or uncertain or incomparable. The management can help the individual in such a situation by providing him counseling service.

ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

Organizational conflict may take the form of:

a. Intra-individual conflict

b. Inter-individual conflict, and

c. Inter-group conflict.

Intra-individual conflict arises inside the individual members of the organization. It is same as individual conflict describe above.

Inter-individual conflict arise from the differences between the choices made by different individuals in the organization. Each individual has a separate acceptable

alternative and different individuals prefer different alternatives. Thus the organization as a whole, is involved in the conflict.

The inter-group conflict arises when:

   a. There is an existence of a positive, felt need for joint decision making;

   b. There is differentiation of goals i.e., different persons have different views regarding goals; and

   c. There is difference in perceptions of reality

INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

Such types of conflicts arises when there are difference of opinion over certain issues between different organizations. These arise out of daily conduct between the organizations. The inter-organizational conflicts are generally revolved through bargaining process between the parties.

NATURE OF CONFLICTS

The nature of conflict varies according to the kind of issue on which people disagree. There are four basic kinds of issues to look for.

   1. *Facts:* Sometimes the disagreement occurs because, individuals have different definitions of a problem, or have different impressions of their respective power and authority.

   2. *Goals:* Sometimes the disagreement maybe about what should be accomplished the desirable objectives of a department, division, section or of a specific position within the organization.

   3. *Methods:* Sometimes individuals differ about the procedures, strategies or tactics which would most likely achieve a mutually desired goal.

   4. *Values:* Sometimes, the disagreement is over ethics, the way, power should be exercised or moral considerations or assumptions about justice, fairness and so on. Such differences may affect the choice of either goals or methods.

One aspects of conflict is internal. In his classic study of social conflict. Simmel points out that conflict is the other side of co-operation. "A certain amount of discord, inner divergence and outer controversy is organically tide up which the very elements that ultimately hold the group together." Individuals and groups within an organization do not have identical interests. The difference in some fashion in a whole-hearted manner in such a way as not to interfere with others. But in either case the superior-subordinate relationship itself may be a source of conflict.

Similarly external conflict is of no less importance but there is no clear cut line of demarcation between external and internal conflict. The internal struggles and tensions have an inevitable effect upon the kinds conflict situation into which an organization moves, and these are influenced by external conflicts.

SOURCES OF CONFLICT

The sources of conflict are found in actual or perceived divergence of interests. At one extreme, conflict is rooted in a sharp incompatibility or head on collision of interests. Any satisfaction or victory, for one side means dissatisfaction or defeat for the other. In

game theory this limiting case is described as a zero sum game. At the other extreme, conflict may be rooted in the interests that are different but not necessarily incompatible. As said earlier, people disagree over facts, goals, methods and values because they have different interests and perceptions. Decision making itself is a fundamental sources of conflict because it invariably involves conflicting considerations or pressures. But most conflicts are embedded in a multi-dimensional matrix of interests. The factors affecting the sources of conflict are:

1. *Informational Factors:* These exert their influence when various points of view been developed on the basis of different set of facts.

2. *Perceptual Factors:* These exert their influence when the persons have different images of the same   stimulus. Because of perception, each will attend to and select from the information available, those items which he thinks important. Each will interpret the information in a somewhat different manner. The picture which he gets from his own experience is unique to him. Thus it is not superior that the same basic facts may produce distinctive perceptual pictures in the minds of different individuals.

3. *Role Factors:* Role factors influence the source of conflict because each individual occupies a certain position or status in the society or in the organization. The fact that he occupies such a position or status may put certain constraints on him if the discussion is related to his role.

NEGATIVE AND POSITIVE SIDE OF CONFLICT

The negative potentials of conflict are quite obvious. Just as internal conflict within an individual can destroy his ability of function, similarly internal conflict within an organization may results in some sort of blocks in decision-making. In more complex organizations, the results may range from delayed decision to the creeping paralysis of deadlock and disinterest. For those who want to destroy an organization or its effectiveness, there is probably no more effective method than the promotion of internal conflict.   The destructive possibilities of inter-organizational conflicts are even more apparent. It may result in unnecessary competition and may put the existence of a small organization in danger.

POSITIVE

Conflicts do not always constitute a bad thing. Whether conflict is desirable or not, depends upon what purpose is served by conflict. For instance, conflict may provide an opportunity for releasing tension which otherwise would remain suppressed. Conflicts also provide an opportunity for review of existing positions and making better alternative acceptable to the parties concerned. Though a conflict may threaten the emotional well being of individual persons; it may also be a positive factor as personal character development. Therefore, it is difficult to say whether conflict is functional dysfunctional.

Tensions and conflicts may arise due to may factors such as economic, social and psychological. Psychological factors no doubt contribute predominantly. For instance, feeling of insecurity is a patent cause of tension and conflict. It is generally the cause that fear of security is 20% financial and emotional is 80% personal earning is not solely

the answer to present days growing search for security. Self-knowledge and recognition, besides a source of livelihood, will probably ensure better security.

Conflicts may arise due to lack of consideration, lack of appreciation, misunderstanding or bad handling of situations and problems. Though twentieth century has been credited for having made unprecedented advances in science and technology, the vast field of human relations still remain unexplored to a good extent. Nevertheless, some industrial managers with a view to improve efficiency and effectiveness want to redufe conflict.

FUNCTIONAL Vs. DYSFUNCTIONAL CONFLICTS

The interactionist view does not propose that all conflicts are good. Rathr, some conflicts support the goals of the group and improve its performance; there are functional, constructive forms of conflict. Additionally, there are conflicts that hinder group performance; these are dysfunctional or destructive forms.

Of course, it is one thing to argue that conflict can be valuable for the group, but how does not tell if a functional or dysfunctional.

The demarcation between functional and dysfunctional is neither clear nor precise. No one level of conflict can be adopted as acceptable or unacceptable under all conditions. The type and level of conflict that creates healthy and positive involvement toward one group's goals may, in another group or in the same group at another time, be highly dysfunctional.

The important criterion is group performance. Since groups exist to attain a goal or goals, it is the impact that the conflict has on the group, rather than on any singular individual, that defines functionality. The impact of conflict on the individual and on the group is rarely mutually exclusive, so the ways that individuals perceive a conflict may have an important influence on its effect on the group. However, this need not be the case and when it is not, our orientation will be to the group. For us to appraise the impact of conflict of group behaviour to consider its functional and dysfunctional effects we shall consider whether the individual group members perceive the conflict as good or bad to be irrelevant. A group member may perceive an action as dysfunctional, in that the outcome is personality dissatisfying to him or her. However, for our analysis it would be functional if it furthers the objectives of the group.

If some conflict has been proven to be beneficial to a group's performance, why do most of us continue to look at conflict as undesirable? The answer is that we live in a society that has been built upon the traditional view. Tolerance of conflict is counter to most cultures in developed nations. In North America the home, school, and church are generally the most influential institution during the early years when our attitudes are forming. These institutions, for the most part, have historically reinforced anticonflict values and emphasized the importance of getting along with others.

The home has historically reinforced the authority pattern through the parent figure. Parents know what was right and children complied. Conflict between children or between parents and children has generally been actively discouraged. The traditional school systems in developed countries reflected the structure of the home. Teachers had

the answers and were not to be challenged. Disagreements at all levels were viewed negatively. Examinations reinforced this view; students attempted to get their answers to agree with those the teacher had determined were right. The last major influencing institution, the church, also has supported anticonflict values. The religious perspective emphasizes peace, harmony, and tranquility. Church doctrines, for the most part, advocate acceptance rather than argument. This is best exemplified by the teachings of the Roman Catholic Church. According to its beliefs, when the Pope speaks officially (ex cathedra) on religious matters, he is infallible. Such dogma has discouraged questioning the teachings of the Church.

Should we be surprised, then, that the traditional view of conflict continues to receive wide support in spite of the evidence to the contrary?

Let us now proceed to move beyond definitions and philosophy, to describe and analyse the evolutionary process, leading to conflict outcomes.

The conflict process can be thought of as comprising four stages. Potential opposition, cognition and personalization behaviour, and counter outcomes.

POTENTIAL OPPOSITION

The first step in the conflict process, is the presence of conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise. They need not lead directly to conflict but one of these conditions is necessary, if conflict is to arise. For simplicity's sake, these conditions (which also may be looked at as causes or sources of conflict) have been condensed into three general categories; communication structure, and personal variables.

COMMUNICATION

The Communicatives, source represents those opposing forces that arise from semantic difficulties, misunderstandings, and 'noise' in the communication channels.

One of the major myths that most of us carry around with us is that poor communication is the reason for conflicts "if we could just communicate with each other, we could eliminate our differences". Such a conclusion is not unreasonable, given the amount of it's time each of us spends communicating. But, poor communication is certainly not the source of all conflicts, though there is considerable evidence to suggest that problems in the communication process act to retard collaboration and stimulate misunderstanding.

A review of the research suggests that semantic difficulties, insufficient exchange of information, and noise in the communication channel are barriers to communication and potential antecedent conditions to conflict. Specifically, evidence demonstrates semantic difficulties arise as a result of differences in training, selective perceptive, and inadequate information about others. Research has further demonstrated a surprising findings. The potential for conflict increases when too much communication takes place. Apparently, an increase in communication is functional up to a point, where upon it is possible to over communicating can have an influence on stimulating opposition. The filtering process that occurs as information is passed between members, and the divergence of communications from formal or previously established channels, offer potential opportunities for conflict to arise.

STRUCTURE

The term structure is used, in this context, to include variables such as size; degree of routinization, specialization, and standardization in the tasks assigned to group members; heterogeneity of members, leadership styles; reward systems; and the degree of dependence between groups.

Research indicates that size and specialization act as a force to stimulate conflict. The larger the group and the more specialized its activities, the greater the likelihood of conflict. Tenure and conflict have been found to be members are younger and where turnover is high.

There is some indication that the close style of leadership, tight and continuous observation with general control of the others' behaviours increases conflict potential, but the evidence is not particularly strong. Too much reliance on participation may also stimulate conflict. Research tends to confirm that participation and conflict are highly correlated, apparently, because participation encourages the promotion of differences. Reward systems, too, are found to create conflict, when one member's gain is at another's expense. Finally, if a group is dependent on another group (in contrast to the two being mutually independent) or if inter-dependence allows one group to gain at another's expense opposing forces are stimulated.

PERSONAL VARIABLES

Personal factors include the individual value systems that each person has and the personality characteristics that account for individual idiosyncracies and differences.

The evidence indicates that certain personality types for example, individuals who are highly authoritarian, dogmatic, and who demonstrate low esteem lead to potential conflict. Most important and probably the most overlooked variable in the study of social conflict, is differing value systems. Values are the initial foundation upon which individual behaviour is built. It seems reasonable, that difference in value structure are an important explanation for why conflicts occur. Value differences, for example, are the best explanation of such diverse issues as prejudice, disagreements over one's contribution to the group and the rewards one deserves, or assessments is any good. The fact that, John dislikes blacks and Dana believes John's position indicates his ignorance, that an employee thinks he is worth $24,000 and that Ann thinks this book is interesting to read while Jenniefer views it as a "crock of " are all value judgements. Differences in value systems are important sources for creating potential for conflict.

As noted in our definition of conflict, perception, is required. Therefore, one or more of the parties must be aware of the existence of the antecedent conditions. However, because a conflict is perceived does not mean that it is personalized. In other words. "A may be aware that B and A are in serious disagreement. . . but it may not make A tense or anxious, and it may have no effect whatsoever on A's affection towards B." It is at the felt level, when individuals become emotionally involved, that parties experiences anxiety, tenseness, frustration, or hostility.

BEHAVIOUR

When a member engages in action that frustrates the attainment of another's goal or prevents the furthering of the other's interests. This action must be intended;

that is, there must be a knowing effort to frustrate another. At this juncture, the conflict is out in the open.

Over conflict covers a full range of behaviours from subtle, indirect, and highly controlled forms of interference to direct, aggressive violent, and uncontrolled struggle. At the high range, strikes, riots, and wars come to mind.

Once the conflict is overt, the parties will develop a method for dealing with the conflict. This does not exclude conflict handling behaviours from being initiated in Stage II, but in most cases, these techniques for reducing the frustration are used when the conflict has become observable rather than as preventive measures. One author has identified five such orientations; competition, collaboration, avoidance, accommodation, and sharing.

COMPETITION

When one party seeks to achieve her goals or further her interests, regardless of the impact on the parties to the conflict she completes and dominates. These win-lose struggles, in formal groups or in an organization, frequently utilize the formal authority of a mutual superior as the dominant force, and the conflicting parties each will use their own power bases in order to resolve a victory in their favour.

COLLABORATION

When the parties to conflict each desire to satisfy fully, the concern of all parties, we have co-operation and the search for a mutually beneficial outcome. In collaboration, the behaviour of the parties is aimed at solving the problem, at clarifying the differences rather than accommodating various points of view. The participants consider the full range of alternatives; the similarities and differences in viewpoint become more clearly focused and the causes or differences become outwardly evident. Because the solution sought is advantageous to all parties, collaboration is often thought of as a win-win approach to resolving conflicts. It is for example, a frequent tool of marriage counselors. Behavioural scientists who value openness, trust, authenticity, and spontaneity in relationships, are also strong advocates of a collaborative approach to resolving conflicts.

AVOIDANCE

A party may recognize that a conflict exists but react by withdrawing or suppressing the conflict. Indifference or the desire to evade overt demonstration of disagreement can result in withdrawal; the parties acknowledge physical separation and each stakes out a territory that is distinct from the other's if withdrawal is not possible or desirous, the parties may suppress, that is, withhold their differences. When group members are required to interact because of the independence of their tasks, suppression is a more probable outcome than withdrawal.

ACCOMMODATION

When the parties seek to appear their opponent, they may be willing to place their opponent's interests above their own. In order, that the relationship can be maintained, one party is willing to be self sacrificing. We refer to this behaviour as accommodation. When husbands and wives have difference, it is not uncommon for one to accommodate the other by placing their spouse's interest above their own.

SHARING

When each party to the conflict must vie up something sharing occurs, resulting in a compromised outcome. In sharing, there is no clear winner to loser. Rather, there is a rationing of the object of the conflict or, where the object is not divisible, one rewards the other by yielding something of substitute value. The distinguishing characteristics of sharing, therefore, is that it requires each party to give up something. Negotiations between unions and management represent a situation where sharing is required in order to reach a settlement and agree upon a labour contract.

OUT COMES

The interplay between the overt conflict behaviour and conflict handling behaviours result in consequences. As the model demonstrates, they may be functional in that the conflict has resulted in an improvement in the group's performance. Conversely, group performance may be hindered and we would describe the outcome as dysfunctional.

FUNCTIONAL OUTCOMES

How might conflict have acted as a force to increase group performance? It is hard to visualize a situation where open or violent aggression could be functional. But there are a number of instances where it is possible to envision how low or moderate is of conflict could improve the effectiveness of a group. Because it is often difficult to thing of instances where conflict can be constructive, let us consider some examples, then look at the research evidence.

Conflict is constructive, when it improves the quality of decisions, stimulates creativity and innovation, encourages interest and curiosity among group members, provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released and fosters an environment of self-evaluation and change. The evidence suggests that conflict can improve the quality of decision making by allowing all points, particularly the ones that are unusual or held by a minority does not allow the group passively to "rubber stamp" decisions that may be based on weak assumptions, inadequate consideration to relevant alternatives or other debilities. Conflict challenges the status quo and therefore furthers the creation of new ideas, promotes reassessment of group goals and activities, and increases the probability that the group will respond to change.

Research studies in diverse settings confirm the functionality of conflict consider the following findings.

The comparison of six major decisions during the administrations of four different U.S. presidents found that conflict reduced the change that group think would overpower policy decisions. The comparisons demonstrated that conformity among presidential advisers was related to poor decisions. While at atmosphere of constructive conflict and critical thinking surrounded the well developed decisions.

The bankruptcy of Penn Central Railroad has been generally attributed to mismanagement and a failure of the company's board of directors to question actions taken by management. The board was composed of outside directors how met monthly to

oversee the railroad's operations. Few questioned the decisions made by the operating management though was evidence that several board members were uncomfortable with many decisions made by the management. Apathy and a desire to avoid conflict allowed poor decisions to stand unquestioned. This, however should not be surprising since a review of the relationship between bureaucracy and innovation has found that conflict encourages innovative solutions. The corollary of this funding also appears true. Lack of conflict results in a environment with reinforcement of the status quo.

Not only do better and more innovative decisions result from situations where there is some conflict there is evidence indicating that conflict there is can be positively related to productivity. It was demonstrated that, among established groups, performance tended to improve more when there was conflict among members than when groups analysed decisions that had been made by the individual members of that group, the average improvement among the high-conflict groups was 73 percent greater than that of those groups characterized by low conflict conditions. Others have found similar results. Groups composed of members with different interests tend to produce higher quality solutions to a variety of problems than do homogenous groups.

Similarly, studies, of professionals systems analyses and research and development scientists-support the constructive value of conflict. An investigation groups were likely to be more productive. Research and development scientists have been found to be most productive where there is a certain amount of intellectual conflict.

Conflict can even be constructive on sports teams and in unions. Studies of sports teams indicate that moderate levels of group conflict contribute to team effectiveness and provide an additional stimulus for high achievement. This was seen in the performance of the New York Yankees baseball teams during 1977 and 1978. The teams were consistently confronted with internal conflicts yet they both won the Word series. An examination of local unions found that conflict between members of the local was positively related to the union's power and to member loyalty and participation in union affairs. These findings might suggest that conflict within a group indicates strength rather than, in the traditional view, weakness.

DYSFUNCTIONAL OUTCOMES

The destructive consequences of conflict upon a group or organization's performance are generally well known. A reasonable summary might state. Uncontrolled opposition breed discontent, which acts to dissolve common ties, and eventually leads to destruction of the group. And, of course, there is substantial body of literature to document how conflict the dysfunctional varieties-can reduce group effectiveness. Among the more undesirable consequences are a retarding of communication reductions in group cohesiveness, and subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting between members. At the extreme, conflict can bring group functioning to a halt and potentially threaten the group's survival.

SUMMARY

The discussion has again returned us to the issue of what is functional and where what is dysfunctional. Research on conflict has yet to identify those situations where conflict is more likely to be constructive than destructive. However, the differences between functional and dysfunctional conflict is important enoguht for us to go beyond the substantive evidence and propose at least two hypotheses. The first is that extreme levels of conflict exemplified by over struggle or violence are rarely, if ever, functional. Functional conflict is probably most often characterized by low to moderate levels of subtle and controlled opposition. Second, the type of group activity should be another factor determine functionality. We hypothesize that the more creative or unprogrammed the decision making tasks of the group, the greater the probability that internal conflict is constructive. Groups that are required to tackle problems requiring new and novel approaches as in research, advertising and other professional activities will benefit more from conflict than groups performing highly programmed activities for instance, those of work teams on an automobile assembly line.

KEY WORDS
1. Extreme
2. Destructive
3. Hypotheses

REVIEW QUESTIONS
1. What are the stages in conflict?
2. Outline approaches to conflict resolutions?
3. What is Dysfunctional conflict?
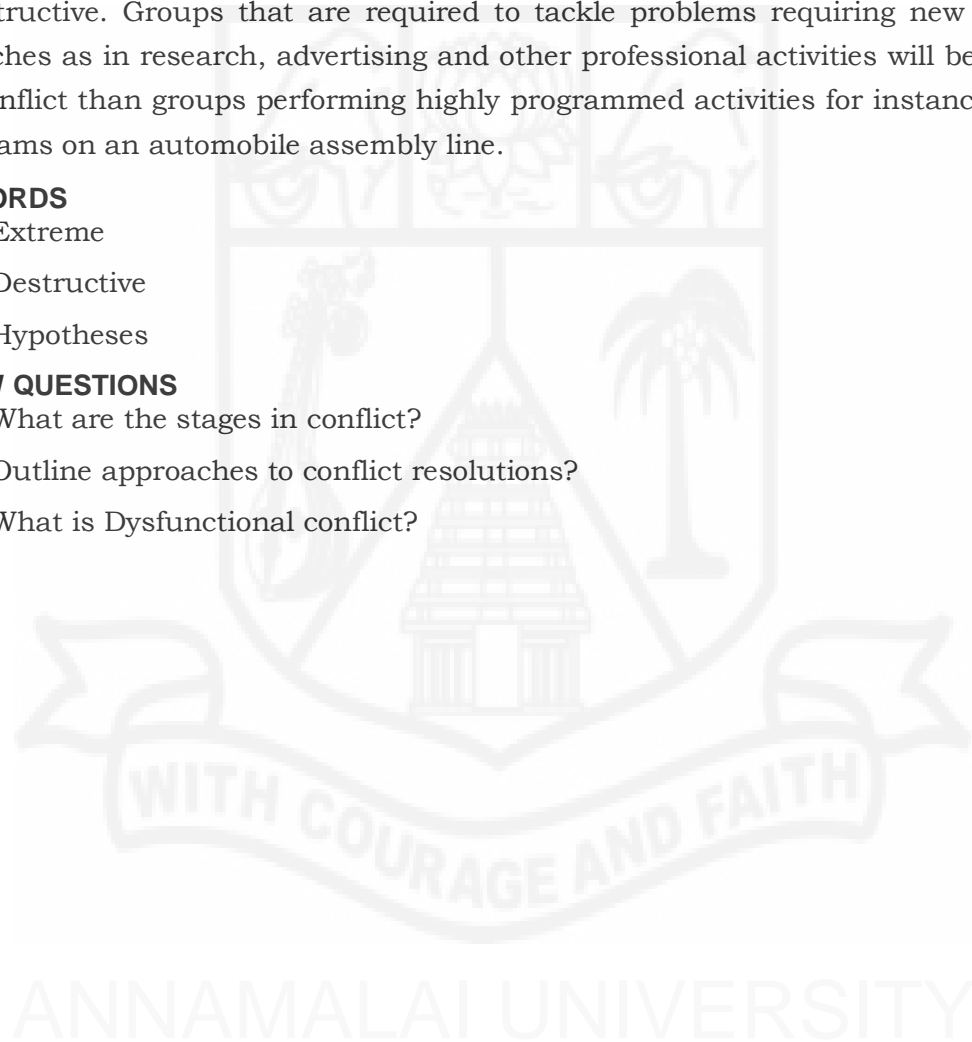
CONFLICT RESOLUTION

STRUCTURE
1. Strategies for inter personal conflict resolution
2. Organizational conflict
3. Objectives of the Act

STRATEGIES FOR INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT RESOLUTION

In addition to the self-disclouse and feedback approaches to interpersonal conflict reduction, there are three basic categories strategies, called according to the outcomes lose-lose, win-lose, and win-win.

LOSE-LOSE

A lose-lose approach to a conflict resolution is where both parties lose. It has been pointed out that this approach can take several middle ground in a dispute. A second approach is to pay off one of the parties in the conflict. These payments often take the form of bribes. A third approach is to use an outside third party or arbitrator. A find type of lose-lose strategy appears when the parties in a conflict resort to bureaucratic rules of existing regulations to resolve the conflict. In all four of these approaches, both parties in the conflict lose. It is sometimes the only way that conflicts can be resolved, but it is generally less desirable than the win lose or especially, the win-win strategy.

WIN-LOSE

A Win-lose strategy is a very common way of resolving conflict in American society. In a competitive type of culture, as is generally found in America, oen prty in a conflict situation attempts to marshall its forces to win, and the other party loses. The following list summarizes some of the characteristics of a win-lose situation.

1. There is a clear we-they distinction between the parties.
2. Parties direct their energies toward each other in an atmosphere of victory and defeat.
3. Parties see the issue from their own point of view.
4. The emphasis is on solution rather than on the attainment of goals, values, or objectives.
5. Conflicts are personalized and judgemental.
6. There is not differentiation of conflict resolving activities from other processes, nor is there a planned sequence of those activities.
7. The parties take a short-run view of the issues.

Examples of win lose strategies can be found in superior subordinate relationships, line-staff confrontations, union-management relations, and many other conflict situations found in today's organizations. The win-lose strategy can have both functional and dysfunctional consequences for the organization. It is functional in the sense of creating a competitive drive to win and it can lead to cohesiveness among the

individuals or groups in the conflict situation. On the dysfunctional side, a win lose strategy ignores other solutions such as a co-operative, mutually agreed-upon outcome; there are pressures to conform which may stifle a questioning, creative atmosphere for conflict resolution; and highly structured power relationships tend to emerge rapidly. The biggest problem however, with a win-lose strategy is that someone always loses. Those who suffer the loss may learn something in the process, but losers also tend to be bitter and vindictive a much healthier strategy is to have both parties of a conflict situation win.

WIN-WIN

A win-win strategy of conflict resolution is probably the most desirable from a human and organizational standpoint. Energies and creativity are aimed at solving the problems rather than beating the other party. It takes advantages of the functional aspects of win-lose and eliminates many of the dysfunctional aspects. The needs of both parties in the conflict situation are met and both parties receive rewarding outcomes. A review of the relevant literature revealed that "win-win" decision strategies are associated with better judgements, favourable organization experience and more favourable bargains. Although it is often difficult to accomplish a win-win outcome of an interpersonal conflict, this should be a major goal of the management of conflict.

ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

So, far this chapter has concentrated on intraindividual and interpersonal conflict. This type of conflict can take place within the orgnaizational behaviour. However, now and that is why it is so important to the study of organizational behaviour. However, now attention is directed at organizational conflict but it must be remembered that intra and interpersonal conflict are inherent in organizational conflict.

STRUCTURAL CONFLICT

Individual in the organization have many conflicting organizational role pressure operating on them. The following examples indicates the sources of potential conflict.

The bosses wants more production; subordinates want more consideration. Customers demand faster deliveries; peers request schedule delays. Consultants suggest change subordinates resist change. The rule book prescribes a formula; the staff says it will not work.

More conceptually, it has been suggested that there are four causes of organizational conflict 1) an incompatible goals situation 2) the existence of incompatible means or incompalible resource allocations. 3) a problem of organizational conflict result largely from the dynamics of individual and group interactions and psychological processes.

In the classical organization there re four structural areas where conflict is more pronounced.

1. *Hierarchical conflict:* There may be conflict among the various levels of the organization. The board of directors may be in conflict with top management, middle management may be in conflict with supervisory personnel, or there may be general conflict between management and the workers.

2. *Functional conflict:* There may be conflict among the various functional departments of the organization. Conflict between the production and marketing departments in an industrial organization is a classic example.

3. *Line*-staff conflict: There may be conflict between the line and staff. It often results from situations where staff personnel do not formally possess authority over line personnel.

4. *Formal*-informal conflict: There may be conflict between the formal and informal organizations. For example, the informal organization's norms for performance may be incompatible with the formal organization's norms for performance.

SOURCES OF EMPLOYEE AND EXECUTIVE STRESS
EMPLOYMENT STRESS

Stress from frustration occurs due to various reasons. The barrier may be either toward physical or covert (inward, mental-socio-psychological).   An example   of a frustrating situation might be that of the thirty person who comes up against a struck door and is prevented from reaching a water fountain. Frustration normally triggers defense mechanisms in the person. Traditionally psychologists felt that frustration always led to the defense mechanism of aggression. On becoming frustrated it was thought that a person would react by physically or symbolically attacking the barrier. In the example the person, would react by kicking and / or cursing the jammed door.

More recently, aggression has come to be viewed as only one possible reaction. Frustration may lead to any of the defense mechanisms used by the human organism. Although there are many such mechanisms, they can be summarized into four broad categories; aggression, withdrawal, fixation and compromise. In the illustration, backing away from the door and putting would be an example of withdrawal pretending the door is not jammed and continually trying to open it would be an example of fixation and substituting a new goal (a cup of coffee already in the room) or a new direction (climbing out the window) would be an example of compromise.

Although the thirsty person frustrated by the stuck door is a very uncomplicated example, the same frustration model can be used to analyse more complex behaviour. One example would be black individual who comes from a disadvantaged educational and economic background but who still has intense needs for pride and dignity. A goal that may fulfill the individual's needs is meaningful employment. The drive would be to search for a good job. The black person in this example who meets barriers (prejudice, discrimination, lack of education reactions to this frustration may be aggression (riot or hate) withdrawal (apathy and unemployment), fixation (pretending the barriers do not exist and continuing the search unsuccessful fully for a good job) or compromise (finding expression of pride and dignity in something other than a good job, such as in a militant group).

The frustration model can be useful in the analysis not only of behaviour in general but also of special specific aspects of organizational behaviour. Table 1 summarizes some behavioural reactions to frustration that may occur in the formal organization. These examples generally imply that there is a negative, impact on the individual's performance and on the organization as a result of frustration. Although

research indicates this is generally true, it cannot be automatically assumed. There are some cases where frustration may actually result in a positive impact on individual performance and organizational needs for competency and achievement and has a self-concept that includes confidence in being able to do a job well. A person of this type who is frustrated on the job may react in a traditional defensive manner, but the frustration may result in improved performance. The person may try harder to overcome the barrier or may over compensate, or the new direction or goal sought may be more compatible with the organization's goals. In addition, it should be remembered that defence mechanisms are not bad for the individual. They play an important role in the psychological adjustment process and are 'unhealthy' only when they dominate the individual's personality. Reactions to frustration are also as those that exist in a professional setting may dictate, that the accepted reaction to frustration is to try harder to overcome the barriers. Obviously, examples such as the above are the exception, but they do point out that, in certain situations, frustration can lead to positive as well as negative organizational behaviour. However, in general, a major goal of management should be to eliminate the barriers (imagined, real or potential) that are or will be frustrating to employees.

Table 1

Adjustive Reactions	Physchological process	Illustration
Compensation	Individual devotes himself to a pursuit with increased vigor to make fit for some feeling of real of imaginary inadequacy.	Zealous, hard working of the Twenty-Five year club who has never advanced very far in the company hierarchy.
Conversion	Emotional conflicts are expressed in muscular, sensory or bodily symptoms of disability malfunctioning, or pain.	A disabling headache keeping a staff member off the job, the day after a cherised project has been rejected.
Displacement	Redirecting pent-up emotions toward persons ideas, or objects other than the primary source of the emotion.	Roughly rejecting a simple request from a subordinate after receiving a rebuff from the boss.
Fantasy	Daydreaming or other forms of imaginative activity provide an escape from reality and imagined satisfaction.	An employee's daydream of the day in the staff meeting when he corrects the boss's mistakes and is publicly acknowledged as the real leader of the industry.

Identification	Individual enhances his self-esteem by patterning his own behaviour after another's frequently also internalizing the values and beliefs of the other also vicariously sharing the glories or suffering in the reversals of other individuals or groups.	The 'assistant-do' who takes on the vocabulary, mannerisms, or even pomposity of his vice president boss.
Negativism	Active or passive resistance, operating unconsciously.	The manager who, having been unsuccessful in getting out of a committee assignment, picks apart every suggestions that anyone makes in the meetings.
Projection	Individual protects himself from awareness of his own undesirable traits unacceptable feeling by attributing them to others.	Unsuccessful person who, deep, down, would like to block the rise of others in the organization and who continnally feels that others are out to "get him."
Rationalization	Justifying inconsistent undesirable behaviour, beliefs, statements, and motivated by providing acceptable explanations for them.	Padding the expense account because "every body does it"
Reaction formation	Urges not acceptable to consciousness are represented and in their stead opposite attitudes or modes of behaviour are expressed with considerable force.	Employee who has not been promoted who over does the defense of his boss, vigorously upholding the company's policies.
Regression	Individual returns to an earlier and less nature level of frustration	A manager having been blocked in some administrative pursuit business himself with clerical duties or technical details more appropriate for his subordinates.
Repression	Completely excluding from consciousness, and feelings which are paychologically disturbing because they arouse a sense of guilt or anxiety	A subordinate "forgetting to tell his boss the circumstances of an empbrassing, situation.

Fixation	Maintaining a persistent nonadjustive reaction even though all the cues indicate the cues indicate the behaviour is not an appropriate response to the problem.	Persisting in carrying out an operational procedure long since, declared by management to be uneconomical as a protest because the employee's opinion wasn't asked.
Resignation, Apathy, and boredom	Breaking psychological contact with the environment withholding any sense of emotional or personal involvement.	Employee receiving no reward, praise, or encouragement no longer cares whether or not he does a good job.
Flight of withdrawal	Leaving the field in which frustration, anxiety, or conflict experienced, either physically or pshcyologically.	The salesman's big order falls through and he takes the rest of the day off constant rebuff of rejection by superiors and colleagues pushes an older worker toward being a longer and ignoring what friendly gestures are made.

TRADE UNION ACT 1926
OBJECTIVES OF THE ACT

The act was passed for registration of trade unions and membership verifications. Where trade union is registered, it is treated as artificial person in the eyes of law. The act makes provision for conditions governing registration of trade unions duties of registered trade union and fixing rights and liabilities of registered trade unions. Amendments in the act have been made to reduce multiplicity of unions. Minimum qualifying membership is 10% of workman. Trade union dispute is resolved through voluntary orgnaisation. Provision has been made for a period of 60 days for the registration of trade union by the registrar, after all the formalities have been completed by the trade unions.

The act applies to the whole of India and the act is a central legislation and enforced by the state governments. The respective registrars of trade unions are appointed both by the particulars:

1. The names, occupation and addresses of members: the name of trade union and the address of its head office the titles, names, ages, addresses and occupations of office bearers of trade union, general statement of assets of liabilities.

2. Objective of trade union, the purpose for which the general funs of the trade union shall be applicable, maintenance of a list of members of trade union. Admission of ordinary members, payment of a subscription by members, the conditions in which rules shall be amended, varied etc.

3. The safe custody of the funds of the trade union and annual audit.

4. The manner in which trade union may be dissolved.

The registration can be cancelled when certificate of registration was obtained by mistake, union participated in illegal strike and when the primary objects of the union are no longer statutory objects.

Every registered trade union becomes a body corporate, has perpetual succession and a common seal, and power. The general funds of the registered trade union shall be spent for the payment of salaries, allowances and expenses to office bearers, payment of expenses for the administration of trade union, conduct of trade dispute, compensation for members of loss, provision of educational, social or religious benefits.

AMALGAMATION OF TRADE UNIONS

For amalgamating two or more registered trade unions, at least one-half of the members of each trade union are entitled to vote are recorded and 60% of votes recorded should be infavour of the decision of amalgamation. This can be done with or without dissolution or division of funds.

The amalgamation should be made as a notice in writing is sent to the Registrar in which any of the amalgamated unions had a registered office. This notice should be signed by seven members of each trade union and by the secretary. If the Registrar is satisfied as per the provisions of the trade unions Act, amalgamation has effect from the date of such registration. The rights and obligations of the trade union shall not be affected when there is a change in the name of a registered trade union. The rights of the trade unions and the creditors of any of them shall not be prejudiced due to amalgamation.

DISSOLUTION OF REGISTERED TRADE UNION

The dissolution should be made as a notice in writing to be sent to the registrar and if he is satisfied with the provisions of the trade union Act, it shall be registered. The notice should be signed by 7 members of the union and by the secretary within 14 days of the dissolution. This dissolution has effect from the date of such registration. The Registrar is having every right to distribute the funds among the members if there is no provision in the union.

The trade union is required to submit a general statement of receipts and expenditure during ht year ending December 31. It should be connected with the general statement which includes the rules of the Trade union. A copy of any alteration within 15 days of such alteration. The duty of a Registrar is to send the statement containing such information to the state and central government within the prescribed period of time.

It is the power of a the Registrar to verify the membership of trade unions and shall send a report to the state and the central government. The trade union dispute should be in a written agreement (ie) arbitration agreement. Another person will be appointed as umpire who will voluntarily enter upon the reference if the arbitrators are equally divided in their opinion. An arbitration should be in a particular form and it should be signed by the respectable parties. One copy of the arbitration agreement shall be sent to the appropriate government and it will be published in the official Gazette. The arbitrator is having right to investigate about the disputes. An award published shall be final.

Where there is a trade union dispute, it should be in a written form and it is forwarded to the Registrar for adjudication. The registrar shall confine his jurisdiction to those points which the appropriate government has specified. He can submit his award to the appropriate government. It should be in writing and shall be signed by him. It is published within thirty days from the date of its receipt by the appropriate government. The award published is the final.

Penalty maybe imposed for default in submitting returns or in supplying false informations. The following defaults are made punishable.

- Failure to give notice which is required

- Failure to send any return

- Failure to send any documents by a registered trade union

If these procedures are not made as per provisions of the act, may be punishable with fine which may extend upto Rs. 25 may be imposed for each week of continuing default and this may exceed Rs. 500.

The following statements are to be submitted by the registered trade union.

- Notice of change in the address of head office.

- Notice of change of name, amalgamation officers of the Trade Union.

- Copies of corrected and altered rules

- Annual returns.

- Notice of dissolution

Any person who willfully enters the false statement in the copy of the rules which are submitted to the registrar shall be punishable with fine which may extend up to Rs.500.

CASE STUDY

Ram has been with the ABC company for 10 years. He was eager to take courses for self-improvement and to obtain an advanced degree. As a purchasing clerk, he was never an outstanding employee. After obtaining a part-time degree in business, he begn to take graduate courses when the company adopted a tuition rebate plan. He also participated in several of the company's voluntary, after-hours, training programs and computer courses taught by faculty members from a nearby college. After seven years, he qualified for a master's degree in business at the University. When he recently discussed promotional opportunities with his supervisor, he was told that his work record was only slightly above average and that there were noopenings in his field.

DISCUSS THE PROBLEM
BOW TO BANDLE POOR JOB

Rekha works in the accounts receivable sections of a large department store department. In a random check of her accounts, her supervisor found a number of mistakes.

3. The Need of Learn a New skill in a Social work Agency

For years, the XYZ company had used a specially trained telephone appointments clerk to handle requests from prospective clients. His job was to obtain general

information about the caller's problem (financial, legal, psychological and then to make an appointment for a formal in-take interview with one of the trained social workers. when a new agency manager reviewed this procedure, she changed the social worker's jobs and created a need for retraining.

The new manager was alerted to the problem by two case workers she brought with her from an other agency. Both of them had handled telephone crises calls and noted that, at times, callers would have serious, even life-threatening problems but they would still be given the next available in-take appointment which could be several weeks away. Previous experience had taught the case workers that it was efficient to combine the first telephone crises calls and noted that, at times, callers call with the in-take interview. The caller was often able and more willing to reveal intimate and important aspects of the problem over the phone than it some later, more guarded time.

The manager decided that each worker should take a turn answering new client's calls. They were told to use their judgement concerning the length of the phone call, whether extended in take information should be obtained, and whether the caller should have an immediate emergency appointment or be scheduled into the normal listings. In addition training in the new procedure would be provided by the two new case workers who had come with the manager to the agency and had prior experience with telephone counseling.

The rest of the staff rebelled. They refused to be coached by the new workers, claiming.

"We'ar trained social workers with degrees they 're not, and I assure you there isn't anything they know that we need to know."

"The manager is simply trying to increase the status of her favourers who worked with her in that other agency."

"If we do this telephone work, we're going to have to cut back on the number of cases we hardle in our regular clier contacts."

SUMMARY

The manager was deeply distressed by these rumblings. The workers who were to do the telephone training had excellent experience in this kind of work; the regular workers and not. They were now handling only a few cases per day and had plenty of time to put in an hour or two each day on telephone counseling.

DISCUSS THE PROBLEM
QUESTIONS

1. Explain the objectives of Trade Union.