Africa Center
For Project Management

NAME : MURAA JACKLINE

COURSE MODEL : MODEL TWO

COURSE : POST GRADUATE DIPLOMA IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Module Two Questions

1. **Explain the guiding theories in human resource management**
2. **How are Human Resource Management strategies formulated?**
3. **Discuss the welfare stage in industrial development**
4. **Identify four (4) types of Assets in Organizations.**
5. **Explain Human resource in Organizations.**
6. **Is there any relationship between Human resource and Operating Managers in organizations?**
7. **List the roles and purpose of Human resource in organizations.**
8. **Discuss the evolution of personal management**
9. **What are the contradictions in the models?**
10. **Enumerate Human resource management activities in organizations.**
11. **List the barriers that may hinder high performances in organizations.**
12. **Discuss the relationships that exist between Strategy & Human resource management.**
13. **What are the ethics HR practitioners should enforce in discharging their duties in organizations?**
14. **Distinguish Human Resource Management from Personnel Management. To what extent are the differences practical?**
15. **Discuss the philosophies of Human Resource Management**
16. **By using specific examples, discuss the relevance of Human Resource Management functions in the situation of a developing country.**

QUESTION 1

1. **Explain the guiding theories in human resource management**

Define HRM

In the last two decades, as the business competition changed to the competition of talents, the value of people in an organization is upgrade and became significant. Since people are considered as the most valuable assets in the organization, human resource management frequently becomes evident and at the heart of the business management to respond to new types and levels of competition.

At the beginning, management of people emerged with the development of industry and then turned into mature with the theory of human resource was built. There are three phases in general, personnel management, human resource management (HRM) and strategic human resource management (SHRM) which is more preferable recently.

Besides that, for more than a century now, human resource management, as a discipline and practice in the management of people in an organization, has evolved and developed into different areas. These disciplines and practices have gone through a process of trial and error, theory building and testing of various concepts by practicing managers and academics (Farnham & Pimlott 1979; Storey 1989; Armstrong 1995). The underlying forces be- hind the evolution and development of human resource management have been (and still are) mainly environmental, and the quest for knowledge of better ways of acquiring and utilizing labor. The changing organizational environment in the marketplace pushed managers to improve efficiency in the production and service delivery processes by increasing their ability to use the best practices of people management at the time. That is, employee management techniques or methods that would improve production, reduce service delivery costs, and at the same time ensure sustained availability of competent staff in the organization. This introductory chapter is devoted to providing learners with a cursory account of the evolution and development of human resource management and the way it works and influences people management in contemporary organizations.

Guiding theories in human resource management

Human resource management principles and techniques for people management in competitive organisations are drawn from theories found in different disciplines. Indeed, it is impractical to present all the disciplines and relevant theoretical aspects that have shaped the understanding of human resource management today. Therefore, it is believed that it is only important to give the reader a cursory view of some relevant theories underpinning human resource management and whoever may be interested in knowing more about the genesis and developments of a specific theory may do so by taking extra homework.

Organization life cycle theory

Cameron & Whetton (1981) advanced organization life cycle theory which characterises organisational development from formation, growth, maturity, decline and death. Ac- cording to the theory, the driving force in all these stages is the nature of workforce. At the maturity stage the organization cannot continue to grow or survive if there is no organizational structure that supports human resource creativity, innovation, teamwork and high performance, which will withstand pressure from competitors.

Role behavior theory

Role behaviour theory aims to explain and predict the behaviour of individuals and teams in organisations, which, in turn, inform managers for the purposes of decision making, and what steps they take on people management as well as the expected consequences. Some of the key ideas focus on the need to improve the working environment including the resources in order to stimulate new behaviour in employees in order for them to cope with new demands (Prachaska *et al.* 1982), it includes the use of rewards to induce and promote positive work behaviour, and punishments to control negative behaviour (Rogers 1983).

Resource dependency theory

One of the challenges faced by managers during the economic recessions in the 1970s is how organisations can best acquire scarce resources and effectively utilize them in order to remain competitive in the market. The ability to utilize one's own resources including (financial, technological and labour), and acquire more from the external environment was one of the areas of concern in many organisations. The more organisations were able to harness resources, the more competitive they became. Therefore, resources were seen as the essence of organisational power (Emerson 1962). However, overdependence on external resources appeared to be risky due to the uncertainties that cannot be con- trolled by the organization (Pfeffer & Solansick 1978). Concerning useful labour, the emphasis shifted to seeing employees as scarce resources that should be acquired effectively, utilized, developed and retained.

Institutional theory

The word ‘institution’ means different things to different people depending on academic and professional orientation (Peters 2000). However, it is a discipline that combines politics, law, psychology, public administration, and economics amongst other things, in order to explain why certain decisions are made or actions taken and their impact on the organization. Commons (1931: 648) defines ‘institutions’ as ‘collective action in control, liberation and expansion of individual action’. Collective action covers areas such as custom, law and procedures. The main objective of collective action is less or greater control of the acts of individuals, which result in either gains or losses in the process of executing joint transactions. Control is about prohibitions of certain acts in such a way that the control of one person or organization leads to liberty of the others and hence better gains. According to Commons (1931) these institutions establish relationships of rights, duties, no rights, and no duties which influence behaviour of individuals. ‘The major role of institutions in society is to reduce uncertainty by establishing a stable (not necessarily efficient) structure to human interaction.’ Institutions could be formal, and have explicit rules, contracts, laws, and rights (institutional arrangements) or informal in the sense of social conventions that are not designed by anybody. Therefore, organisations should set an appropriate institutional framework that will bind and influence the behaviour of employees towards an organisational commitment to excellence. Also put by Brunsson (1999): ‘the process of standardization of procedures affect behaviour’. Employment contracts, performance agreements and other employment related instruments should therefore be seen as useful aspects of human resource management.

Transaction cost theory

Transaction cost theory is based on the economic view of the costs of conducting business transactions. The thesis is that companies will grow if the costs of exchanging re- sources in the company are cheaper in comparison to competitors (Commons 1934; Coase 1984; Williamson 1998). Such costs include bureaucratic employment structures, procedures and the enforcement of employment contracts. For that matter employment relationships that may lead to high costs of exchange, should be minimized.

Comparative advantage theory

The main architect of comparative advantage theory is the economist David Ricardo who talked of the specialization and division of labour among nations and firms. Ricardo postulated that nations should produce goods in which they have a domestic comparative advantage over others (Ricardo 1891). Since then, organisations and nations have focused on strengthening internal capacity in order to have more advantages relative to competitors and hence to reduce production and distribution costs per unit. Improving internal capacities include having the best human resources who are best utilized to produce cheaper and better quality goods and services (Porter 1980; Grant 1991).

General systems theory

No organization can survive without interacting with its environment. Organisations get inputs from the external environment, they are processed and the outputs are released to the external environment, which provides feedback to the organization. Customers who are part of the environment will give feedback by using different means including value judgment on quality, price, style and fashion. Therefore, organisations are seen as systems with components and parts that are related and interconnected in such a manner that failure of a component or part leads to the failure of another (Laszio 1972; Haken 1980; Robbins 1990). The system approach to understanding organisations considers the human resource department as a component of the organization's system that also has other departments such as accounting, engineering, marketing etc. In order for the organization to grow and remain competitive, each department, section or unit should support each other. One of the organization's inputs from the environment is human resources. For example, if an organization makes an error with its recruitment strategy, it will have a negative effect on the whole organization. Similarly, if at the input processing stage, human resources are not utilized in the best possible way, the same will be reflected in the quality and price of goods and services through feedback mechanisms. This may include the failure to sell goods or services at the expected prices.

Human capital theory

Human capital theory was initially well developed by Becker (1964) and it has grown in importance worldwide because it focuses on education and training as a source of capital. It is now widely acknowledged that one of the key explanations for the rapid development of Asian countries in the 1970s and 80s is high investment in human capital (Robert 1991; Psacharopolos & Woodhall 1997). Human capital theory changes the equation that training and development are 'costs the organization should try to minimize' into training and development as 'returnable investments' which should be part of the organisational investment capital. Therefore, human resource training and development decisions and evaluations have to be done based on clearly developed capital in- vestment models.

Strategic contingency theory
There is a growing body of knowledge stipulating that since an organization operates and thrives in a complex environment, managers must adopt specific strategies which will maximize gains and minimize risks from the environment (Peter & Waterman 1982; Scott 1992; Robbins 1992). In this premise, the theory contends that there is no one best strategy for managing people in organisations. Overall corporate strategy and the feed- back from the environment will dictate the optimal strategies, policies, objectives, activities and tasks in human resource management.

Organizational change theory
Gareth (2009: 291) defines organisational change as the process by which organisations move from their present state to some desired future state to increase their effectiveness. Organisations change in response to many developments taking place in the internal and external environment such as technology, policies, laws, customer tests, fashions and choices that influence peoples' attitudes and behaviour. These developments influence different aspects of human resource management and in response, organisations have to change the way organisational structure, job design, recruitment, utilization, development, reward and retention are managed (Hersay & Blanchard 1977; Robbins 1992; Johns 1996). The organisational change theory suggests the improvement of organisational change and performance by using diagnostic tools appropriate for the develop- ment of effective change strategy in human resource management.

Organizational learning theory
Globalization has changed knowledge monopoly. Knowledge generated in one part of the world spreads faster than a decade ago. Today, what matters for organisational competitiveness is the ability to learn from emerging knowledge and adapt the learning to suit the organisational environment faster than others. Agyris & Schoen (1978) and Senge (1992) have emphasized the importance of total organisational learning whereby individuals and teams muster knowledge related to their work and the environment and share with common vision, models and strategies for addressing the present and future of the organization. Therefore, poor organisational learning leads to poor organizational adaptation to the environment, less competitiveness, which leads inevitably to decline and ultimate collapse.

Comparison
Schuler (2000) has summarized these theories into a more manageable framework (see Table 1.1). This framework enables us to compare the human resource theories and their main objectives.

Table 1.1 **Human resource *theories***

Theories	Human resource lessons/Assumptions/Implications
Resource dependency theory	• Scarcities of resources determine policies and procedures to be adopted by organisations. • Employees are scarce resources, which should be carefully
Competitive advantage theory	• Organisations should capitalize on competitive advantage it has over other organisations • An employee is a rare resource, immutable, non-substitutable, and valuable • In order to gain from competitive advantage, there should be creation and support of organisational culture that ensures
Institutional theory	• Organisational norms, values, attitudes and myths are the sources of organisational failure or success • These need be rationalized in order to ensure effectiveness
Agency theory	• The employer and employee have a principal-agent relationship. • As there may be disagreement between the two, legal implications have to be carefully considered and, if possible, litigation should be avoided
General systems theory	• Organisations are complex systems. • Human resource management is a sub system • Failure/success of each component will have overreaching impact to the organization.
Human capital theory	• It is an economic approach – people are valuable assets. • Invest in people as one does in other assets e.g. machinery.
Organisational life cycle theory	• Organization grows in stages. Start up, growth, maturity, decline and revival.
Role behaviour theory	• The means used by an organization to send role information determines role response (behaviour). • Human resource management should focus on improving the role information for employees.
Organisational change theory	• Organisations pass through different forms, levels of quality, and states over time • Human resource management should ensure congruence
Transaction cost theory	• It is an economic point of view of governance structures in business transactions. • It considers costs of establishment, monitoring, evaluation, and enforcement of exchanges (contracts). • Since managers have limited information for decision making (bounded rationality) before transactions, there must be measures to reduce risks. • Managers should seek opportunities to be used by employees. • Human resource management should minimize loopholes in employment relationships like reviewing contracts, monitor
Strategic contingency theory	• Organisations have several strategic typologies to adopt. • The choice of typology depends on organisational environment. • Human resource management should depend on a particular
Organisational learning theory	• The success of an organization depends on ability to learn • Employees prior knowledge facilitates learning and application of new related learning • Human resource management should facilitate continuous

Source: adapted from Schuler (2000).

Theories as stated earlier and summarized in Table 1.1 are useful in shaping debates and professional practice in the process of the evolution and development of human resource management as a discipline as well as a profession. The usefulness of the conclusions reached from these theories will unfold as we go through the process of the evolution of human resource management over the past one hundred years.

The evolution and development of human resource management

Human resource management as a practice happens wherever there is more than one person. It starts at the family level where family members take different roles and responsibilities for the accomplishment of family objectives. The head of the household would harness all available resources including people to find the best in them in order to achieve whatever may be needed or desired. Indeed, the division of labour depends on the philosophies, values and expectations of family members and which are rooted in the wider society, be it a clan, a tribe or religion.

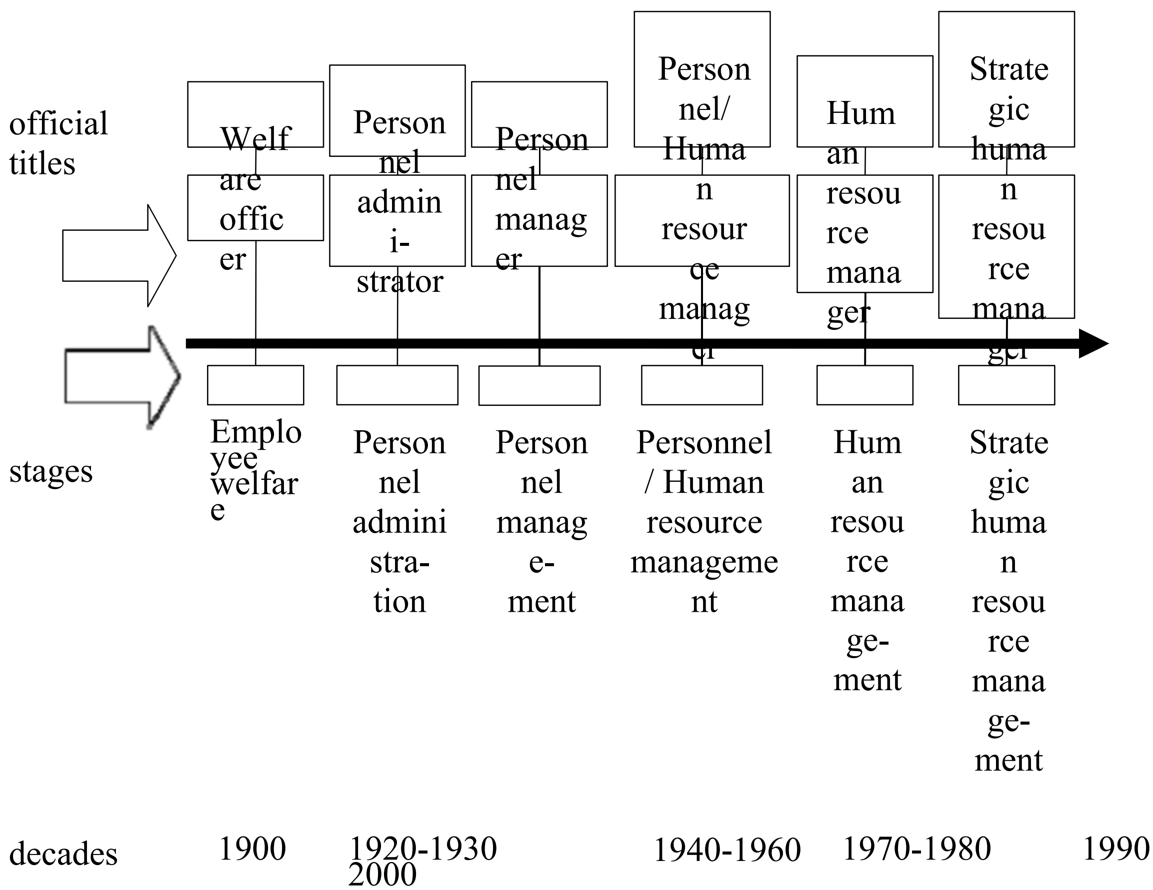
Managing people in an organisational setting is well documented throughout the his- tory of mankind (Munsterberg 1913; Taylor 1960; Cuming 1985). Organisational structures evolved, leadership emerged or was formed, roles and responsibilities were as- signed to people, accountability systems were laid down, and rewards and punishments were also provided. In this regard, division of labour, specialization and accountability were systematically organized to achieve a specific purpose.

However, the documentation of the evolution and development of human resource management practices can be traced back to the booming European economy of the 1900s (Roethlisberg 1939). This economy created the necessary environment for more serious thought on the role of effective people management in the emerging labour market of the time. The economies were preparing for the First World War and its aftermath where industrial production required a mass of skilled, well organized and disciplined labour force. The challenges revolved around mobilization of resources including people, which led to the evolution and development of four stages in managing labour. The stages were mainly identified by looking at the changing titles of officers responsible for managing the workforce and different roles that were emerging over time. There- fore, although personnel management literature often states particular dates or decades of transformation from one phase to another (Chruden & Sherman 1984; Cuming 1985), as a matter of principle, such dates or decades are more for convenience and reference purposes than being actual historical events. The same recognition is used to provide a picture of the chronology of the evolution and development of human resource management as we see it today. Figure 1.1 displays the stages in the evolution of human resource management.

Welfare stage in industrial age

Historically, the 1900s was a time of increasing technological and economic break- through arising from continued advancement in general and scientific knowledge through creativity and innovations. Indeed, the advancements had serious impact on economic growth and demand for goods and services in Europe and in Germany in particular for the preparations of World War I (Roethlisberg & Dickson 1939). More goods were demanded, and the massive production of goods could be done more efficiently than ever before, under one industrial roof. This was a common phenomenon across

Figure 1.1 **Stages in the evolution and development of human resource management**



Western Europe particularly in Britain, France, Spain and Italy. For the Germans who were secretly preparing for war, the production of war materials created a chain of industrial networks with forward and backward linkages. Managing the increasing work- force in the emerging complex industrial production systems was an ever-more difficult challenge. The search for solutions, which included how to organize employees and ensure that their welfare was provided for, led to the need for better people management techniques that were not necessarily important only a few years before. Welfare services such as a canteen and other needs required some kind of officer whose sole purpose was to take care of workers. This is the genesis of employees' welfare services in organisations and the famous title of welfare officers we have in some organisations even today (Eilbert 1954; Chruden & Sherman 1984).

Change of focus from welfare to personnel administration

The 1920s and mid 30s are generally regarded as decades of personnel administration. The growing size of organisations and pressure to improve productivity called for the need to recruit, select, train, keep records, appraise, motivate, control, and improve production of job entry level of employees and those in the job as part of job orientation. These administrative tasks were best handled by welfare officers because of their experiences in welfare matters. However, since the roles of welfare officers changed in nature and scope and became more demanding in terms of knowledge, skills and behavioral attributes, the whole situation suggested that the title of welfare officer was not good enough to describe what was actually happening. To address these new dimensions of a welfare job, the title had to change from welfare officer to personnel administrator (Cuming 1985).

Evolution and development of personnel management

This covers the period during and after World War II. In the 1940s and 50s, there was an ever growing role for personnel administration to cope with the rising challenges and demands of the job which included craft, supervisory training and labour disputes that were threatening employees and organisational efficiency. These new dimensions in employee management were exacerbated by developments in academia, profession managers interested in academics and consultants where efforts were devoted to study behavioral factors in job performance. Such developments include human relations' school, which was pioneered by Elton Mayo and Kurt Lewin, who emphasized on improving the work environment and work groups as a strategy to improve productivity (Rush 1959; Robbins 1990; Torrington *et al.* 2005). Treating employees as human beings rather than working tools was a new doctrine that was revealing other aspects of people management in other phases of personnel management. This period marked a shift of emphasis from managing an individual employee to managing groups/teams in the organization (Davis 1980). Other contributions were from the work of Abraham Maslow on the human hierarchy of needs and the power of employee's motivation on productivity (Maslow 1970). Later, Chris Argyris and Frederick Herzberg wrote about the concept of employee's satisfaction and the significant impact this concept has had on the organisational practices in improving the quality of work in organisations (Deci & Ryan 1985). The organization development school driven by Bennis & Schein pro- vided equally useful inputs to personnel practices particularly in areas of effective communication and the need to reduce conflict in the work place (Davis 1980; Walton & McKerzie 1991). Therefore, to suit the fashion of the time, there appeared to be a difference between 'administration' and 'management'. Likewise, there is a difference between 'administrator' and 'manager ', where the former appears to be dealing more with routine activities, the latter deals with more strategic issues. There is however an on-going debate in academia on the semantics and the actual substance of personnel jobs.

During the 1950s and 60s personnel management as a professional discipline matured as characterized by most personnel management theories, practices, and processes we know today (Chruden & Sherma 1984; Cuming 1985). In addition to the services provided in the earlier phases, other areas covered in the functions of personnel management, particularly in the 1960s, were organisational development, management development, systematic training and manpower planning. Better processes and techniques of employee selection, training, wages and salary administration and performance appraisal were introduced. The other area was industrial relations in which personnel managers became experts in labour law and represented their organisations in industrial relations disputes (Chruden & Sherman 1984).

Therefore, personnel management as a type of management in organisations has evolved into a distinctive discipline. Perhaps one of the most widely accepted descriptions of the meaning of personnel management is the one given by Michael Armstrong in 1995. This definition is not very different from the ones found in revised editions and other textbooks on human resource management throughout the 2000s. Armstrong (1995) defines personnel management as 'the process and practice of getting people in organization, assessing and rewarding for performance, and developing their full potential for the achievement of organisational objectives'.

By looking at personnel management in this perspective, as may also be noted from
other work by the same author, and many other experts including Dessler (2005) and Bhatia (2007) there are many functions that ought to be performed in a designated functional department (personnel department). However, as shall be observed later, these functions are not by themselves necessarily different from those under a human resource management conceptual framework (Storey 1989; Armstrong 1995; Guest 2001).

QUESTION 2

2. **How are Human Resource Management strategies formulated?**

To meet the competitive challenges organizations, face today, HR must go beyond being a functional player and should become strategic partner. It starts with the understanding of the business and the competition. Strategic partnership can only be realized by understanding the business, taking part in the strategy formulation process, spreading the strategic word throughout the organization, taking an active role in the implementation of it and generating the necessary competencies for the accomplishment of the strategy. The whole process can be named as the strategy facilitation process lead by HR. HR has all the necessary tools to facilitate and be indispensable part of the strategy implementation.

1. Introduction

Today' first changing competitive landscape requires that every company should have clearly defined competitive strategy. To clearly define the strategy hardly means that it would be implemented effectively. Effective implementation of the strategy is the second big question the top management faces after the formulation of it. Generally, it is a market oriented and financially spelled statement and hardly has clear directions for the day-to-day implementation. This is the point where Human Resources (HR) Management can assume a strategic partnership role and be a facilitator for the implementation of the strategy.

Dave Ulrich (1996) frame work that identifies four distinct roles of HR professionals: Administrative Expert, Employee Champion, Change Agent and Strategic Partner. He explains that HR professionals must operate in all four areas simultaneously in order to contribute fully and underlines the importance of being a strategic partner to create value. There must be a move from the traditional functional HR orientation to a more strategic orientation. Becker and Huselid (2006) suggests that the field of HR Strategy differs from traditional HRM research in two important ways. First, Strategic HRM focuses on organizational performance rather than individual performance. Second, it also emphasizes the role of HRM systems as solutions to business problems (including positive and negative complementarities) rather than individual HRM practices in isolation. Strategic HR Management theory is more concerned with the implementation of strategy.

Strategic Partnership is about sharing the responsibility of the strategic initiatives and alignment of HR activities with the business strategy. This is the prominent task of the HR Management today. Sometimes, it sounds easy to implement Strategic Partnership, but it needs a lot of effort from HR. HR needs to be a facilitator for the implementation of the strategy throughout the organization to add even more value to the organization. Facilitator is explained in Merriam-Webster on- definition of HR Managers role in Strategic Management of the company.

To facilitate the strategy implementation, HR needs to understand the formulation mechanism of the strategy. That way, HR can deeply analyses it and correctly interpret it into HR actions. Those actions must be organized with a process methodology to make the workflow efficient and the action steps clear for the implementation. The outcome process should have the necessary characteristics of an interaction process between top management, HR professionals and employees. The process should be designed in a way to create interaction opportunities for all parties within the organization to internalize the strategic objectives and to cooperate for achieving them.

2. Designing a Strategy Facilitation Process

The process must start with the understanding of the business and the competition. HR can only be a real strategic partner if (1) it understands the business and takes its part in the strategy formulation process;(2) spreads the strategic word throughout the organization;(3) takes an active role in the implementation of it and (4) generates the necessary competencies for the accomplishment of the strategy.

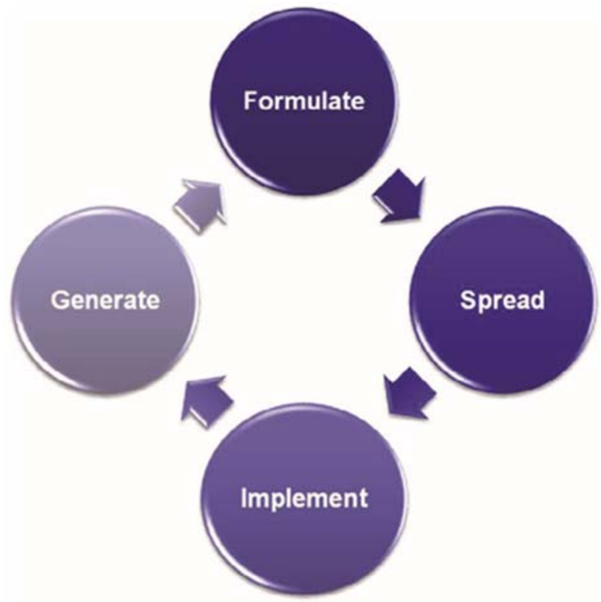


Fig. 1. 4 steps of strategy facilitation process by HR

2.1. Formulate

Strategy formulation primarily is the role of HR Managers. On the contrary, it is the primary role of the top management. There are mainly two different approaches to strategy formulation process: The outside-in and the inside-out approaches. In the former, the principal focus of interest is the link between strategy and the external environment. In the works of Michael Porter (1980), analysis of the industry structure is the starting point of the process and then the company defines its competitive positioning relative to the competitors. In the latter, the starting the point is the internal environment 'resources' of the company. It is also called as the resource approach to the firm as long provided a core theoretical rational for HR'S Potential role as a strategic base approach. This asset is in the firm.

Resource based approach to the strategic management tells that the top management can only formulate the organization's strategy by assessing its resources. There comes the need for strategic partnership of the human manager. As Humane Resource management being the focal point, the resource based approach gives us more opportunity to explore the role of HR to create a competitive advantage for a company. In this respect, the Human resource-based strategy analysis framework developed by grant (1991) provides a practical tool to the contribution of the company’s resources to the strategy

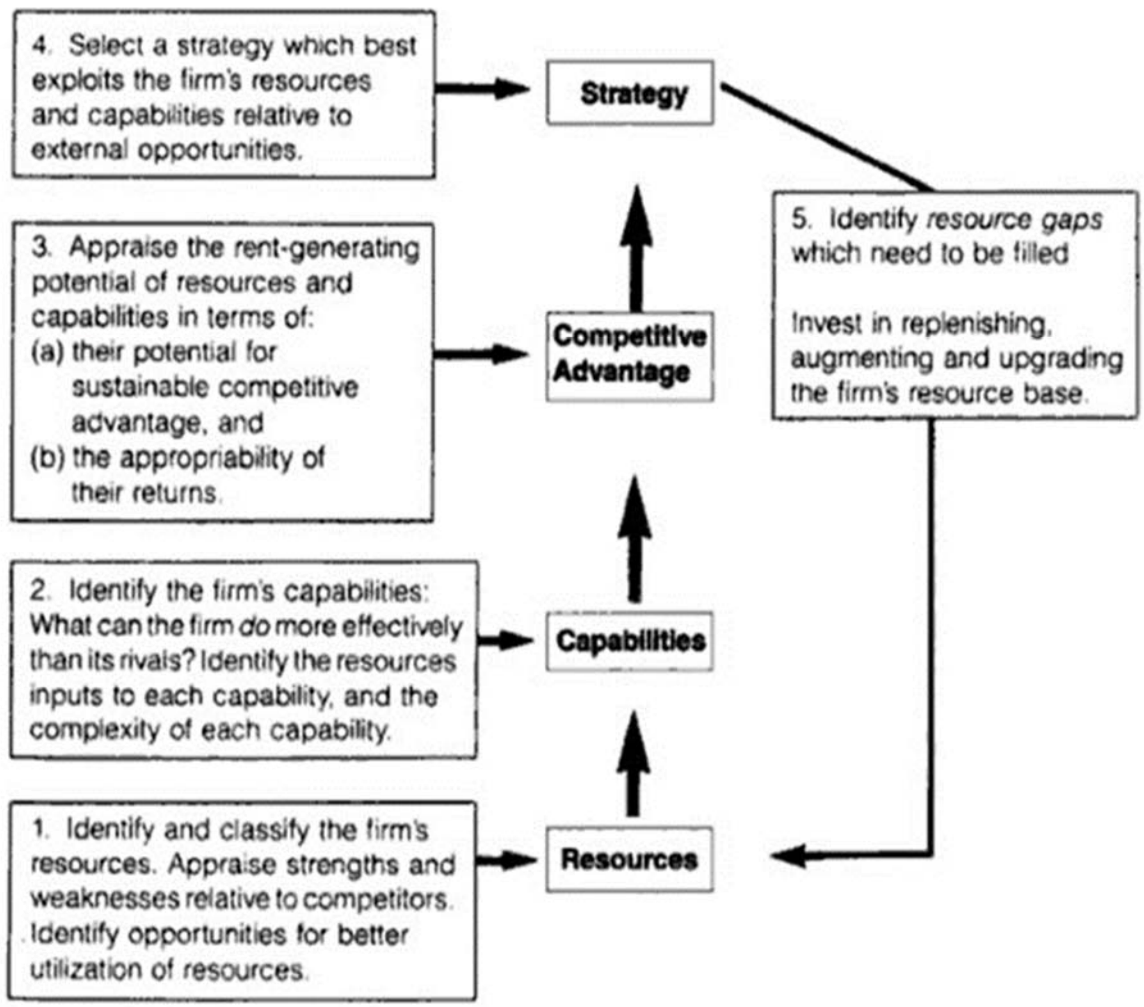


Fig. 2. A Resource-Based Approach to Strategy Analysis: A Practical Framework (Grant, 1991)

2.2. Spread

Once the strategy is formulated, the real pain that the top management feels is how to inform everybody in the

typically provides the organization can be used to help corporate leaders deploy the strategic initiatives that are required to implement predefined strategies.

Strategy deployment is a service that is in significant demand by CEOs, executives and other business unit leaders because they frequently have not made the desired progress to successfully implement their strategic objectives. To begin with the implementation, it must first be understood by every interested party (McCarty, 2012). This places a huge burden of telling the strategic story of the company to everyone in the organization on the top management. They hardly have the time to do that.

HR professionals can easily apply straightforward training methods using their existing toolbox to help the top management to fulfil this strategic responsibility. This would be considered by the top management as a critical business service provided by a credible business partner On the employees' side, it is a good opportunity to hear more clear and detailed words about strategy from a trained professional.

Regardless of how simple or complex the company's strategic plan is; usual training tools can help. HR should prepare series of training sessions to spread the strategic word throughout the organization. To give the message visually, HR can use 'House of Strategy' model (bas, 2010).

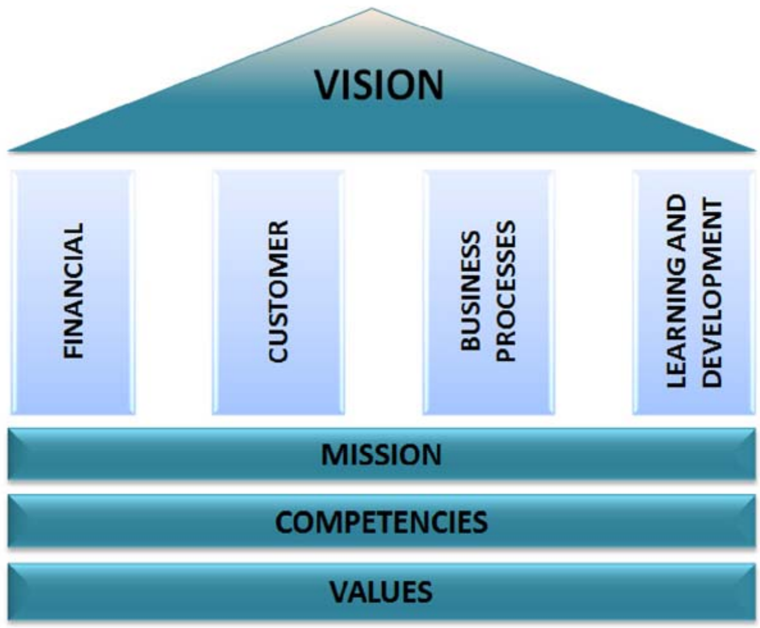


Fig. 3. The House of Strategy Model(Bas.2010)

This model has all the ingredients that are declared compulsory by the strategy thinkers to be digested by the employees at any level. It is a useful visual tool to be used by HR to spread the strategic word. The model suggests that at the base of the strategic framework of the company, there lies the mission, corporate competencies and values.
The Mission statement should repremission.

In order to accomplish the mission, every company should define their competencies as part of their company culture of doing things in the company. Competencies can be described as behaviors that distinguish effective performers from ineffective ones, can include motives, beliefs, and values, and are generally representative of the tasks and activities used to accomplish a specific job (McLagan, 1996). Groups of competencies typically include knowledge, skills, abilities, or characteristics associated with high performance on the job (LeBleu and Sobkowiak, 1995).

The core values of an organization form the foundation on which people perform work and conduct themselves. Core values are not descriptions of the work they do or the strategies they employ to accomplish the mission. The values underlie their work, how interact with each other, and which behaviors they employ to fulfil the mission. The core values are the practices they use (or should be using) every day in everything they do.

Development (Kaplan and Norton, 1996). This is the part where we link the strategy to the implementation by explaining the vision and the strategic perspectives of the company.

2.3. Implement

At the implementation stage, HR Performance skills and services are used to interpret the strategic word in to daily actions and follow up the realization. Classical performance appraisal and measurement should be evolved in to strategic performance management system that seeks methodological deployment of the company's vision in to day-to-day action.

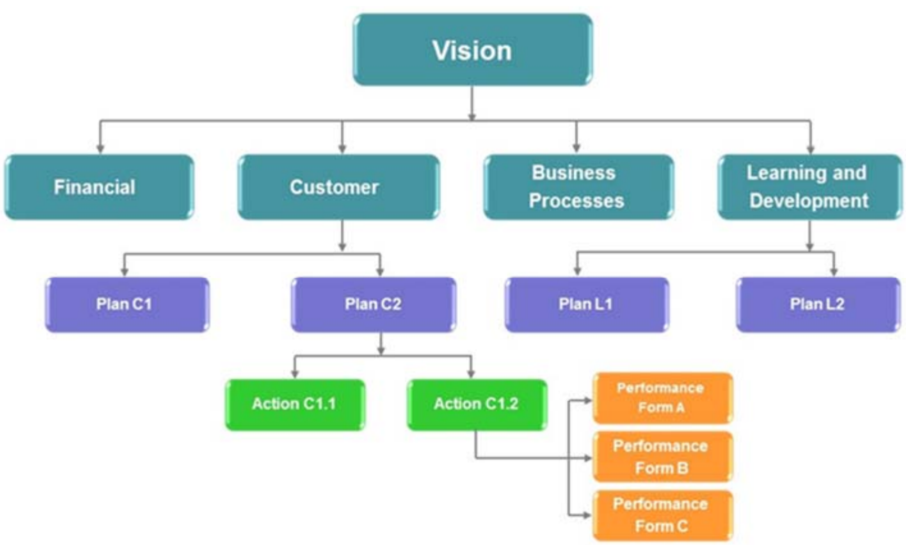


Fig 4: Deployment of the vision in to performance forms

Following the House of Strategy model's four balanced strategy perspectives, there needs to be four success formulas. These formulas should be written in order to further explain the strategic success area to accomplish the vision of the company. These formulas then should be questioned as how that will be achieved. Those answers to that first “how” questions will form the “strategies” of that strategic perspective. Those answers then will be “plan” Plans will be further questioned for detailed actions with specific targets and the name of the employees to perform them. This records then can be rearranged to create the strategic performance management system forms for every person in the organization.

2.4. Generate

As a member of the top management, HR Manager has an active role during the strategy formulation process, especially for the human related issues. Once the strategy is formulated, he/she will create the HR competency model in accordance with the strategy requirements. A competency model describes the particular combination of knowledge, skills and characteristics needed to effectively perform a role in an organization and is used as an HR tool for selection, training and development, appraisal and succession planning (Lucia and Lepsinger, 1999). In order to ensure the consistency between the strategy and what is needed to make it happen, there needs to be methodology designed in line with the strategy formulation process.

Our model (Bas, 2008) -up but top-down. It takes the stage after the strategy is formulated. At the top of the model, there is the statement of competitive advantage of the company and its strategy. This statement is the manifesto of company core competencies.

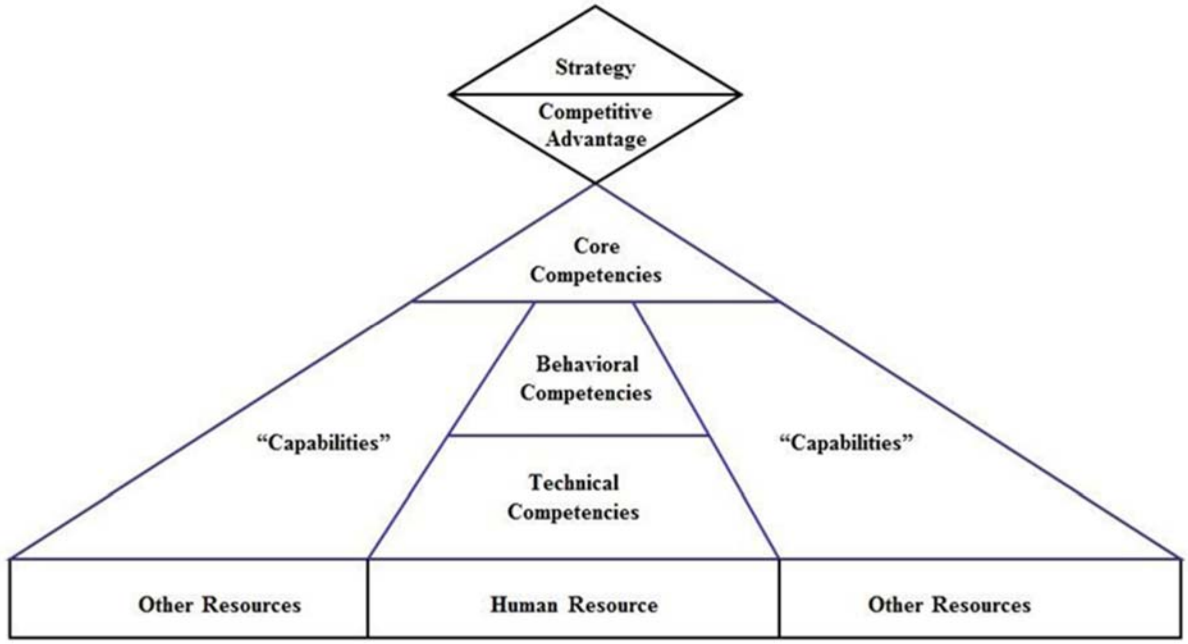


Fig. 5. A Model for Managing Human Resource Competencies Strategically (Bas, 2008)

These core competencies are not to be confused with the HR competencies. Hammel and Prahalad (1990) name three factors to identify core competencies in businesses: They provide potential access to a wide variety of markets; make a significant contribution to the perceived customer benefits of the end product; and difficult for competitors to imitate. Core competencies are the collaborative products of company capabilities. Capabilities arise from the interaction of the multiple resources. HR competencies will take the lead to initiate the interaction process between the resources, thus the company core competencies will be created. At the bottom of the model, there are the company resources together with the human resources.

The strategic capabilities. In the resource-based literature, terms like resources and capabilities are used interchangeably and refer to the tangible and intangible assets firms use to develop and implement their strategies (Ray, Barney and Muhanna, 2006). Moreover, the ability to implement strategies is, by itself, a resource that can be a source of competitive advantage (Barney, 2001).

The competency profiles should be analyzed for each and every position in the organization and the should be defined to reflect necessary competencies to achieve best performance in implementing the strategy. That is where the strategic partnership of HR plays a critical role to help achieve top management's strategic targets. The strategic management of employees' competencies by HR is the key to accomplish the company's vision.

When we arrive at the end of the process with generating new sets of competencies, in fact, this creates new possibilities of formulating new strategies. Strategies are formulated to create competitive advantage for the company. The competitive advantage must rely on a distinct core competency of a company. As HR generates new sets of competencies, those will be the basis for new formulations of strategy. Therefore, our strategy facilitation process creates a reproductive loop that makes possible to create new competitive advantages.

3. Conclusion

HR being the strategic partner of the top management discussion is nothing new. This is the "what" version of the question. But "how" of being the strategic partner is yet to be explained. In this article, we have attempted to present to HR professionals a practical approach that can be implemented by them with the skills and 'services' that are already at their hands. We have preferred to explain the approach with a process methodology to make the steps clear believe that HR can add even more value to the business by assuming the strategic partnership role and facilitating the implementation of the business strategy.

The strategy facilitation process effectively uses formal communication channels of the organization and creates an interaction between top management, HR professionals and employees within the organization to internalize the strategic objectives and to cooperate for achieving them.

This process methodology has direct managerial implications and outlines for HR Managers a comprehensive approach to use their existing toolbox to play the strategic partner role even more productively. It also shows top managers how to use HR services to facilitate the strategy implementation. This methodology suggests further exploitation of existing resources within the organization with marginal extra investment. The return would be abundant as it would be effective implementation of the strategy. Practice and personal observations in relatively large scale companies having international operations. This might not be transferable to all types of organizations. Thus, it is recommended that researches can be conducted on different scale organizations for the generalizability of findings.

QUESTION 3

3. Discuss the welfare stage in industrial development

There are many definitions of the welfare state around the world. In the English-speaking countries, the definition propounded by Wilensky is typical. He states that the essence of the welfare state consists in government-protected minimum standards of income, nutrition, health, housing, and education, guaranteed to every citizen as a political right, not as an act of charity.

However, when Wilensky defines the welfare state more concretely, he equates it with a set of social programs like pensions, death benefits, disability insurance; sickness and /or maternity benefits or health insurance or a national health service like Britain's; and family or child allowances.

Some researchers criticize this definition which is the mainstream in Britain and America on the ground that it is too narrow. They argue that the full employment policies or policies to stabilize industrial relations play important roles in the real welfare state system, and that these policies should be included within the definition of the welfare state.

While these researchers considerably broaden the scope of the welfare state by including these policies, none the less they focus their subject of inquiry on a set of policies toward workers. Contrary to this still narrow focus, some Japanese scholars of public finance insist that a local allocation tax to ensure the equitable distribution of financial resources among local governments, national government disbursements for compulsory education, public works in rural areas, and expenditures to support weak industries like small business or agriculture should be included within the category of expenditures undertaken by the welfare state.

The reason for such assertions is that these policies and expenditures give stability to society by redistributing income and giving earning opportunities to lower income and wealth classes, regions, and industries. This concept of “the welfare state in a broader sense “is similar to Polanyi’s concept of “social protection “because both notions encompass a much broader conceptualization of “welfare “as providing shelter for people like workers, farmers, and small businesses against severe market pressure.

These notions of “the welfare state in a broader sense “have played important roles in analyses of contemporary capitalism. The reason for this is that after World War I, the Great Depression, and World War Ⅱ advanced capitalist states provided social protection ー and achieved redistribution ー through a wide variety of instruments: trade protection, minimum wages, centralized collective bargaining, product market regulation, zoning, control over markets delegated to producer groups, and, of course, social security systems. The essential feature shared by all these instruments is that they disconnect or buffer income streams from market outcomes, whether these incomes take the form of wages, employment, or profits.

A social security system is not the only mechanism for redistribution. As Herman Schwartz has written: “The astounding thing about the so-called ‘golden era’, after all, was not widespread recourse to formal welfare by those in the labor market or even the deliberate if only occasional use of expansionist monetary policy. “The important feature of the golden era was stable employment, wages, and investment across all sectors, and predictable access to deferred wages after retirement. States created this stability in reaction to the exposure of virtually all life chances and income streams to the logic and volatility of the market. They did not do so only to benefit workers and workers alone were not the only actors who benefited from and campaigned for redistribution and stability.

When the expression ‘welfare state’s used in the sense as previously defined, the welfare state systems in Japan have undergone quite radical transformations since the 1980s.

２. The welfare state system

While "welfare state theory in a broader sense "focuses on welfare functions stabilization functions and redistribution functions）, a welfare state system approach emphasizes that not only state or government but also other institutions like labor unions, agricultural cooperatives, and even business corporations perform welfare functions in contemporary
capitalist societies.

John M. Keynes insisted that "I believe that in many cases the ideal size for the unit of control and organization lies somewhere between the individual and the modern State. I suggest, therefore, that progress lies in the growth and the recognition of semi-autonomous bodies within the State "in "The End of Laissez-Faire" （1926）.

Gunnar Myrdal maintained that "As a result of this development, the whole character of our national communities is changing. What in reality ー constitutional form aside ー constitutes public policy is now decided upon and executed in many different sectors and on different levels: not only directly by the central state authorities and by provincial and municipal authorities, which in this process are taking over more and more responsibilities, but also increasingly by a whole array of'private'power groups, organized to promote group interests and common causes."[6] Both Keynes and Myrdal therefore placed high value on non-government organizations in providing social security and social protection for the people.

Hence, social corporatism or interest-group liberalism have wide appeal in Western societies. The reason for this popularity is that these forms of corporatist-type coordination answer the question of how meaningful planning can take place without changing into a command economy like the Soviet Union. This corporatist coordination was preferred by the Swedish Social Democrats. And, in countries like the United States where the people have traditionally feared the state, interest groups carry out many public policies on behalf of the latter.

The foregoing discussion highlights the importance of broadening our horizons to cover local government, social security funds, labor unions, and business companies when we analyze real welfare states or welfare societies.

Ⅱ Formation of the welfare state regime in Japan

After World War I, Japan too witnessed the experimentation stage of the welfare state. We can discern a germinal stage of the welfare state in the following facts: that the income tax became a key national tax: that a finance minister Takahashi adopted fiscal policy to combat unemployment and the impoverishment of rural areas during the severe depression of the 1930s: and that a local allocation system was created to secure the equitable distribution of financial resources among local governments. Important in this regard is that the health insurance law（1922）, the national health insurance law（1938）, and the pension law for workers（1941）were introduced.

In spite of these facts, I maintain that the Japanese welfare state regime were formed after World War Ⅱ in the days of occupation.

World War Ⅱ was the final paroxysm of a long period of turmoil. From it there emerged a new hegemonic era in which the United States assumed the same kind of leadership that Britain had exercised during the mid-nineteenth century. In 1945 the United States sought to reconstruct the entire world including Japan in its own image. The Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers（SCAP）imposed a series of reforms in 1945 and 1946. These were based on the rationale that militarism stemmed from monopoly, tyranny, and poverty. Constructing a peaceful, non-militaristic Japan required more than disbanding the military: it necessitated wide-ranging reform to eliminate authoritarian political rule, equalize political rights and even wealth, and transform values.

SCAP announced the first major reforms in October 1945, with a declaration that guaranteed freedom of speech, press, and assembly and rights to organize labor or farmer unions. SCAP also ordered the Japanese government to extend civil and political rights to women. In December, SCAP instructed the Japanese government to undertake land reform as well. With these orders, the occupiers sent out the message that the democracy should be the basis of the new Japanese regime. The culmination of this endeavor was the rewriting of the constitution. Drafted by a committee of occupation officials in the winter of 1946, this new constitution was discussed and ratified that spring by the imperial Diet and then promulgated in November 1946.

The new constitution not only granted to the people of Japan an array of fundamental human rights but also boldly extended the concept of rights into social realm and outlawed discrimination based on sex, race, creed, social status, or family origin as follows.

Article 14:

All of the people are equal under the law and there shall be no discrimination in political, economic or social relations because of race, creed, sex, social status or family origin.

Article 21:

Freedom of assembly and association as well as speech, press and all other forms of expression are guaranteed.

Article 25:

All people shall have the right to maintain the minimum standards of wholesome and cultured living. 2） In all spheres of life, the State shall use its endeavors for the promotion and extension of social welfare and security, and of public health.

Article 26:

All people shall have the right to receive an equal education correspondent to their ability, as provided for by law. 2） All people shall be obligated to have all boys and girls under their protection receive ordinary education as provided for by law. Such compulsory education shall be free.

Article 27:

All people shall have the right and the obligation to work. 2）Standards for wages, hours, rest and other working conditions shall be fixed by law. 3）Children shall not be exploited.

Article 28:

The right of workers to organize and to bargain and act collectively is guaranteed.

Article 29:

The right to own or to hold property is inviolable. 2）Property rights shall be defined by law, in conformity with the public welfare. 3）Private property may be taken for public use upon just compensation therefore.

The postwar constitution declared in these articles that Japan would adopt a welfare state regime like those of the Western countries. Finally, its article 9 committed the Japanese people to forever renouncing “war as a sovereign right of the nation and the threat or use of force as means of settling international disputes. “This article too related to the postwar Japanese welfare state form as discussed below.

There are those who argue that the constitution is formal showpiece without effective measures. Others maintain that the postwar constitution was forced through by the United States. I disagree with these contentions. Most of the Japanese people welcomed the constitution and its ambitious provisions, as officially sanctioned goals or ideals, have framed the discourse and institutions of postwar Japanese life until today.

Like the constitutional reform, the occupation forces implemented many other radical reforms, for instance of land ownership, the electoral system, labor relations, and the educational system. Most of them took deep root in postwar Japanese society and gave rise to the Japanese welfare state regime. Why were these reforms carried out? Why did they take hold in Japanese society? I shall consider these questions by taking land ownership reform as an example.

Land ownership reform was one of the most radical and thoroughgoing changes introduced during the occupation period, and it all but eliminated exploitative landlordism and rural tenancy.

Landlords had been on the defensive in the 1920s and early 1930s. Organized groups of tenants had frequently confronted them with successful demands for rent reductions or more secure tenancy rights. Many landlords had responded by selling off holdings. During the war, the government had intervened in the disputes less to promote social reform than to spur food production. In addition, bureaucrats within the Ministry of Agriculture had been calling for land reform since the 1930s as a way to bring social stability to the rural areas.

In light of these facts, Andrew Gordon maintains that land reform was a 'trans war' endeavor, and he says that this historical context explains the deep, enduring impact of the reforms initiated by SCAP.[10)] I agree with his explanation. At the same time, SCAP certainly pushed for reforms that went beyond the intentions of Japanese officials themselves. The Japanese government enacted its own land reform law in December 1945. SCAP judged this to be weak and demanded that the government draft a second reform measure. A stronger law was approved in October 1946 and forced each landlord to sell all but a small, family-sized plot of farmland to tenants at 1945 prices.

Why did the Japanese government propose its first land reform plan on its own initiative? Why did it accept a much more sweeping measure? The main reason is that the government could not leave the instability of the postwar political structure as it was. Fazed by regime crisis, the government made the maximum possible concessions to the farmers. The most effective measure to reduce political tension was the traditional policy of giving lands to the latter. In addition, food shortages intensified the regime crisis.

Giving lands to the farmers would boost their will to work hard and lead to increased food production.

As the land reform has demonstrated, the postwar reforms which constituted the Japanese welfare state regime arose from an endeavor to deal with the crisis of the prewar regime.

Ⅲ Development of the welfare state regime

The Japanese welfare state system has developed from the postwar constitution regime. Next considered is the distinctive nature of the system. We can understand its characteristics of it by observing how the national budget has changed. As Rudolf Goldshield has stated, the national budgets of a country plainly show the basic structure of the state.

Table 1 presents national general government expenditures analyzed by purpose and given as percentages of total expenditures from 1880 to 2006. World War Ⅱ occurred between 1940 and 1950. It will be seen that expenditure structures have completely changed after World War Ⅱ. National defense expenditures had accounted for between 30 percent and 50 percent of total expenditure during the pre-World War Ⅱ period. In stark contrast to that age, postwar defense expenditures fell drastically to less than 10 percent. After World War Ⅱ, defense expenditures were replaced by expenditures on local finance, land conservation & development, industry & economy, education & culture, and social security & welfare. This radical restructuring of expenditure structures highlights that Japan had changed from a militarist state into a welfare state.

Compared with European countries and the U. S., conspicurous in Japan is the larger scale of expenditures on local public finance, land conservation & development, and industry & economy especially agriculture and small business）.

Local public finance expenditure means the transfer of the local allocation tax to local governments by central government. The local allocation tax is levied to secure the equitable distribution of financial resources among local governments and to guarantee sufficient revenue with which to execute planned administration in each locality. Under this system, the national government sets aside a certain ratio of the national tax reserves as a common fund for local governments. It then distributes the fund among the latter according to their needs and local revenue sources, using a formula established by the national government to do so. As a result, local governments with weaker fiscal capacities situated in rural areas receive a larger per capita allocation tax than do local governments situated in large metropolitan areas see Table 2）.

Table 1 CentralGovernmentExpendituresbyPurpose（%）

FiscalLocal*GeneralNationalLandIndustry&SocialEdudation&Pensionsto*
yearfinance*administ-defense conservation&economysecurityculture DebtchargepublicservantMiscellaneousTotal*
rationdevelopmentandwelfare

188026.60.031.54.39.11.40.50.923.62.0100
180010.50.145.72.421.12.10.71.511.84.2100
191010.40.134.53.010.61.60.55.030.24.2100
192010.30.152.25.712.23.10.74.17.04.7100
193010.60.128.65.915.79.01.19.617.71.7100
1934～367.40.346.27.24.56.71.27.916.52.0100
19405.65.250.33.19.03.51.65.015.51.1100
195010.817.117.614.816.53.38.60.89.21.2100
19609.719.19.416.99.412.113.36.71.50.2100
19706.721.77.316.612.411.515.93.63.50.6100
19805.018.15.213.89.210.721.33.812.70.2100
19906.823.06.28.55.97.818.42.620.70.1100
19955.516.26.214.46.78.722.32.216.90.9100
20005.417.75.510.94.67.422.01.223.90.1100
20065.318.36.18.13.46.227.21.323.50.2100

Source：HayashiTakehisa.ImaiKatsuhito.andKanazawaFumio.eds., *Public Finance in Japan, Historical Statistics*,UniversityofTokyoPress,2001

Table 2 Distribution of Local Allocation Tax among Prefectures （Per capita base）, 2000

	Per capita	Per Capita Local	

	Tax Revenue (A)	Allocation Tax (B)	Sum (A) ＋ (B)
	(￥)	(￥)	(￥)
High fiscal capacity group			
Tokyo	269,030		269,030
Osaka	112,849	36,501	149,350
Aichi	128,238	23,392	151,630
Kanagawa	98,076	30,521	128,597
Low fiscal capacity group			
Kochi	76,636	273,929	350,563
Shimane	87,235	299,795	387,038
Tokushima	96,015	232,644	328,659
Akita	80,175	227,252	307,432

Source: Ministry of Home Affairs, *Chiho Zaisei Hakusho, 2002.*

Land conservation & development expenditures broadly termed 'public work expenditures'. They comprise expenditure for erosion and flood control, road improvement, housing, sewerage systems, and disaster reconstruction. Japan's public works spending as a proportion of national budget expenditures was higher than levels in all the other major industrialized countries after World War Ⅱ. The pattern of public works distribution in Japan was even more impressive: a disproportionate share of public works spending went to low-income rural areas.

As national government expenditures have demonstrated, Japan's postwar welfare state gave preferential treatment to the periphery like rural areas. Why did it do so? I shall now consider the reasons by examining agricultural policy and small business policy after World War Ⅱ.

１. Agriculture policy

The land reform of 1946-1949 markedly changed the political economy of the Japanese countryside. It gave millions of farmer's autonomy from the prevailing local conservative power structure which they had never enjoyed. The number of tenant households likewise decreased sharply. The fluidity of social conditions in the countryside was also greatly enhanced by the abolition of the conservative agricultural associations, or *nokai,* in December 1947. In many villages during the late 1940s, former landlords could no longer play an authoritative role in mobilizing electoral support for the conservatives: non-conservative, and even radical, rural organizations threatened to take their place. The left-oriented agricultural unions（*nomin kumiai*）in many places retained strong organization and credibility from tenancy and food requisition struggles waged in the past against landlords
and businessmen.

The erosion of the traditional conservative power structure in the countryside during 1945-1948 had major political consequences. In the first postwar election of April 1946 and the April 1947 general elections, the Socialist Party did very well in the countryside, obtaining over 20 percent of the vote in several mainly agricultural constituencies. Conversely, the conservative parties fared much worse in the countryside than many had anticipated.

The 1949 election brought a sharp rural swing away from the Socialists to Yoshida Shigeru's Liberal Party. Although the election established the preeminence of Liberal Party nationally, pronounced radicalization in some parts of the countryside also led to the election of nine Communists. Therefore, despite Yoshida's overwhelming electoral victory in January 1949, many Japanese conservatives were worried about both the stability of conservative rule, and the rural basis upon which it seemed even more decisively to rest.

Postwar Japanese conservative politicians have pursued distributive politics as a means to buttress their political preeminence. Strong support for agriculture was the first element of this distributive orientation to develop after World War Ⅱ, and the basic programs of support for agriculture developed during two relatively short periods — 1949-1953 and 1960-1964, in addition to the great land reform of 1946-1949. These programs arose largely under the auspices of prime ministers Yoshida Shigeru and Ikeda Hayato. Major regional programs with importance for agriculture also emerged during the early 1970s, particularly under the leadership of Tanaka Kakuei.

The third Yoshida cabinet （1949-1952） witnessed the birth of major agricultural programs with important distributive political implications. On Agriculture Minister Hirokawa's initiative, compensation for agriculture in the face of the political crisis for the conservatives came in two forms: new policies to strengthen the agricultural cooperative system and a sharp increase in subsidies in order to expand rice production. These forms of compensation for agriculture were internationally distinctive in their reliance on private bodies which both performed public functions and operated in their own commercial interests with support.

There was a major quantitative increase in support for Japanese agriculture during the 1949-1953 period of crisis for the conservatives. In the space of four years, the share of agriculture in Japan's total general account budget almost tripled from
3.2 percent in to 8.8 percent.

The second period of major postwar policy change in agriculture came after the Japan US Security Treaty crisis of 1960. After becoming the prime minister in the wake of the Security Treaty crisis, Ikeda Hayato announced a plan to double the incomes of the Japanese by 1970. The Japan Socialist Party promptly demanded that Ikeda should also commit himself explicitly to doubling agricultural incomes by the same date; in early September, 1960 he unveiled a basic agricultural law proposal to achieve this end. The

Basic Agricultural Law was passed in June 1961. This law established the principle that government should "enable those engaged in agriculture to maintain a standard of living comparable to those engaged in other industries so that all Japanese citizens would enjoy the fruits of economic growth."

The central operational means with which to realize the equality goals of the Basic Agricultural Law were assistance in agricultural mechanization and an increase in the price of rice. In the wake of the law's enactment, rice price deliberation procedures were changed to give LDP agricultural Diet members a more central role. All this led to a rapid escalation of rice prices, beginning in 1961, and to a related increase in government spending on agriculture. Enactment of the Basic Agricultural Law also led to a substantial broadening of agricultural support policies beyond rice and it introduced other crops-related
measures designed to bolster agricultural income.

Farmers thus became some of the principal beneficiaries of double-digit economic growth in Japan: through rapidly rising agricultural producer support prices, drawn from ever fatter government coffers; through rising part-time employment outside agriculture, much of it facilitated by the state; and through sharp increases in the value of the land which farmers owned. The government both compensated farmers directly from the proceeds of growth and helped them benefit from the pro rural biases which public policy created in Japan's industrial and land use structure. Following a final sharp surge in farm prices during 1972-1975, farmers had per household incomes which were nearly 40 percent greater than those of city dwellers.

２. Small business policy

According to a survey conducted by the OECD in the 1970s, Japan had the most extensive range of policy tools to assist small business in the industrial policy.[15)] They ranged from preferential access to capital, highly favorable tax policies toward small firms to protection of the distribution sector. These policies did not emerge overnight but were the outcomes of the new postwar regime and political struggles.

Before World War Ⅱ, the state had been reluctant to negotiate with interest groups, aside from big business, as autonomous entities. The postwar political order was in part more democratic because state officials learned from the mistakes of excluding cooperative groups. Other significant factors that stimulated alliances between the government and previously neglected sectors included the institution of party government, the creation of new interest-oriented agencies, firmer guarantees of the right to organize labor unions and the rapid growth of the labor movement and other popular associations in agriculture and small business after 1945.

The small-business sector emerged from World War Ⅱ with a strong desire to advance its collective interests in the political arena. Although the petite bourgeoisie had generally allied with the bourgeois parties before the war, it was not at all clear in the late 1940s that they would flock to support the postwar bourgeois ruling parties. There was much anger over the wartime government's high-handed promotion of large firms at the expense of small producers. Furthermore, the early Liberal Party cabinets of Yoshida Shigeru appeared contemptuous of smaller enterprises. Under the Priority Production Plan of 1946 the government gave large firms preferential access to capital and materials. The third Yoshida cabinet's implementation of Joseph Dodge's recommendations for drastic retrenchment in 1949 was devastating for many small and medium-sized concerns, whereas many big companies received extraordinary loans from the large commercial banks.

So great was the small-business sector's displeasure with the Liberal Party that there existed the unprecedented possibility of an alliance between the urban petite bourgeoisie and the Japan Socialist Party（JSP）from 1947 to 1950. But the Socialist party was unable to consolidate a national base in the small-business sector. It failed to capitalize on the political opportunity offered by austerity. In the wake of huge losses in the 1949 election, internecine struggles gave rise to separate Right Socialist and Left Socialist parties in 1951. A critical issue dividing the two wings was the strategy to adopt toward the petite bour- geoisie.

The stage was set for small business to negotiate a social contract with conservative politicians during the first half of the 1950s. This compact resulted in a stream of protectionist measures that were often enacted despite the opposition of the market-oriented bureaucrats and ruling party leaders. Major policy innovations favoring small business were the following: in August 1952 a law was passed to permit "adjustment associations" to control small business over-production: in September 1953 the Small Business Finance Corporation was founded on the Diet's initiative: in 1954 administrative controls were reintroduced in order to restrain the growth of large retailers: in 1957 the Small Business Organization Law was passed in order to sanction the formation of commercial and industrial unions aimed at preventing excessive competition and infiltration by large firms.

The ruling party, for its part, reaped ample benefits by responding to the demands of small business. The newly formed Liberal Democratic Party（LDP）consolidated its mass base among farmers and the urban petite bourgeoisie during the latter half of the 1950s. Seeking to expand the party's organizational networks, the LDP supported the passage of several laws that prompted the formation of small-business associations.

Although small business concluded its basic social contract with the state in the 1950s, the process of negotiating and renegotiating continued. The greatest threat to the agreement arouse during the 1960s when the government retreated from the protectionist policies of the previous decade. In 1960 the LDP unveiled a "New Policy "which emphasized the modernization of small businesses in order to enhance their international competitiveness in the face of trade and capital liberalization. In 1963 the Diet enacted both the Small and Medium Enterprise Basic Law and the Small and Medium Enterprise Modernization Law. By intent and in practice the legislation benefited the largest of the small and medium-sized enterprises, which received tax breaks and low-interest loans to modernize equipment and undertake mergers. MITI relied overwhelmingly on market forces, and bankruptcies and business failures increased dramatically after 1964. Yet the social contract essentially held despite the market-conforming modernization policy. Small-business associations had in fact played a central role in drafting and lobbying for the Small and Medium Enterprises Basic Law. Their support was based above all on the new opportunities for small entrepreneurs created by the booming economy. Maintaining their end of bargain, the bureaucrats and politicians continued to provide several safety nets.

The 1960s were years of peaceful coexistence between social protection and large-scale development. Public policies which give preference to small business were maintained during 1970's. Among the most important policy innovations of this period was the Large Scale Retail Store Law passed in 1973 to control the chain stores which at the time were threatening the livelihoods of smaller stores. Under this legislation any firm wanting to establish a retail outlet with floor space of more than 1500 square meters had to obtain the prior permission to do so from the government. In 1978 coverage of this law was extended to all retail outlets over 500 square meters, which virtually put a halt to chain store expansion.

３. Welfare policy in a narrower sense

postwar Japanese welfare policy had its origins in the prewar period. The Health Insurance Law of 1922 provided health insurance for many factory workers, especially in large firms, although it left many farmers and small business employees outside its purview. The turmoil of the 1930s and the need for social solidarity in preparation for war led to legislation like the National Health Insurance of 1938, Seamens'Insurance of

1939, and Workers'Pension Insurance of 1941. In 1944 during the war, Workers'Pension Insurance was extended to cover white-collar workers as well. By the latter stages of World War Ⅱ, 56 percent of all Japanese were covered by national health insurance, but the ratio of coverage fell in the confused aftermath of the war.

The development of postwar welfare policy passed through three phases of expansion. The first phase was the period of massive need and meager resources. In this situation and amid early postwar labor turbulence, the Unemployment Insurance Law of 1947 and the Labors 'Accident Insurance Law were passed. The profound economic depression of 1949, which saw Japanese unemployment double within a year, drew harsh criticism from the Left, coupled with demands for new welfare measures. The Emergency Unemployment Countermeasure Law of 1949 and the Livelihood Protection Law of 1950 were introduced in response to these demands. This new Livelihood Law clearly stated that the state must ensure a minimum standard of living for the needy based on the principle enshrined in Article 25 of the Constitution. Enactment of this law was an epoch-making event in the development of the Japanese welfare state.

The second period of welfare expansion came in around 1960. Legislation on national health insurance and national pensions, the cornerstone of postwar Japanese welfare policy, was enacted in 1958-1959. Both national health insurance and national pensions had important prewar and wartime antecedents disrupted by the confusion and the other economic priorities of the early postwar period. Both were partly revived after World War Ⅱ on the initiative of local governments.

Spurring the needs for a comprehensive national health insurance system and a comprehensive pension system were the profound and rapid social transformations driven by the forces of rapid economic growth across Japan during 1950s. Large numbers of Japanese were leaving not only the farms of the countryside, but also the protective cocoon of rural society for high-risk urban life. A large proportion of these new workers were employed in small business. While large firms had relatively comprehensive internal social welfare systems, small businesses did not; nor did the increasing number of old people left at home alone on the farms as their sons and daughters moved to the urban areas of high-growth in Japan.

The third and last period of welfare expansion was in the early in 1970s. New welfare policies introduced during this period included the adoption of the Children's Allowance in 1971 and free medical care for the elderly, large increases in social security pensions, the indexation of social security pensions to the inflation rate, and major increases in reimbursement provisions under the National Health Insurance Act of 1973. Because social welfare took priority in the national budget in 1973, the government proclaimed the year as "the first year of the welfare era. "Given that these measures brought per capita entitlement standards for many Japanese welfare programs close to Western European levels, I believe in that the early 1970s provided the financial substance for a Japanese welfare
state.

The background factors in the major welfare policy innovations of this period were a rapid change in the Japanese society, especially urbanization and a change of mentality. As a result, the demand for welfare grew remarkably. The Conservative Party entered into crisis due to the progressive challenge raised against the Conservatives 'political dominance by the long string of leftist local government victories since the 1960s. The battlegrounds were the largest urban centers like Tokyo and Osaka, where many conservative strategists came to regard the welfare issue, like small-business support programs, as critical. Conservative political leaders as well as elite bureaucrats at national level had no option but to expand welfare in order to forestall challenges from progressives.

If this “era of welfare “had lasted for a decade or so, Japan’s welfare state might have moved decisively toward a more institutionalized welfare state like those of the Western European countries. But the very first year of Japan’s new “the first year of the welfare era “coincided with the first oil crisis after which Japanese economic growth abruptly decelerated. Slower growth and lower government tax revenue caused financial difficulties for the welfare state. In practice, after the second half of the 1970s the development of welfare policy became sluggish; and as I describe below, there was also significant retrenchment in areas such as free medical care for the aged in the 1980s.

Ⅳ Transformation of the welfare state regime

Japan experienced a long period of budget deficits after the oil crisis. The conservatives’ renewed electoral strength double election of 1980）, the increased marginalization of the opposition parties, and a renewed close affinity between private-sector unions and management combined to leave the conservatives in much stronger electoral position than that of the mid-1970s. Such a situation, Japanese neoliberals who approved of Reaganomics and/or Thatcherism had broad powers in policymaking after 1980s. Important reforms colored by neoliberalism were the Administrative Reform of the early 1980s, affirmative responses to American pressures on Japan like the Structural Impediments Initiative of 1989, and Koizumi’s Structural Reform in the 2000s. Here I shall concentrate on the problems of two reforms and omit those concerning the U.S. pressures.

１． Administrative Reform of early 1980s

Slower growth and lower government tax revenues after the oil crisis meant that government programs had to be funded by mean of higher taxes or deficit budgeting. The government chose the easier method of deficit budgeting. As a result, Japan’s deficit dependency ratio increased drastically in 1970s: after being just over 4 percent in 1970, it rose to 34.7 percent in 1979.

It was within this context that administrative reform began under the Suzuki cabinet in the early 1980s. Such reform was delegated to the Second Provisional Administration Reform Commission（Rinchou）, created in March 1981 by Nakasone Yasuhiro, then director-general of the Administrative Management Agency.

The Rinchou Commission pursued three objectives under three slogans: the first was “a fiscal reconstruction without a tax increase”; the second was “building of a welfare society with vitality”; and the third was “making an active contribution to the international community”. In line with these goals, the commission directed its assault against budget deficits and government entitlements. To curtail the expansion of deficits, national budgets were kept at zero, low, or negative rates of growth during 1982-84, thereby dramatically reducing program expansion and costs, as well as civil service growth.

As the Japanese administrative reform campaign gained momentum, the agricultural support program was retrenched. Meanwhile the price of rice obtained by producers slowly but steadily fell in real terms: in 1987 it fell even in nominal terms as well after three years of remaining constant. Cutbacks were made in rural public works. Even rice imports became a serious policy question, following Keidanren’s 1985 declaration of support for agricultural import liberalization, and the sharp 50 percent yen revaluation which followed
shortly after.

The period of administrative reform of the 1980s was characterized by important changes in the treatment of small business. In the wake of the 1985-1986-yen revaluation, support measures for small firms were less extensive and less readily tendered than had been the case in similar circumstances during the 1970s.

Neoliberal intellectuals argued that the expansion of social welfare programs encouraged people to depend excessively upon the state, discouraged their desire to work, and weakened their incentive to invest and improve productivity. They contended that free medical care for the elderly had turned hospitals into "old people's salons. "In response to this outcry, the government passed an Old People's Health Bill in 1982 which introduced co-payments and applied pressure on local governments to stem any initiatives in order to improve medical care for elderly patients. In 1985 the Employee Pension Plan was revised to slow down benefit increases, raise contributions, and reduce government subsidization. The pension system was made explicitly two-tiered, with a base pension for all citizens
topped by a wage-linked pension tied to occupation.

Beyond its budgetary focus, the Rinchou Commission also embarked on the substantial privatization of nationalized industries such the Japanese National Railway, Nippon Telephone and Telegraph, International Telegraph and Telephone, and the Tobacco and Salt Monopoly. Not coincidentally, privatization substantially undercut the political and economic power of many of the militant public-sector unions. Other industries such as air transport, energy, the finance sector, and various pension systems underwent varying degrees of deregulation. Numerous areas of the once closely protected Japanese economy thus became more open to influence by stockholders on the one hand and to foreign corporations and investors on the other hand.

In all these ways, government costs were reduced and the scope of government activity was restricted, reversing the trend of expansion of the welfare state regime that had begun in the 1970s.

Table ３ The Economy and Government Finances at the Beginning and the End of the Koizumi Administration

	FY2000	FY2005	Change
Conditions of Economy			
Nominal GDP（trillions of yen）	504.1	503.3	― 0.8
Unemployment rate	4.7%	4.3%	― 0.4%
CPI（100 at 1998 year）	99.0	96.9	― 2.1%
Central Government finances [1]			
Total expenditures（trillions of yen）	89.3	85.5	― 4.3%
Total tax revenue trillions of yen）	50.7	49.1	― 3.2%
Local allocation tax（trillions of yen） [2]	21.8	17.0	― 22.0%
Proportion of revenue dependent on public debt	36.9%	36.6%	― 0.8%
Public debt balance（trillions of yen）	367.6	526.9	43.3%

Source: Hayashi Nobumitsu ed., *Zusetsu Nihon no Zaisei, 2007*, Toyokeizai shinposha. Ministry of Home Affairs, *Chiho Zaisei Hakusho*, 2002 and 2007.

Note 1） These figures are based on the sum of settled account.

2） This figure of local allocation tax are not based on central government expenditure but based on local governments receipt.

２. Koizumi Structural Reform

In 2001 Koizumi Junichirou became the prime minister. With his strong belief in neoliberalism, the Koizumi Cabinet’s goal was the realization of “a society that rewards hard work and offers opportunities to meet new challenges,” a society in which wisdom in the private sector and regional communities brings about vitality and prosperity, “and “a caring society in which people can live safely and in peace.”

To accomplish this goal, the cabinet mapped out a strategy of structural reform as follows: fiscal reform to introduce a small government of high quality ; tax reform to “maximize the‘vitality’of the economy and society”; harmonization of the social security system with the economy to assure sustainability and reliability in the future, and to halt, as far as possible, the increase in the national burden ratio ; reform of the relationship between central and local governments to enhance local initiative and self-responsibility ; and reform of special public corporations and other institutions.

Did the cabinet’s public commitment have concrete outcomes? Table 3 presents the changes in the economy and government finances during the Koizumi administration. Nominal DGP decreased slightly, but real GDP increased only slightly. Calculated on the basis of annual average, the real economic growth rate per year amounted to only 1.4 percent. The unemployment rate showed a little improvement although one should bear in mind the increase of non-regular employees like part-time workers and contract employees. Consumer prices did not rise but fell which suggests that the cabinet failed to free the Japanese economy from enduring deflation.

Inspection of the government finances reveals more truths about the Koizumi Structural Reform. Total expenditures by the central government exhibited a decline of 4.3 percent from the beginning of the Koizumi administration. Total tax revenue also declined by 3.2 percent. As a result, the proportion of revenue dependent on the public debt did not significantly decrease and the public debt balance rose considerably. Despite a commitment to reconstructing sound public finances, in practice the administration did not achieve its initial aim.

The administration indubitably cut back government expenditures, especially the cost of public works and local allocation tax. However, this drastic retrenchment impoverished the regional economy, especially in rural areas: Koizumi Structural Reform came at too high a cost.

３． Limits of the neoliberal economic and political alternative

There is some limitation to neoliberal alternatives which become apparent when theoretical and empirical analysis is conducted.

The neoliberal economic and political alternatives do not escape the fate of becoming merely one of the untenable sides of the contradictory structure of the contemporary capitalism. Supply-side economists seek to dismantle the welfare state in order to eliminate the disincentive to invest, but doing so would be to abolish those buffers that stabilize demand. If the socioeconomic supports for workers and the poor are terminated in the name of revitalizing the work ethic, the market will return, but so will the gross injustices, dissatisfaction, instability, and class confrontations that characterized the capitalist economies prior to the welfare state regime.

Hence neoliberal alternatives are impracticable in the long term and are forced to change direction. A case in point is the recent structural reform in Japan.

Table 5 presents recent trends of disparities in income and reduction effects to disparities through redistribution by the government in Japan. The Table highlights that disparities in income are intensifying. Recent structural reforms have been responsible for an expansion of disparities. A drastic cutting back of public works since 1994（see Table4）, a

Table 4 Historical Trend of Capital Expenditure by Government

Fiscal year	Capital expenditure (million yen)	Growth rate to the previous year	Index (1975=100)
1958	687,170	—	4
1959	815,635	18.7	5
1960	995,519	22.1	6
1961	1,309,934	31.6	8
1962	1,689,081	28.9	10
1963	1,904,959	12.8	12
1964	2,268,130	19.1	14
1965	2,676,632	18.0	16
1966	3,138,806	17.3	19
1967	3,526,884	12.4	21
1968	4,104,256	16.4	25
1969	4,847,012	18.1	29
1970	5,911,131	22.0	36
1971	7,621,164	28.9	46
1972	9,320,764	22.3	56
1973	10,692,416	14.7	65
1974	14,204,335	32.8	86
1975	16,513,651	16.3	100
1976	17,598,049	6.6	107
1977	20,868,423	18.6	126
1978	24,372,545	16.8	148
1979	26,110,383	7.1	158
1980	27,876,490	6.8	169
1981	28,793,442	3.3	174
1982	28,762,119	△ 0.1	174
1983	27,987,251	△ 2.7	169
1984	27,640,082	△ 1.2	167
1985	26,505,502	△ 4.1	161
1986	27,860,791	5.1	169
1987	30,411,566	9.2	184
1988	31,678,983	4.2	192
1989	33,827,554	6.8	205
1990	36,793,740	8.8	223
1991	40,336,216	9.6	244

1992	46,337,275	14.9	281
1993	51,126,950	10.3	310
1994	47,828,735	△ 6.5	290
1995	50,894,394	6.4	308
1996	49,126,662	△ 3.5	297
1997	45,387,879	△ 6.7	278
1998	47,261,306	3.1	286
1999	44,473,778	△ 5.3	271
2000	41,391,349	△ 7.5	251
2001	38,449,163	△ 7.1	233
2002	36,007,311	△ 12.3	218
2003	31,594,065	△ 12.3	191

Source: Chiiki Seisaku Kennkyuukai, *Heisei 15 Nenndo Gyousei Toushi Jisseki* （*Government Capital Investmemt in FY 2003*）.

Table ５Reduction Effects to Disparities in Income through Income Redistribution

	pre-tax and transfer inequality	after tax and transfer inequality		after tax inequality		after transfer inequality	
	gini index	gini index	reduction effect by tax and transfer (%)	gini index	reduction effect by tax（% ）	gini index	reduction effect by transfer
1981	0.3491	0.3143	10.0	0.3301	5.4	0.3313	5.0
1984	0.3975	0.3426	13.8	0.3824	3.8	0.3584	9.8
1987	0.4049	0.3382	16.5	0.3879	4.2	0.3564	12.0
1990	0.4334	0.3643	15.9	0.4207	2.9	0.3791	12.5
1993	0.4394	0.3645	17.0	0.4255	3.2	0.3812	13.2
1996	0.4412	0.3606	18.3	0.4338	1.7	0.3721	15.7
1999	0.4720	0.3814	19.2	0.4660	1.3	0.3912	17.1
2002	0.4983	0.3812	23.5	0.4941	0.8	0.3917	21.4

%)

Sources: The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Shotoku Saibunnpai Chousa Houkokusho*（*Income Redistribution Research Report*）.

reduction of the local allocation tax, the abolition of agricultural price support systems, and retrenchment of social security benefits have all together aggravated inequalities of income and wealth among people.

The number of poor people has risen rapidly. According to an OECD research report published in 2004, at that time the poverty rate in Japan was 15.3 percent: Japan ranked among the worst three countries after Mexico and the United States. As a result, the number of households on welfare increased from 0.61 million in 1996 to 1.07 million in September 2006 when Koizumi stepped down and Abe took office.

Many citizens, especially those in adverse circumstances have expressed discontent with the present state of affairs, criticizing the Koizumi Cabinet and the Abe Cabinet on the grounds that their political creeds based on the principle of competition have forcefully created a society in which the strong prey upon the weak in the name of structural reforms and globalization.

Triggered by a surge in public dissatisfaction, the Liberal Democratic Party suffered a historic defeat in the 29 July 2007 House of Councilors election. Many analysts of the election maintained that one of the main reasons for such a huge defeat of the LDP was its dismal showing in rural communities, once bastions of the LDP. The Party, which has been in power almost continuously since 1955, won only six of 29 single-seat prefectural districts — mainly rural regions that have suffered economic stagnation as their populations grew older. Japan has traditionally shielded farmers against severe market competition by means of various measures, some of which the neoliberal's structural reforms have eliminated. As a result, a fierce backlash that may be dubbed 'a regional revolt 'has spread across the country.

Politicians have no option but to be sensitive to this historical trend under storms of protest. According to a survey conducted jointly by political scientist Kabashima Ikuo and the Asahi, more Diet members elected in Upper House elections of last July 29 believe that Japan must maintain its traditional Japanese welfare system centered on lifelong company jobs and public work projects than do Diet members elected to the House of Representatives in 2005. The researchers consequently predict that the pace of structural reform will slow down and new policies like subsidies to farming household will be introduced in the future. I agree with this view because I believe that society always protects itself against the perils inherent in a self-regulating market system in the long run. A symptom of social protection is apparent in the big increase of the minimum wage recorded this year.

We live in the age of the new economy of globalization. This economy has raised the level of skill bias, the degree to which new production processes, including expanded trade, favor better educated workers over less educated workers.

Today, the economy of advanced capitalist societies like Japan favors the better educated worker over lower educated ones. When computerization or international trade displaces a semi-skilled worker, finding a good new job means acquiring the training to become a computer repairman or laboratory technician, a much harder task than getting a factory job in the 1950s and 1960s.

It is not possible to legislate the level of skill bias in technological change and trade. That is why the equalization institutions which we call the welfare state in broader sense are important in this society.

As John Gray clearly put it, market institutions will not be politically stable — at any rate when they are combined with democratic institutions — if they do not accord with widespread conceptions of fairness, if they violate other important cultural norms, or if they have too destructive an effect on established expectations.

Therefore, there is need to maintain that there is an ever-increasing need for the welfare state in today’s society.

Notes

1）Wilensky（1975）p.1.

2）Notable examples are Mishra（1990）, Ritter（1991）, and Offe（1984）.

３）A leading work is Hayashi（1992）.

4）Schwartz（2001）pp.18-18. pp.31-36.

5）Keynes（1931）p.313.

6）Myrdal（1960）p.34.

7）Lowi（1979）pp.34-35.

8）Gordon（2003）pp.229-230.

9）Gordon（2003）pp.234-235, Saito（1989）pp.178-179, 193-196.

10）Gordon（2003）p.235.

11) Calder（1986）p.251. Descriptions of this section depend on Calder（1986）pp.250-273.

12) Subsidies were used as the vehicle to achieve these conservative orders because they forced dependence by recipients on central government and strengthened the intermediate organizations-agricultural cooperatives and conservative local governments-through which these subsidies were administered. Imamura（1978）explains how subsidies were circulated through the intermediate organizations.

13) Calder（1986）p.257.

14) Calder（1986）p.266.

15) OECD（1978）pp.14-15.

16) Garon and Mochizuki（1993）p.150. The descriptions in this section are based on Garon andMochizuki（1993）pp.145-155 and Calder（1986）pp.312-348.

17) Garon and Mochizuki（1993）pp.150-151.

18) Calder（1986）pp.339-341.

19) Garon and Mochizuki（1993）pp.152-153.

20) Calder（1986）p.360. Descriptions of this section depend on Yokoyama（1985）pp.3-48 andCalder（1986）pp.349-375.

21) Calder（1986）p.364.

22) Takekawa（2005）insists that 1973 was the point of departure for Japanese welfare state. I disagree with him. I think that the promulgation of a postwar constitution in November 1946 marked the beginning of the Japanese welfare state.

23) Calder（1986）p.372.

24) Calder（1986）pp.270-272.

25) Calder（1986）pp.347-348.

26) Pempel（1998）p.189.

27）Pempel（1998）pp.148, 190.

28）Levy（1998）pp.3-4.

29）Gray（1995）p.102

QUESTION 4

4. **Identify four (4) types of Assets in Organizations**.

Assets are persons or things that can produce value. People can be assets because of the value they bring to a relationship or organization. Things which are assets have value for the owner because they can be converted into cash. Cash on hand is also considered an asset.

Tangible Assets

Tangible assets are those that can be touched. Examples include:

- Buildings
- Cash on deposit
- Cash on hand
- Certificates of deposit or CDs
- Commercial paper
- Corporate bonds
- Corporate stock
- Debentures held
- Equipment
- Federal agency securities
- Federal treasury notes
- Guaranteed investment accounts
- Inventory
- Land
- Loans to members of insurance trusts systems
- Loans receivables
- Marketable equity securities
- Marketable securities
- Money market funds
- Mortgages (receivable) held directly
- Mutual funds
- Notes receivables
- Repurchase agreements
- "Restricted" cash and investments
- Savings accounts
- Share of funds in governmental investment accounts or pools
- State and local government securities
- Time deposits

- Warrants (to purchase securities)

Intangible Assets
Intangible assets are non-physical, meaning they cannot be touched. They have value because they represent an advantage to a business or organization.
Examples include:

- Accounts receivable
- Blueprints
- Bonds
- Brand names
- Brand recognition
- Broadcast licenses
- Buy-sell agreements
- Chemical formulas
- Computer programs
- Computerized databases
- Contracts
- Cooperative agreements
- Copyrights
- Customer relationships
- Designs & drawings
- Distribution rights
- Development rights
- Distribution networks
- Domain names
- Drilling rights
- Easements
- Engineering drawings
- Environmental rights
- FCC licenses
- Film libraries
- Food flavorings & recipes
- Franchise agreements
- Goodwill
- Historical documents
- Joint ventures

- Laboratory notebooks
- Landing rights
- Licenses
- Loan portfolios
- Location value
- Management contracts
- Manual databases
- Manuscripts
- Medical charts and records
- Methodologies
- Mineral rights
- Musical compositions
- Natural resources
- Patents
- Permits
- Procedural manuals
- Product designs
- Property use rights
- Proprietary technology
- Royalty agreements
- Schematics & diagrams
- Securities portfolios
- Security interests
- Shareholder agreements
- Solicitation rights
- Supplier contracts
- Technology sharing agreements
- Title plants
- Trademarks
- Trade secrets
- Trained & assembled workforce
- Training manuals
- Use rights - air, water, land

Personal Assets
Personal assets might be tangible or intangible. They can be assets owned by the person or assets related to the person's personal characteristics.

Examples of owned personal assets include:
- Artwork
- Automobile
- Checking account
- Collectibles Electronics Insurance
- Jewelry
- Investment accounts
- Retirement account
- Savings account

Examples of personal characteristic assets include:
- Great smile
- Ability to get along with many different personalities
- Positive attitude
- Sense of humor
- Great communicator
- Excellent public speaker

Corporate Assets

Corporations have long lists of assets including companies and brand names which are owned by the corporation.
Here are some examples of the assets of Disney:
- ABC Entertainment Group Animation
- Disney-ABC Television Group Disney Channels Worldwide Disney Consumer Products Disney Cruise Line
- Disney Interactive Studios Disney Music Group
- Disney Online
- Disney Publishing Worldwide
- Disney Theatrical Group
- Disney Vacation Club
- Disneyland Paris
- Disneyland Resort
- ESPN, Inc.
- Hong Kong International Theme Parks Lucasfilm
- Marvel Entertainment

- Walt Disney World Resort

Here are some examples of the assets of PepsiCo:

- Aquafina
- Aunt Jemima Mixes & Syrups
- Baked! Cheetos Snacks
- Baked! Doritos Tortilla Chips
- Baked! Lay's Potato Crisps
- Baked! Ruffles Potato Chips
- Baked! Tostitos Tortilla Chips
- Cap'n Crunch Cereal
- Chester's Popcorn
- Cracker Jack Candy Coated Popcorn
- Doritos Tortilla Chips
- Frito-Lay Nuts & Seeds
- Fritos Corn Chips
- Funyuns Onion Flavored Rings
- Gatorade G Series
- Prime 01
- Grandma's Cookies
- Lay's Potato Chips
- Lipton Brisk Sweet Tea
- Mountain Dew Livewire
- Pepsi
- Propel Zero
- Quaker Chewy Granola Bars
- Quaker Life Cereal
- Quaker Instant Oatmeal Rice-A-Roni Side Dishes
- Rockstar Energy
- Rold Gold Pretzels
- Ruffles Potato Chips
- Sabra Hummus
- Seattle's Best Coffee
- SoBe Lifewater
- Starbucks Frappuccino
- SunChips Multigrain
- Snacks Tostito's
- Tortilla Chips

Here are some examples of the assets of Time Warner:

- HBO
- Cartoon Network
- Cinemax
- CNNMoney.com
- CNN News Group
- Coastal Living
- Cooking Light
- DC Comics
- Entertainment Weekly
- Essence
- Fortune
- Golf (magazine)
- Health
- Mad Magazine
- People
- Southern Living
- Sports Illustrated
- Sunset
- TBS
- TNT
- TCM

Assets, whether they are business or personal assets, add value to a person or an organization.

QUESTION 5

5. Explain Human resource in Organizations.

Human resources is used to describe both the people who work for a company or organization and the department responsible for managing resources related to employees. The term *human resources* were first coined in the 1960s when the value of labor relations began to garner attention and when notions such as motivation, organizational behavior, and selection assessments began to take shape.

Human resource management is a contemporary, umbrella term used to describe the management and development of employees in an organization. Also called personnel or talent management (although these terms are a bit antiquated), human resource management involves overseeing all things related to managing an organization's human capital.

Human resource management is therefore focused on a number of major areas, including:

- Recruiting and staffing
- Compensation and benefits
- Training and learning
- Labor and employee relations
- Organization development

Due to the many areas of human resource management, it is typical for professionals in this field to possess specific expertise in one or more areas. Just a few of the related career titles for HR professionals include:

- Training development specialist
- HR manager
- Benefits specialist
- Human resource generalist

- Employment services manager
- Compensation and job analysis specialist
- Training and development manager
- Recruiter
- Benefits counselor
- Personnel analyst

A Closer Look at Human Resource Management

Human resource management involves developing and administering programs that are designed to increase the effectiveness of an organization or business. It includes the entire spectrum of creating, managing, and cultivating the employer-employee relationship.

For most organizations, agencies, and businesses, the human resources department is responsible for:

- Managing job recruitment, selection, and promotion
- Developing and overseeing employee benefits and wellness programs
- Developing, promoting, and enforcing personnel policies
- Promoting employee career development and job training
- Providing orientation programs for new hires
- Providing guidance regarding disciplinary actions
- Serving as a primary contact for work-site injuries or accidents

Human resource management is about:

Addressing current employee concerns: Unlike company managers who oversee the day-to-day work of employees, HR departments deal with employee concerns such as benefits, pay, employee investments, pension plans, and training. Their work may also include settling conflicts between employees or between employees and their managers.

Acquiring new employees: The human resource management team recruits potential employees, oversees the hiring process (background checks, drug testing, etc.), and provides new employee orientation.

Managing the employee separation process: The HR management team must complete a specific set of tasks if an employee quits, is fired, or is laid off. Paperwork must be completed to ensure that the process was completed legally. Severance pay may be offered or negotiated, benefits must be settled, and access to company resources must be severed via the collection of keys, badges, computers, or sensitive materials from the employee.

Improving morale: Effective HR teams encourage company employees to do their best, which contributes to the overall success of the company. Their work often involves rewarding employees for good performance and creating a positive work environment.

The Changing Shape of Human Resource Management

Human resource management involves both strategic and comprehensive approaches to managing people, as well as workplace culture and environment.

The role of human resources professionals is to ensure that a company's most important asset—its human capital—is being nurtured and supported through the creation and management of programs, policies, and procedures, and by fostering a positive work environment through effective employee-employer relations.

The concept behind human resource management is that employees who are subject to effective human resource management are able to more effectively and productively contribute to a company's overall direction, thereby ensuring that company goals and objectives are accomplished.

Today's human resource management team is responsible for much more than traditional personnel or administrative tasks. Instead, members of a human resource management team are more focused on adding value to the strategic utilization of employees and ensuring that employee programs are impacting the business in positive and measurable ways.

An August 2014 Forbes article explored the shifting goal of today's human resource management teams. More specifically, the article found that HR teams focused on things that don't add true value to the organization are often deemed reactive, uncreative, and lacking basic business understanding. On the other hand, HR professionals who want to be recognized as true business partners must see themselves as business people who specialize in HR, not as HR people who advise a business.

Todays' human resources manager's/business partners must understand the workings of the business and be able to comfortably speak the language of business leaders in order to have a measured and proven impact on business objectives.

The Agenda of Today's Human Resource Management Team

Today's HR management team must focus their efforts on five, critical areas, according to the Forbes article:

Define and align organizational purpose: A company's employees must be able to clearly articulate why the company exists in order to achieve a purpose-driven, sustainable, high-performing organization. Employees must also understand how their efforts connect, or align, with the organization's purpose.

Recruit the best talent by creating, marketing, and selling an Employee Value Proposition (EVP): False marketing and misconceptions about an organization are some of the main reasons why the employer-employee relationship fails. Therefore, companies must create, market, and sell an EVP that is true and accurate as to not mislead potential employees.

Focus on employee strengths: Companies must make every effort to understand what candidates and employees do best and put them into roles where they can play to their strengths as much as possible.

Create organizational alignment: Achievements must align with the organization's objectives so as to build a successful and sustainable organization.

Accurately measure the same things: All internal departments and employees must be measuring the same things as to achieve a definitive organizational result and to ensure that everyone knows exactly where the organization is at all times.

QUESTION 6

6. **Is there any relationship between Human resource and Operating Managers in organizations?**

Operations management is an area of management concerned with designing and controlling the process of production and redesigning business operations in the production of goods or services.[1] It involves the responsibility of ensuring that business operations are efficient in terms of using as few resources as needed and effective in terms of meeting customer requirements. It is concerned with managing an entire production system which is the process that converts inputs (in the forms of raw materials, labor, and energy) into outputs (in the form of goods and/or services), as an asset or delivers a product or services. Operations produce products, manage quality and creates service. Operation management covers sectors like banking systems, hospitals, companies, working with suppliers, customers, and using technology. Operations is one of the major functions in an organization along with supply chains, marketing, finance and human resources. The operations function requires management of both the strategic and day-to-day production of goods and services

It also refers to a branch that deals with managing **operations** and processes within the organization. Efficacious **management of operations** ensures successful delivery of the project. The **operation managers** optimize the **operations** by making judicious use of resources and capital. They manage all the aspects related to the operations that take place in businesses. **Operation managers** are not only found in a company but also in manufacturing units. In managing manufacturing or service operations several types of decisions are made including operations strategy, product design, process design, quality management, capacity, facilities planning, production planning and inventory control. Each of these requires an ability to analyze the current situation and find better solutions to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of manufacturing or service operations

They are required to perform various functions as a part of their job responsibilities. Some of the key functions of an **Operations Manager** includes:

1. **Finance**

Finance plays a chief role in **operations management**. It is essential to ensure that the organization’s finance has been utilized properly to carry out major functions such as the creation of goods or services so that the customer’s needs could be satisfied.

2. **Operation**

This function in **operation management** is mainly concerned with planning, organizing, directing and controlling all the activities of an organization which helps in converting the raw materials and human efforts into valuable goods and services for satisfying customer needs.

3. **Strategy**

Strategy in **operation management** refers to planning tactics that could help them to optimize the resources and have a competitive edge over others. Business strategies imply to supply chain configuration, sales, capacity to hold money, optimum utilization of human resources and many more.

4. **Design of the product**

Incorporating innovative technologies play a crucial role in the selling of a product. Thus it is the duty of **operations manager** to ensure that the product is designed catering to the market trends and needs of the customers. The modern-day customers are more concerned about the quality of the product than its quantity. So, the **operation managers** focus on producing top-notch quality products.

5. **Forecasting**

Forecasting refers to the process of making an estimation regarding certain events that might occur in the future. In **operation management**, forecasting refers to the estimation of customer's demand so that production can be done accordingly. Through this, the manager gets to know what to produce, when to produce and how to produce in accordance with the customer's needs.

6. **Supply Chain Configuration**

The main motive of Supply Chain Configuration is to ensure effective management, monitoring and controlling of all the main activities that are held in a firm. The supply chain configuration starts from the supply of the raw materials and continues till the production of the final product and then their selling to the customers which will satisfy their needs and wants.

7. Managing the Quality

Quality management plays an imperative role in selling a product. The **operation managers** allocate the task of quality management to a team and then supervise their task. The managers identify project defects and rectify them to ensure quality. For this, certain systems are used that measure and maintain the quality of the product.

Human resources is used to describe both the people who work for a company or organization and the department responsible for managing resources related to employees. The term *human resources* were first coined in the 1960s when the value of labor relations began to gain attention and when notions such as motivation, organizational behavior, and selection assessments began to take shape.

Human resource management is a contemporary, umbrella term used to describe the management and development of employees in an organization. Also called personnel or talent management (although these terms are a bit antiquated), human resource management involves overseeing all things related to managing an organization's human capital.

There is a relationship between Human resource and Operating Managers in organizations in such a way that, most of the time operating managers tent to work very closely with Human resources department or Human Resource Managers. Working together or hand in hand in an organization often create Conflict between operations departments and human resources departments which is nothing new. Line managers have and will always disagree with human resources staff on one issue or another. For example, conflict often arises regarding what operations managers, often called line management, are responsible for and what is the primary role of human resources staff. Regardless of what causes conflict between HR and line management, the company's business model should delineate responsibilities and duties for their respective areas.

Operations Versus HR Responsibilities

Conflict between operations and human resources often is based on division of responsibilities and line of authority. In companies where the human resources staff provides consultancy to line managers, the business model gives operations managers more control of their employees and greater latitude concerning workforce planning and staffing issues. However, this type of model can result in conflict or catastrophe if line managers aren't fully aware of human resources processes or if they have more authority regarding staffing matters than they should. The level of authority given line managers concerning human resources matters should depend on if they have a firm grasp of fair employment practices and whether they have well-developed leadership skills.

Workplace Policies

Human resources staff insist on consistent application of workplace policies. Therefore, line managers who deviate from enforcing workplace policies throughout their departments may find human resources staff at odds with them. For example, line managers may sometimes ignore employee absenteeism or tardiness based on whether the employee is performing well in other areas of her job. However, employee absenteeism and a failure to enforce workplace policies that reduce absenteeism impact other employees and affect the company's ability to maintain accurate records. Employees who witness supervisors overlooking or even ignoring absenteeism for certain coworkers and not all employees in the same department eventually may exhibit signs of low morale and poor motivation. Low employee morale and poor motivation then become problems for HR to resolve, forming a basis for conflict between HR and line management.

Performance Management

Performance management is the company's measuring tool for assessing employee strengths, weaknesses, training and development needs, and determining employee compensation. Aside from employee termination, conducting performance appraisals is one of the least favorite tasks for line management. Operations managers have several issues when it comes to performance management systems. Problems arise from a lack of preparation for employee appraisals to a failure to provide employees with regular, honest and candid feedback that can improve employee performance. The time human resources spend constructing a performance management system seems like time lost when line managers don't use the system and the result is conflict between operations and human resources.

HR's Responsibility

The source of conflict between operations and human resources doesn't just rest on the shoulders of line management, however. Many human resources practitioners take their roles seriously when it comes to enforcing workplace policies, managing staffing models and providing advice to line management -- maybe too seriously when they take control of department functions that are the responsibility of the line manager. One solution to this conflict involves training line managers on how to perform employment-related tasks and to learn more about how to perform human resources functions, such as interviewing candidates and making wise hiring decisions. This allows human resources staff to focus more on HR strategic management and less on the transactional and functional tasks the company can assign to line managers.

Conclusion

For some incidents of workplace conflict, training and development are key factors in resolving issues between departments and their managers. The conflict that often occurs between human resources staff and line management may not be easy to resolve by simply holding professional development workshops, however. It's critical to create a business model that considers the organization's products, services, structure and the expertise of both human resources and operations managers. The business model should focus on organizational strategy and goals, and then clearly lay out the roles and expectations of human resources versus operations.

QUESTION 7

7. **List the roles and purpose of Human resource in organizations.**

Human resources managers oversee the most important component of a successful business — a productive, thriving workforce. The role of human resource management in organizations is to organize people so that they can effectively perform work activities. This requires viewing people as human assets, not costs to the organization. Looking at people as assets is part of contemporary human resource management and human capital management.

Role of Human Resource Management

The human resources management team suggests to the management team how to strategically manage people as business resources. This includes managing recruiting and hiring employees, coordinating employee benefits and suggesting employee training and development strategies. In this way, HR professionals are consultants, not workers in an isolated business function; they advise managers on many issues related to employees and how they help the organization achieve its goals.

Working Together

At all levels of the organization, managers and HR professionals work together to develop employees' skills. For example, HR professionals advise managers and supervisors how to assign employees to different roles in the organization, thereby helping the organization adapt successfully to its environment. In a flexible organization, employees are shifted around to different business functions based on business priorities and employee preferences.

Commitment Building

HR professionals also suggest strategies for increasing employee commitment to the organization. This begins with using the recruiting process or matching employees with the right positions according to their qualifications. Once hired, employees must be committed to their jobs and feel challenged throughout the year by their manager.

Building Capacity

An HRM team helps a business develop a competitive advantage, which involves building the capacity of the company so it can offer a unique set of goods or services to its customers. To build an effective human resources, private companies compete with each other in a "war for talent." It's not just about hiring talent; this game is about keeping people and helping them grow and stay committed over the long term.

Addressing Issues

Human resource management requires strategic planning to address not only the changing needs of an employer but also a constantly shifting competitive job market. Employee benefit packages must be continually assessed for costs to the employer. Tweaking the packages also provides an opportunity to increase employee retention through the addition of vacation days, flexible working arrangements or retirement plan enhancements. For example, in recent years many human resource professionals have oversaw the addition of preventative health components to traditional health plans for both employment recruitment and retention efforts

The role of human resources professionals is to ensure that a company's most important asset—its human capital—is being nurtured and supported through the creation and management of programs, policies, and procedures, and by fostering a positive work environment through effective employee-employer relations.

The concept behind human resource management is that employees who are subject to effective human resource management are able to more effectively and productively contribute to a company's overall direction, thereby ensuring that company goals and objectives are accomplished.

Today's human resource management team is responsible for much more than traditional personnel or administrative tasks. Instead, members of a human resource management team are more focused on adding value to the strategic utilization of employees and ensuring that employee programs are impacting the business in positive and measurable ways.

An August 2014 *Forbes* article explored the shifting goal of today's human resource management teams. More specifically, the article found that HR teams focused on things that don't add true value to the organization are often deemed reactive, uncreative, and lacking basic business understanding. On the other hand, HR professionals who want to be recognized as true business partners must see themselves as business people who specialize in HR, not as HR people who advise a business.

Todays' human resources manager's/business partners must understand the workings of the business and be able to comfortably speak the language of business leaders in order to have a measured and proven impact on business objectives.

Other HR Roles

Today's HR management team must focus their efforts on five, critical areas, according to the *Forbes* article:

Define and align organizational purpose: A company's employees must be able to clearly articulate why the company exists in order to achieve a purpose-driven, sustainable, high-performing organization. Employees must also understand how their efforts connect, or align, with the organization's purpose.

Recruit the best talent by creating, marketing, and selling an Employee Value Proposition (EVP): False marketing and misconceptions about an organization are some of the main reasons why the employer-employee relationship fails. Therefore, companies must create, market, and sell an EVP that is true and accurate as to not mislead potential employees.

***Focus on employee strengths*:** Companies must make every effort to understand what candidates and employees do best and put them into roles where they can play to their strengths as much as possible.

***Create organizational alignment*:** Achievements must align with the organization's objectives so as to build a successful and sustainable organization.

***Accurately measure the same things*:** All internal departments and employees must be measuring the same things as to achieve a definitive organizational result and to ensure that everyone knows exactly where the organization is at all times.

QUESTION 8

8. **Discuss the evolution of personal management**
   The evolution of personnel management: A CASE STUDY OF INDIA

Evolution and Development of Personnel Management in India!

The personnel management function in India has been a product of various factors. Labour legislation has been considered as one of the important factors contributing to the growth and development of personnel management function in India.

In 1929, Royal commission of Labour was set up. In 1931, the Commission recommended the appointment of labour officers in order to protect the workers from the evils of jobbery and indebtedness, to act as spokesmen of labour and to promote an amicable settlement between the workers and management.

Royal Commission pointed out that "no employee should be engaged except by the Labour Officer personally in consultation with the departmental head and none should be dismissed without the consent except by the manager after hearing what the labour officer has to say".

The qualities needed for Labour Officers were "integrity personality, energy, the gift of understanding individuals and linguistic faculty", consequent upon the recommendations of the Royal commission, the Bombay Mill Owners Association, Indian Jute Mills Association have appointed Labour Officers on their own, and who were required attempt to settle grievances and disputes arising between workers and management.

After achieving Independence in 1947, the Factories Act of 1948 has come into force in India. The Factories Act has set the provisions and rules for the appointment, duties, and qualifications of new statutory officers called 'welfare officers'. By 1960s another designation that appeared was 'personnel officers'.

These officers-—labour officers, welfare officers, personnel officers—deal with labour welfare, industrial relations and personnel administration, respectively. All these are different branches of discipline 'personnel and human resource management'.

In the beginning, personnel management was neither given any particular status, attention, or place in the organization system nor did professionals find themselves suitably placed in enterprises. But now, personnel officers are frequently labelled as 'buffer zone" between labour and management and hence are necessary for the existence of the very organization.

Personnel officer is also treated as non-aligned professional, a social worker. He is treated by a variety of titles because of the vast parameters of his job. But surprisingly and unfortunately, these personnel officers have not won a place of pride and are not vested with sufficient authority and responsibility.

Earlier, they used to command less respect and less recognition from blue-collar employees, trade unions, technical and managerial personnel.

The following factors were responsible for the snail-paced growth and development of personnel function in India:

(a) Section 49 of the Factories Act, 1948 has done more harm than good to the personnel function by creating 'welfare officers'. The statutory welfare officers have not won support of line managers.

(b) Industrial relations and trade unions have become mere rituals and too legalistic. Often, a personnel officer is unsafely caught in the web of complex legal provisions and complications. As a consequence, he is preoccupied with legal procedures, legislations and is left with little time to attend to several other important matters or activities in an organization.

(c) The job of personnel management has some notable, inherent weaknesses. For instance, the results of personnel management cannot be measured in absolute terms and this may be frustrating to many personnel managers.

In a sharp contrast, the results production managers can be measured in terms of annual production indices, and the results of a marketing manager can be measured in terms of capturing the market share in the industry, etc.

(d) Personnel manager, by performing the fire-fighting function, is finding himself in the awkward position and occupying the most vulnerable position hence. Sometimes, in the process of heading off union disputes and troubles, a personnel manager may become notorious because any unfavorable decision against employees (though justified) may produce a kind of bad image in the minds of employees about the manager himself.

Thus, the personnel manager becomes the center of controversy in spite of his justified and genuine approach in solving labour-management problems.

(e) Adding fuel to the fire, the personnel manager sometimes becomes victim of the line and staff conflicts. Personnel manager, by virtue of his qualifications and professional knowledge, feels himself superior to the line managers and in this process he may have the tendency of underestimating the potentials of the line managers.

Line managers, on the contrary, overestimate themselves by virtue of their authority they possess and in this process they grossly neglect the valuable advice rendered by the personnel manager.

(f) Personnel managers are, in general, found to be rigid, inflexible and characterized by unchanging attitudes, bereft of behavioral values. As a consequence, they do not possess the zeal to change according to the situational demands. This rigidity made them more notorious in the organisations.

(g) Finally, personnel management has not yet been accorded the totality of acceptance by all concerned because it would be very difficult to appraise the performance of personnel managers. Unlike the professions like engineering and medicine, where the result of any faulty decision or action becomes almost immediately obvious, the result of faculty decisions on the management of human resources is not felt immediately and the responsibility for it can be safely shifted to someone else in some other department.

For instance, if the production supervisor is at fault, the production department is put to blame rather than the personnel manager who was responsible for inducting the wrong man on the wrong job.

Suggestions:

In order that the position of personnel manager must be improved, the following points may be given due weight age:

(I) The present focus on legal aspect must be minimized.

(ii) Personnel managers should be adequately trained before being inducted in large organisations.

(iii) Organisations should be designed in such a fashion that the line-staff conflicts get minimized and their interdependence and mutuality promoted.

(iv) Personnel manager should reorganize his own perception about the job role he performs. He should be innovative rather than rigid. He is not expected to behave like a ‘frog in the well’ rather should be open and be prepared to face challenges boldly.

Thus, at present, the personnel officer in India presents a kaleidoscopic picture of his multi role structure, namely that of:

1. The buffer zone between labour and management.

2. The third force in the industry.

3. The non-aligned professional.

4. The social worker in an industrial setting.

5. The staff advisor in the organization.

QUESTION 9

9. **What are the contradictions in the models?**

In classical logic, a contradiction consists of a logical incompatibility between two or more propositions. It occurs when the propositions, taken together, yield two conclusions which form the logical, usually opposite inversions of each other. Illustrating a general tendency in applied logic, Aristotle's law of non-contradiction states that "One cannot say of something that it is and that it is not in the same respect and at the same time."

History

By creation of a paradox, Plato's Euthydemus dialogue demonstrates the need for the notion of contradiction. In the ensuing dialogue Dionysodorus denies the existence of "contradiction", all the while that Socrates is contradicting him:

> "... I in my astonishment said: What do you mean Dionysodorus? I have often heard, and have been amazed to hear, this thesis of yours, which is maintained and employed by the disciples of Protagoras and others before them, and which to me appears to be quite wonderful, and suicidal as well as destructive, and I think that I am most likely to hear the truth about it from you. The dictum is that there is no such thing as a falsehood; a man must either say what is true or say nothing. Is not that your position?"

Indeed, Dionysodorus agrees that "there is no such thing as false opinion ... there is no such thing as ignorance" and demands of Socrates to "Refute me." Socrates responds "But how can I refute you, if, as you say, to tell a falsehood is impossible?".

In formal logic

Note: The symbol (falsum) represents an arbitrary contradiction, with the dual tee symbol used to denote an arbitrary tautology. Contradiction is sometimes symbolized by "Opq", and tautology by "Vpq". The turnstile symbol, is often read as "yields" or "proves".

In classical logic, particularly in propositional and first-order logic, a proposition is a contradiction if and only if. Since for contradictory it is true that for all (because), one may prove any proposition from a set of axioms which contains contradictions. This is called the "principle of explosion" or "ex falso quodlibet" ("from falsity, whatever you like").

In a complete logic, a formula is contradictory if and only if it is unsatisfiable.

Proof by contradiction

Main article: Proof by contradiction

For a proposition it is true that, I. e. that is a tautology, I. e. that it is always true, if and only if, I. e. if the negation of is a contradiction. Therefore, a proof that also proves that is true. The use of this fact constitutes the technique of the proof by contradiction, which mathematicians use extensively. This applies only in a logic using the excluded middle as an axiom

Symbolic representation

In mathematics, the symbol used to represent a contradiction within a proof varies. [1] Some symbols that may be used to represent a contradiction include ↯, Opq, ⊥, ↮, and ※; in any symbolism, a contradiction may be substituted for the truth value "false", as symbolized, for instance, by "0". It is not uncommon to see Q.E.D. or some variant immediately after a contradiction symbol; this occurs in a proof by contradiction, to indicate that the original assumption was false and that its negation must therefore be true.

The notion of contradiction in an axiomatic system and a proof of its consistency

A consistency proof requires (I) an axiomatic system (ii) a demonstration that it is not the case that both the formula p and its negation ~p can be derived in the system. But by whatever method one goes about it, all consistency proofs would seem to necessitate the primitive notion of contradiction; moreover, it seems as if this notion would simultaneously have to be "outside" the formal system in the definition of tautology.

When Emil Post, in his 1921 Introduction to a general theory of elementary propositions, extended his proof of the consistency of the propositional calculus (i.e. the logic) beyond that of Principia Mathematica (PM) he observed that with respect to a generalized set of postulates (i.e. axioms) he would no longer be able to automatically invoke the notion of "contradiction" – such a notion might not be contained in the postulates:

"The prime requisite of a set of postulates is that it be consistent. Since the ordinary notion of consistency involves that of contradiction, which again involves negation, and since this function does not appear in general as a primitive in [the generalized set of postulates] a new definition must be given"

Post's solution to the problem is described in the demonstration an Example of a Successful Absolute Proof of Consistency offered by Ernest Nagel and James R. Newman in their 1958 Gödel's Proof. They too observe a problem with respect to the notion of "contradiction" with its usual "truth values" of "truth" and "falsity". They observe that:

"The property of being a tautology has been defined in notions of truth and falsity. Yet these notions obviously involve a reference to something outside the formula calculus. Therefore, the procedure mentioned in the text in effect offers an interpretation of the calculus, by supplying a model for the system. This being so, the authors have not done what they promised, namely, 'to define a property of formulas in terms of purely structural features of the formulas themselves'. [Indeed] ... proofs of consistency

> "The property of being a tautology has been defined in notions of truth and falsity. Yet these notions obviously involve a reference to something outside the formula calculus. Therefore, the procedure mentioned in the text in effect offers an interpretation of the calculus, by supplying a model for the system. This being so, the authors have not done what they promised, namely, 'to define a property of formulas in terms of purely structural features of the formulas themselves'. [Indeed] ... proofs of consistency which are based on models, and which argue from the truth of axioms to their consistency, merely shift the problem."

Given some "primitive formulas" such as PM's primitives S1 V S2 [inclusive or], ~S (negation) one is forced to define the axioms in terms of these primitive notions. In a thorough manner Post demonstrates in PM, and defines (as do Nagel and Newman, see below), that the property of autologous – as yet to be defined – is "inherited": if one begins with a set of autologous axioms (postulates) and a deduction system that contains substitution and modus ponens then a consistent system will yield only autologous formulas.

So what will be the definition of autologous?

Nagel and Newman create two mutually exclusive and exhaustive classes K1 and K2 into which fall (the outcome of) the axioms when their variables e.g. S1 and S2 are assigned from these classes. This also applies to the primitive formulas. For example: "A formula having the form S1 V S2 is placed into class K2 if both S1 and S2 are in K2; otherwise it is placed in K1", and "A formula having the form ~S is placed in K2, if S is in K1; otherwise it is placed in K1".

Nagel and Newman can now define the notion of autologous: "a formula is a tautology if, and only if, it falls in the class K1 no matter in which of the two classes its elements are placed".

Now the property of "being autologous" is described without reference to a model or an interpretation.

For example, given a formula such as ~S1 V S2 and an assignment of K1 to S1 and K2 to S2 one can evaluate the formula and place its outcome in one or the other of the classes. The assignment of K1 to S1 places ~S1 in K2, and now we can see that our assignment causes the formula to fall into class K2. Thus by definition our formula is not a tautology.

Post observed that, if the system were inconsistent, a deduction in it (that is, the last formula in a sequence of formulas derived from the tautologies) could ultimately yield S itself. As an assignment to variable S can come from either class K1 or K2, the deduction violates the inheritance characteristic of tautology, i.e. the derivation must yield an (evaluation of a formula) that will fall into class K1. From this, Post was able to derive the following definition of inconsistency without the use of the notion of contradiction:

Definition. A system will be said to be inconsistent if it yields the assertion of the unmodified variable p [S in the Newman and Nagel examples].

In other words, the notion of "contradiction" can be dispensed when constructing a proof of consistency; what replaces it is the notion of "mutually exclusive and exhaustive" classes. An axiomatic system need not include the notion of "contradiction”. [citation needed]

Philosophy

Adherents of the epistemological theory of coherentism typically claim that as a necessary condition of the justification of a belief, that belief must form a part of a logically non-contradictory system of beliefs. Some dial theists, including Graham Priest, have argued that coherence may not require consistency.

Pragmatic contradictions

A pragmatic contradiction occurs when the very statement of the argument contradicts the claims it purports. An inconsistency arises, in this case, because the act of utterance, rather than the content of what is said, undermines its conclusion.

Dialectical materialism

In dialectical materialism: Contradiction—as derived from Hegelianism—usually refers to an opposition inherently existing within one realm, one unified force or object. This contradiction, as opposed to metaphysical thinking, is not an objectively impossible thing, because these contradicting forces exist in objective reality, not cancelling each other out, but actually defining each other's existence. According to Marxist theory, such a contradiction can be found, for example, in the fact that:

(a) enormous wealth and productive powers coexist alongside:

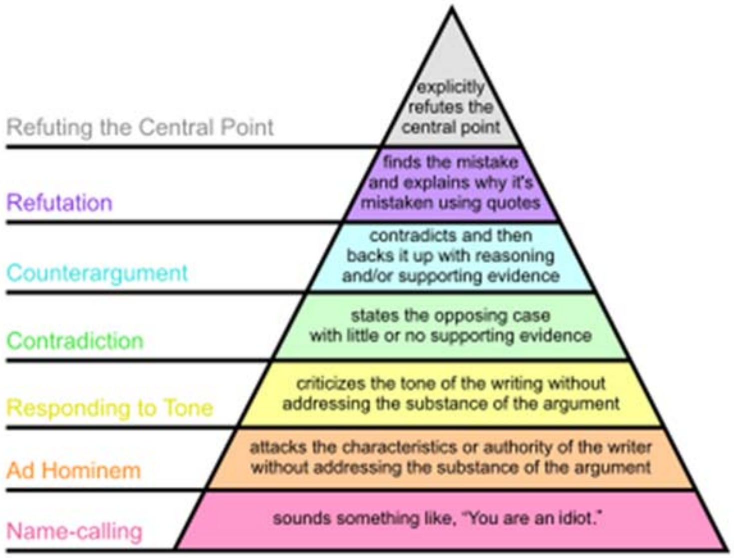
(b) extreme poverty and misery;

(c) the existence of (a) being contrary to the existence of (b).

Hegelian and Marxist theory stipulates that the dialectic nature of history will lead to the sublation, or synthesis, of its contradictions. Marx therefore postulated that history would logically make capitalism evolve into a socialist society where the means of production would equally serve the exploited and suffering class of society, thus resolving the prior contradiction between (a) and (b).

Mao Zedong's philosophical essay On Contradiction (1937) furthered Marx and Lenin's thesis and suggested that all existence is the result of contradiction.

Outside formal logic



Contradiction on Graham's Hierarchy of Disagreement

Colloquial usage can label actions or statements as contradicting each other when due (or perceived as due) to presuppositions which are contradictory in the logical sense.

Proof by contradiction is used in mathematics to construct proofs.

The scientific method uses contradiction to falsify bad theory.

QUESTION 10

10. **Enumerate Human resource management activities in organizations**.

Human resources (HR) management is a key partner in achieving your business goals. While your HR department doesn't need to be large, it needs to be capable of managing the major categories of human resources. These include recruiting and developing talent, maintaining the health and safety of employees at work, and the record keeping of employee data and benefits. The department also oversees any legal actions brought against the company regarding employee management.

Recruiting and Developing Talent

Hiring, training and firing employees is one of the first things you think about when you hear the term "HR Management." The HR department is the place where people send resumes, have initial interviews and are on boarded as new employees. It provides employees with initial training, establishing payroll accounts and collecting the required information in the event of an emergency at the office. It also conducts exit interviews.

Additionally, the HR department develops existing talent. Utilize the HR department to establish team building training that helps excite your team and build better working relationships. Diversity training and other required privacy or money handling policies should be also created and run by HR departments. A very dynamic HR manager can also help facilitate educational programs helping existing employees develop better computer, communication or customer service skills.

Health and Safety of Employees

The US Department of Labor oversees the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) that sets the minimum rules and regulations for employee safety in the workplace. HR managers must be well versed in the requirements of OSHA including the proper posting of OSHA posters, rules for reporting and protections for whistle blowers.

The HR manager needs to review the practices and protocol of operations where necessary and advice leadership of infractions or potential hazards. Employees have a right to work in safe environments and must have an open door to HR management to discuss any conditions creating concern by the workforce.

Employee Record Keeping

When a new hire is brought into the company, a file is started in the HR department. This file initially contains the resume, application, and other intake information used in the interview process. It then adds financial data for payroll and benefits. The file continues to grow over time.

Whenever an employee review is conducted, a copy of the review and any action plan is put into the file. If any complaints are made by or against the employee, these are noted in the file with any copy of written correspondence of the complaint. If any disciplinary action is taken against the employee, this is also noted.

Regulatory Compliance and Legal Management

The employee file maintained by HR departments is the foundation of any legal protection the company has against lawsuits. If an employee is fired for discriminatory or harassing behavior, he may retaliate with a lawsuit for wrongful termination. If his file has not clearly documented what the details of the complaint(s) along with the investigation findings and disciplinary actions, the employee might have a strong case. If the situation was well-documented and the HR department did its job, the file should have evidence of the history of the accusations.

The HR file also maintains regulatory compliance such as employee training on privacy and security or anti-money laundering laws. It tracks employee licensing where pertinent and ensures that employees remain on track for continuing education requirements. For example, the HR manager in an insurance agency could send a notice to a licensed employee regarding his two-year renewal and any missing continuing education requirements outstanding.

Addressing current employee concerns: Unlike company managers who oversee the day-to-day work of employees, HR departments deal with employee concerns such as benefits, pay, employee investments, pension plans, and training. Their work may also include settling conflicts between employees or between employees and their managers.

Acquiring new employees: The human resource management team recruits potential employees, oversees the hiring process (background checks, drug testing, etc.), and provides new employee orientation.

Managing the employee separation process: The HR management team must complete a specific set of tasks if an employee quits, is fired, or is laid off. Paperwork must be completed to ensure that the process was completed legally. Severance pay may be offered or negotiated, benefits must be settled, and access to company resources must be severed via the collection of keys, badges, computers, or sensitive materials from the employee.

Improving morale: Effective HR teams encourage company employees to do their best, which contributes to the overall success of the company. Their work often involves rewarding employees for good performance and creating a positive work environment.

Working Together

At all levels of the organization, managers and HR professionals work together to develop employees' skills. For example, HR professionals advise managers and supervisors how to assign employees to different roles in the organization, thereby helping the organization adapt successfully to its environment. In a flexible organization, employees are shifted around to different business functions based on business priorities and employee preferences.

Commitment Building

HR professionals also suggest strategies for increasing employee commitment to the organization. This begins with using the recruiting process or matching employees with the right positions according to their qualifications. Once hired, employees must be committed to their jobs and feel challenged throughout the year by their manager.

Building Capacity

An HRM team helps a business develop a competitive advantage, which involves building the capacity of the company so it can offer a unique set of goods or services to its customers. To build an effective human resources, private companies compete with each other in a "war for talent." It's not just about hiring talent; this game is about keeping people and helping them grow and stay committed over the long term.

Addressing Issues

Human resource management requires strategic planning to address not only the changing needs of an employer but also a constantly shifting competitive job market. Employee benefit packages must be continually assessed for costs to the employer. Tweaking the packages also provides an opportunity to increase employee retention through the addition of vacation days, flexible working arrangements or retirement plan enhancements. For example, in recent years many human resource professionals have oversaw the addition of preventative health components to traditional health plans for both employment recruitment and retention efforts

QUESTION 11

11. **List the barriers that may hinder high performances in organizations.**

Mike Beer, a Professor of Business Administration at the Harvard Business School, has identified six 'silent barriers' that cause teams to under-perform.

People working within the organization recognize these barriers, but they cannot be tackled because they result from issues that senior management prefers to ignore.

These silent barriers are:

1. Unclear strategy and values, and conflicting priorities

2. An ineffective senior team

3. Leadership style is too top-down or too laissez faire

4. Poor horizontal coordination and communications

5. Inadequate leadership, management skills and development in the organization

6. Poor or closed vertical communications

Beer says,

'In organizations that exhibit these barriers, you see that the leadership team members are coming with their own agenda, and there is no effective senior team in place that is committed to the same strategy, priorities and values. The lower levels don't know what the top is trying to do and upper levels don't know what they want done. And there is silence; the lower level teams can't speak honestly with the top about what the problems are that block their efficacy-clear and common priorities and strategy or their pattern of management.'

Beer's conclusions are based on the work he and his colleagues have completed with several organizations, using a method called the Strategic Fitness Process, which utilizes organizations' employees as 'researchers.' In their work, Beer and his colleagues ask senior management teams to define their strategic direction in a two or three-page statement and to appoint a task force of 8-10 people who will go out and interview 100 employees across all parts of the organization.

Beer believes that solving the problems that these barriers create is the main issue for many managers. The process of reviewing and setting priorities is a continual one, which with careful monitoring shows when and where adjustments need to be made to ensure teams perform well.

Without these changes coming from the top levels organizations that have cross-functional teams will continue to be ineffective and show poor performance. This is especially true for global corporations where the need to coordinate across different business and geographic regions is essential.

Ultimately, senior management should aim to create a culture that allows constructive discussion on difficult issues without the need to find 'someone to blame.' To achieve this, the executive needs to define priorities, ensure the right employees are assigned to the right teams, and ensure that each team knows what is expected of it.

The findings of these research studies illustrate that some team performance problems may originate from cultural factors that you have no control over. Nonetheless, being aware of these issues should help you to understand why a team may be under-performing despite your best efforts.

Key Points

- Mike Beer has identified six 'silent barriers' that cause teams to under-perform.
- These barriers cannot be tackled because they result from issues that senior management prefers to ignore.
- These silent barriers are:

  1. Unclear strategy and values, and conflicting priorities
  2. An ineffective senior team
  3. Leadership style is too top-down or too laissez faire
  4. Poor horizontal coordination and communications
  5. Inadequate leadership, management skills and development in the organization
  6. Poor or closed vertical communications

8 barriers that can prevent your company from achieving success

Looking for higher profits? According to U.S. executive and consultant Neil Smith, your business may be only one change away from sustained success.

Smith likes to tell of a client of his, a medical services company, that saved millions of dollars a year by doing less work. The innovation was simple. Working for major insurance companies, Smith's client conducted two million blood tests a year to weed out new policyholders who had been exposed to the HIV virus. Only a fraction of prospects tested positive, but these tests cost the company $10-million a year.

Then a lab employee came up with a better idea: combine 20 blood samples into one batch, and test that instead of 20 individual samples. This change enabled the company to conduct its tests faster and go deep only on anomalous results, reducing its HIV testing efforts by 90%.

What intrigued Smith most was a similar suggestion had emerged seven years earlier and sunk without a trace. Smith realized that even good companies run into internal barriers that prevent them from being better. He says every company, in every industry, of every size, is sitting on a gold mine of untapped improvements.

In his new book, *How Excellent Companies Avoid Dumb Things*

, Smith leverages his 20 years of leading change-management projects at major U.S. organizations to identify eight "hidden barriers" that prevent companies from achieving greater success:

Avoiding controversy Smith sees this over and over, at all levels of management: hard-driving CEOs shying away from making tough decisions, such as closing down unprofitable business units. "Even the very best managers will have more than a couple of controversial ideas they do not want to act on," he writes. Solution: create a robust change-management initiative that encourages the whole company to welcome change. And attribute unpopular decisions to that process, not to anyone's personal agenda.

Poor use of time There never seems to be time for complex, difficult fixes. "A good change process not only roots out all cases of duplicative or repetitive activities," Smith writes, "but also questions the true value and need of all activities, while measuring their cost."

Reluctance to change Again, you find this in all companies, at all levels. "Managers need to let employees know that change is expected and that it starts at the top," he says. "Culture change is also driven by praising and rewarding people who come up with bright ideas." Consider this mantra: "Just try it."

Organizational silos Promising innovations often founder when they try to cross from one department to another. Silos are made to move information up and down — not across. The priorities of parallel silos are rarely aligned, Smith says. “Silos need to work together.” Encourage information-sharing and co-operation between departments, he says: “Turn towers into tunnels.”

Management blockers Even high-performing managers tend to block new projects when they feel threatened by them. By implementing a company-wide review that encourages employees at all levels to identify problems and gaps in the organization, Smith contends you can create an environment where people feel safer about green-lighting change. (Also watch for ideas you yourself have shot down for personal reasons. Businesses, like fish, rot from the head.)

Incorrect information and bad assumptions The medical lab cited above resisted changing its blood-testing procedures because it thought insurance clients would never go for the idea of blending blood samples. Make sure your decisions are based on facts, research and analysis, not opinion.

Size matters Smith says many companies prolong unprofitable operations because they never do the math to realize that a specific market or order size is just too small to be profitable. “Over-servicing customers is one of the most common problems that occur when size is ignored,” he writes. “Merely getting a company and its employees to consider how size matters is a huge first step.” Make sure employees know there will be no recriminations for past mistakes; change is about moving forward.

Existing processes Fixing processes that no longer work is one of the most common — and hardest — tasks in business. If you want change to last, you need to apply all the right traits to your process: authority, a sense of urgency, a goal and attention from senior management. Once they do that, Smith says, companies often find things working so well that they turn their one-time initiative into a long-term process.

Smith’s book also includes 12 principles for breaking through barriers, the most valuable of which is probably No. 9: “Focus on increasing revenue, not just reducing expenses.” Smith says every consulting assignment yields cases of companies forgoing revenue opportunities. By reducing employees’ eagerness to offer discounts, raising fees for services that are particularly annoying or unprofitable to provide, and pricing specialty products based on what the market will bear, not what’s been charged in the past, Smith says companies can boost revenues and build greater support for change management as a whole.

Top Four Barriers to Workplace Productivity

Carol Deep explains the Top 4 Barriers to workplace productivity,

Barriers to workplace productivity can lower the morale of an entire department or business. If employees face obstacles to performing their jobs or to achieving advancement within the company, they may have trouble completing assignments. In addition, real or perceived barriers may lead to higher turnover rates, resulting in the loss of talented and competent staff members. Although a variety of barriers can exist in a workplace, the top three can affect many situations resulting in decreased productivity.

Multitasking

Multitasking is the act of performing more than one duty at once. With access to technology at work, employees can feel that it's necessary to check e-mail, answer customer calls and send text messages at the same time. Multitasking is a barrier to productivity because it can prohibit an employee from remembering important information and, instead, grasping unnecessary details that distract from satisfactorily performing the job duties. Another barrier caused by multitasking is the amount of stress an employee feels when faced with many uncompleted duties. Stress can result in employee absences and disability claims.

Poor Communication

Without appropriate levels of communication between employees and management and among coworkers themselves, productivity can suffer. A lack of communication due to conflict between staff members can prohibit the completion of certain duties that need the input of a variety of personnel. However, if communication challenges exist with management and employees, the lack of information can breed gossip and conjecture, which takes time away from performing tasks. If a business is experiencing financial hardship or changing its business model to adapt to certain circumstances, management should give employees updates on the status of their job security, when necessary. On the other hand, supervisors who over-communicate with employees can disperse too much information that is not relevant, serving only to worry employees or occupy company time.

Inconsistent Policy Enforcement

If your company applies employee policies inconsistently or doesn't have formal guidelines at all, it can pose a barrier to staff productivity. If employees feel that there is a level of unfairness in the workplace, discontent, low morale and questions of favoritism can arise. In addition, employees in classes protected by state and federal laws pertaining to issues such as race, sex, disability, religion and age may claim discrimination due to unequal treatment. Inconsistent policy enforcement acts as a barrier to productivity by denying employees an opportunity to work in an environment free of suspicion and discontent.

Barrier Removal

One way to remove barriers to workplace productivity is to specify performance expectations for all employees. Upon hiring, new workers should be given a performance plan that describes their most important duties in detail and how they should be completed. This form of communication leaves no doubt about how your staff's productivity will be evaluated and eliminates unintentional inconsistent treatment. In addition, if employees understand which tasks are priorities, they can focus on fulfilling requirements and not attempt to perform several duties at once. If applied consistently, appraisals that accurately reflect an employee's performance based on the job plan can motivate employees to continue to be productive or to improve for their own benefit and that of the company.

QUESTION 12

12. **Discuss the relationships that exist between Strategy & Human resource management.**

Strategy is important because the resources available to achieve these goals are usually limited. Strategy generally involves setting goals, determining actions to achieve the goals, and mobilizing resources to execute the actions. A strategy describes how the ends (goals) will be achieved by the means (resources). Strategy can be intended or can emerge as a pattern of activity as the organization adapts to its environment or competes. It involves activities such as strategic planning and strategic thinking.

Henry Mintzberg from McGill University defined strategy as a pattern in a stream of decisions to contrast with a view of strategy as planning while Henrik von Scheel defines the essence of strategy as the activities to deliver a unique mix of value – choosing to perform activities differently or to perform different activities than rivals. while Max McKeown (2011) argues that "strategy is about shaping the future" and is the human attempt to get to "desirable ends with available means". Dr. Vladimir Kvint defines strategy as "a system of finding, formulating, and developing a doctrine that will ensure long-term success if followed faithfully." Complexity theorists define strategy as the unfolding of the internal and external aspects of the organization that results in actions in a socio-economic context

Components of strategy

Professor Richard P. Rumelt described strategy as a type of problem solving in 2011. He wrote that good strategy has an underlying structure he called a *kernel*. The kernel has three parts: 1) A *diagnosis* that defines or explains the nature of the challenge; 2) A *guiding policy* for dealing with the challenge; and 3) Coherent *actions* designed to carry out the guiding policy.[13] President Kennedy illustrated these three elements of strategy in his Cuban Missile Crisis Address to the Nation of 22 October 1962:

1. Diagnosis: "This Government, as promised, has maintained the closest surveillance of the Soviet military buildup on the island of Cuba. Within the past week, unmistakable evidence has established the fact that a series of offensive missile sites are now in preparation on that imprisoned island. The purpose of these bases can be none other than to provide a nuclear strike capability against the Western Hemisphere."
2. Guiding Policy: "Our unswerving objective, therefore, must be to prevent the use of these missiles against this or any other country, and to secure their withdrawal or elimination from the Western Hemisphere."
3. Action Plans: First among seven numbered steps was the following: "To halt this offensive buildup a strict quarantine on all offensive military equipment under

> shipment to Cuba is being initiated. All ships of any kind bound for Cuba from whatever nation or port will, if found to contain cargoes of offensive weapons, be turned back." [14]

Rumelt wrote in 2011 that three important aspects of strategy include "premeditation, the anticipation of others' behavior, and the purposeful design of coordinated actions." He described strategy as solving a design problem, with trade-offs among various elements that must be arranged, adjusted and coordinated, rather than a plan or choice.[13]

Formulating and implementing strategy

Strategy typically involves two major processes: *formulation* and *implementation*. *Formulation* involves analyzing the environment or situation, making a diagnosis, and developing guiding policies. It includes such activities as strategic planning and strategic thinking. *Implementation* refers to the action plans taken to achieve the goals established by the guiding policy.[6][13]

Bruce Henderson wrote in 1981 that: "Strategy depends upon the ability to foresee future consequences of present initiatives." He wrote that the basic requirements for strategy development include, among other factors:

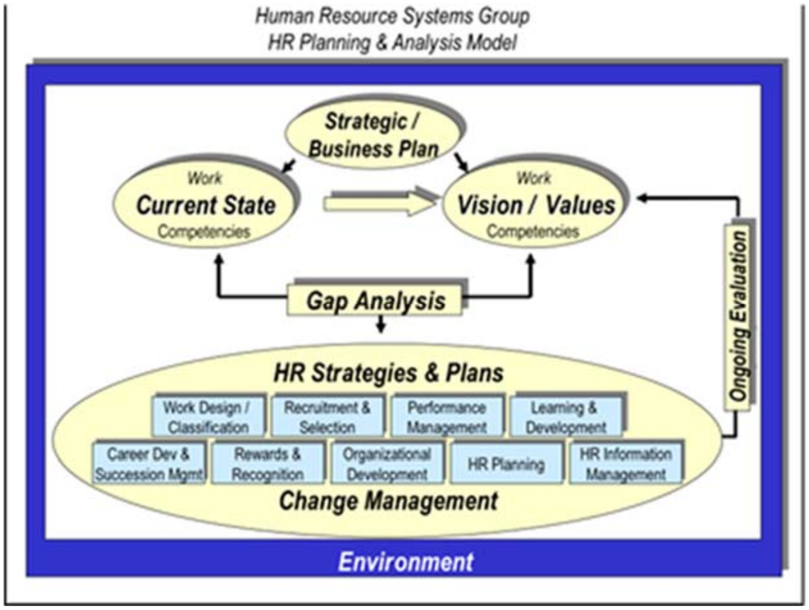
1) extensive knowledge about the environment, market and competitors;

2) ability to examine this knowledge as an interactive dynamic system; and

3) the imagination and logic to choose between specific alternatives. Henderson wrote that strategy was valuable because of: "finite resources, uncertainty about an adversary's capability and intentions; the irreversible commitment of resources; necessity of coordinating action over time and distance; uncertainty about control of the initiative; and the nature of adversaries' mutual perceptions of each other.

Human resource management is a modern approach of managing people at workplace which focuses on acquisition, development, utilization and maintenance of human resource. It combines physical energies and their strengths with human competencies. In simple words, human resource management can be referred as the policy which ensures right quality and quantity of human resource in the organization.

Below are the reasons as to why relationship is said to be existing between strategy and Human resource;



The planning processes of most best practice organizations not only define what will be accomplished within a given time-frame, but also the numbers and types of human resources that will be needed to achieve the defined business goals (e.g., number of human resources; the required competencies; when the resources will be needed; etc.).

Competency-based management supports the integration of human resources planning with business planning by allowing organizations to assess the current human resource capacity based on their competencies against the capacity needed to achieve the vision, mission and business goals of the organization. Targeted human resource strategies, plans and programs to address gaps (e.g., hiring / staffing; learning; career development; succession management; etc.) are then designed, developed and implemented to close the gaps.

These strategies and programs are monitored and evaluated on a regular basis to ensure that they are moving the organizations in the desired direction, including closing employee competency gaps, and corrections are made as needed. This Strategic HR Planning and evaluation cycle is depicted in the diagram below. Human resource planning is the ongoing process of systematic planning to achieve the best use of an organization's most valuable asset – its human resources. The objective of human resource (HR) planning is to ensure the best fit between employees and jobs, while avoiding workforce shortages or spares. The three key elements of the HR planning process are forecasting labour demand, analyzing present labour supply, and balancing projected labour demand and supply.

Implementation Stages

1. Assessing the current HR capacity

- Develop a skills catalog for your employees so that you have a clear understanding of what your staff currently holds. This employee catalog should include everything from volunteer activities to certifications, of all degrees not just topics pertaining to their particular position. These catalogs can be assessed to deem whether or not an employee is ready to add more responsibility, or to forecast the employee's future development plans...

2. Forecasting HR requirements

- This step includes projecting what the HR needs for the future will be based on the strategic goals of the organization. Keep in mind you will need to also accommodate for external challenges that can affect your organization.
- Some questions to ask during this stage include:
  - Which jobs will need to be filled in the upcoming period?
  - What skill sets will people need?
  - How many staff will be required to meet the strategic goals of our organization?
  - Is the economy affecting our work and ability to appeal to new employees?
  - How is our community evolving or expected to change in the upcoming period?

3. Gap analysis

- During this step you will observe where your organization is currently, and where you want to be in the future. You will identify things such as, the employee counts, and the skills evaluation and compare it to what will be needed to achieve your future goal. During this phase you should also review your current HR practices and identify what you are doing that is useful and what you can add, that will help you achieve your goal.
- Questions to answer in this stage include:
  - What new jobs will we need?
  - What new skills will we need?
  - Do our present employees have the necessary skills?
  - Are employees currently aligned to their strengths?
  - Are current HR practices adequate to meet our future goal?

4. Developing HR strategies to support the strategies of the organization.

- There are 5 HR strategies that you can follow to meet your organizational goals.
    - Restructuring strategies
        - This includes reducing staff, regrouping tasks to create well-designed jobs, and reorganizing work groups to perform more efficiently.
    - Training and development strategies
        - This includes providing the current staff with training and development opportunities to encompass new roles in the organization
    - Recruitment strategies
        - This includes recruiting new hires that already have the skills the organization will need in the future.
    - Outsourcing strategies
        - This includes outreaching to external individuals or organizations to complete certain tasks.
    - Collaboration strategies
        - This includes collaborating with other organizations to learn from how others do things, allow employees to gain skills and knowledge not previously available in their own organization.

QUESTION 13

13. **What are the ethics HR practitioners should enforce in discharging their duties in organizations?**

Ethics has been defined in a number of ways. One way to look at ethics is as a shared values-based system that serves to guide, channel, shape, and direct the behavior of individuals in organizations in an appropriate and productive direction.

Taking this definition one step further, business ethics could be defined as a shared values-based system designed to inculcate within the organization's population a sense of how to conduct business properly.

HR must play a leadership role in establishing, encouraging, and ensuring ongoing ethical behavior within organizations. HR cannot, however, "own" ethics, or even own the organization's ethical initiative. Like other programs that are viewed as "HR's responsibility" (for instance, performance management, interviewing, and the like), ethics must be operationalized so that ownership and responsibility are truly shared by all.

In her article "The Ethical Enabler: Empowering Employees to Become Chief Ethics Officers," Susan Alevas speaks of the process of promulgating and inculcating ethical values in the organization as follows:

- When it comes to combating ethical complacency, governing board members, chief executive officers and senior management need to become "ethical enablers," the folks who encourage, support, and champion their employees to become "Chief Ethics Officers." Moreover, there's nothing stopping organizations from also bestowing their vendors and customers with the "Chief Ethics Officer" role.

Maintaining an ethical organization isn't about "being nice" or even "being good." Instead, there are a number of business-driven reasons for cultivating an ethical organization. In short, an erosion of ethics can lead to an erosion of the organization. Just a few of the reasons why it is critical to ensure that our organizations remain ethical are discussed in the following sections.

To Prevent Erosion of Trust

Successful organizations are based on a network of trust—trust that their members will "do the right thing." When that doesn't happen, or when negative actions are tolerated (or worse, encouraged), employees stop trusting. They may then begin to rationalize inappropriate and unethical behaviors. As the results of this erosion become more visible, employees with a strong sense of personal integrity may leave, and potential employees who do uphold high ethical standards might be difficult to attract.

To Prevent Cynicism

Some people describe skepticism as "healthy," and perhaps some small measure of it is...unless it begins to degenerate into cynicism. The negativity that comes along with cynicism can poison the culture of an organization. Those who cannot tolerate that atmosphere will likely leave—which makes the atmosphere of the remaining organization even more toxic.

To Prevent Dysfunctional Manifestations of Politics

Politics, to some degree, is inevitable within organizations. In unethical organizations, however, politics will likely become increasingly dysfunctional and perhaps even destructive.

To Prevent Aggression/Violence

The anger that can fester when employees perceive that the leaders of an organization have acted in an unjust or inequitable manner often must have an outlet somewhere. Sadly, even tragically, that outlet is not always productive, and can even be highly destructive, as we have all witnessed in well-publicized cases of workplace violence, such as the 1992 Royal Oak Post Office shooting. According to a letter written 10 years later by Charlie Withers, chief steward of the Royal Oak Post Office:

- This tragedy was the result of a hostile work environment, created by postal management and condoned by those in higher positions within the postal service. This militaristic autocratic management style was allowed to go unchecked, even though the Royal Oak District was feeling the "backlash" in service to its patrons.... The workforce throughout the Royal Oak District was under attack by overzealous managers who used whatever tactics needed to disrupt their lives.... This same group of managers had been investigated in a GAO (Government Accounting Office) investigation done in Indianapolis for the same problems 3 years prior...and nothing was done!!

Aggression can also manifest itself through less violent—and thus perhaps less easily identifiable—forms, such as theft, lying, tampering or vandalism—all in an effort to "get even" with those in power who are treating them unfairly. Aggressive acts such as these have financial as well as non-financial costs to the organization that might exponentially increase if the organization permits or perpetuates an unethical culture.

Cultivating an Ethical Organization

One important element of creating an ethical culture comes from establishing an organizational code of ethics. That code, which ideally should have an introduction from the CEO, should reaffirm the organization's commitment to the code. The code itself needs to start with the mission, vision, and values of the organization. Together, these three go a long way toward setting the framework for ethics. From there, an organization's code of ethics needs to address myriad issues from the perspectives employees, customers, shareholders, suppliers, and the community at large.

The Code of Ethics: A Living Document

The process of writing a code of ethics is only the beginning. It cannot simply be written and forgotten. Instead, the code of ethics needs to have "life," and it needs to have "teeth"—clear statements relative to how the code—along with and the policies that emanate from the code—will be implemented and upheld.

Once the code is established, individuals at all levels of the organization must be held to its standards. A single standard must apply to all within the organization. Nothing will erode a code of ethics faster than the revelation that it has been applied or enforced inconsistently. It is simply not possible to "overlook" certain ethical violations from a certain person while making an example of the ethical violations of others.

Hiring Practices

HR departments typically are tasked with helping recruit new employees and often with investigating employee backgrounds. By calling references, cross-checking information on resumes and verifying the claims of potential employees, HR staff can verify that the company is hiring an honest employee who has done what she claims. During the interview, asking an employee a few ethical questions can help gauge how she might react when faced with a real ethical dilemma. Don't just examine the employee's answer; instead, look at her behavior, body language and tone of voice to determine if she feels strongly about ethical behavior or is just giving a rehearsed answer.

Leading by Example

In every business, the behavior of leadership affects employee behavior. While HR departments typically aren't involved in daily management, they do interact with employees when employees have questions about benefits, pay and other issues. Friendly, warm HR staff members who avoid gossip and who are honest and fair with employees can help encourage employees to engage in similar behaviors. It's also important for the HR department to avoid overpromising. Don't tell an employee she might get a benefit she may not be eligible for, and make sure employees have sufficient information about

HR policies to make good decisions. Nondiscrimination policies and promoting diversity can encourage this behavior in the workplace.

Continuing Education

Sexual harassment, religious discrimination, disability rights and issues pertaining to minority groups are commonly the domain of HR departments. Regular training on legal obligations as well as ethical behavior can be highly effective. Don't just plop employees in front of a video; instead, work to engage them in a meaningful discussion that encourages empathy for historically oppressed groups and teaches people how to relate fairly and legally to others. The HR department should ensure that new hires are aware of company policies; this often helps prevent violations before they occur.

Open Door Policies

HR departments are often the first stop for employees who have discrimination complaints or concerns about management. By fostering an open door policy, HR can stop small problems from becoming big ones. Keep employee complaints confidential, and never try to convince an employee that her complaint is not legitimate. Instead, listen empathetically and offer real, actionable solutions. When an employee reports a systemic problem, HR should report this to management, and managers and owners should listen to and implement HR recommendations.

Conclusion

Human resources departments often serve as the one-stop shop for employment practices, operations information and legal questions. Because everyone must be processed through HR and because the department is frequently in charge of implementing and educating about new policies, human resources in your business can institute practices that promote, encourage and educate about ethical behavior in the workplace.

QUESTION 14

14. Distinguish Human Resource Management from Personnel Management. To what extent are the differences practical?

Personnel management

Personnel are those who are employed in the workplace. Personnel management is an administrative function which exists in an organization to ensure right personnel at right organizational activity. It is a traditional approach of managing employees which focuses on adherence to policies and rules of organization.

Human Resource Management

Human resource management is a modern approach of managing people at workplace which focuses on acquisition, development, utilization and maintenance of human resource. It combines physical energies and their strengths with human competencies. In simple words, human resource management can be referred as the policy which ensures right quality and quantity of human resource in the organization.

Explanation

By contrast, HRM makes a determined effort to be a more integrative mechanism in bringing people issue into line with business issues, with a pronounced problem – seeking and problem solving orientation, and a determination to build collaborative organizational systems. The role of top management in setting the agenda for change and development is very much in evidence in HRM.

Some personnel managers will no doubt see the growing influence of HR managers as a threat fearing that they may just become custodians of personnel systems. Beer (1997) identified major obstacles in transforming the traditional administrative personnel function and moving to a fully-fledged HRM system. He function is that most HR professionals do not possess the requisite analytical and interpersonal skills.

In HRM there is a greater emphasis on strategic issues and on the way which the human resource contributes to the achievement of corporate objectives. HRM underlines the importance of flexibility and the ability to react and adapt quickly to changes in the organizational environment.

Difference in Approach

The personnel management approach tends to attach much importance to norms, customs and established practices, whereas the human resource approach gives importance to values and mission.

The personnel management approach also concerns itself with establishing rules, policies, procedures, and contracts, and strives to monitor and enforce compliance to such regulations, with careful delineation of written contract. The human resource management approach remains impatient with rules and regulations. HR managers tend to relax rules based on business needs and exigencies, and aim to go by the spirit of the contract rather than the letter of the contract.

Difference in Nature

Another dimension of the difference is the proactive nature of human resource management compared to the reactive nature of personnel management.

Personnel management remains aloof from core organizational activities, functions independently, and takes a reactive approach to changes in corporate goals or strategy. Human resource management remains integrated with corporate strategy and takes a proactive approach to align the workforce toward achievement of corporate goals.

Difference in Application

Personnel management is an independent staff function of an organization, with little involvement from line managers, and no linkage to the organization's core process. Human resource management, on the other hand, remains integrated with the organization's core strategy and functions. Although a distinct human resource department carries out much of the human resource management tasks, human resource initiatives involve the line management and operations staff heavily.

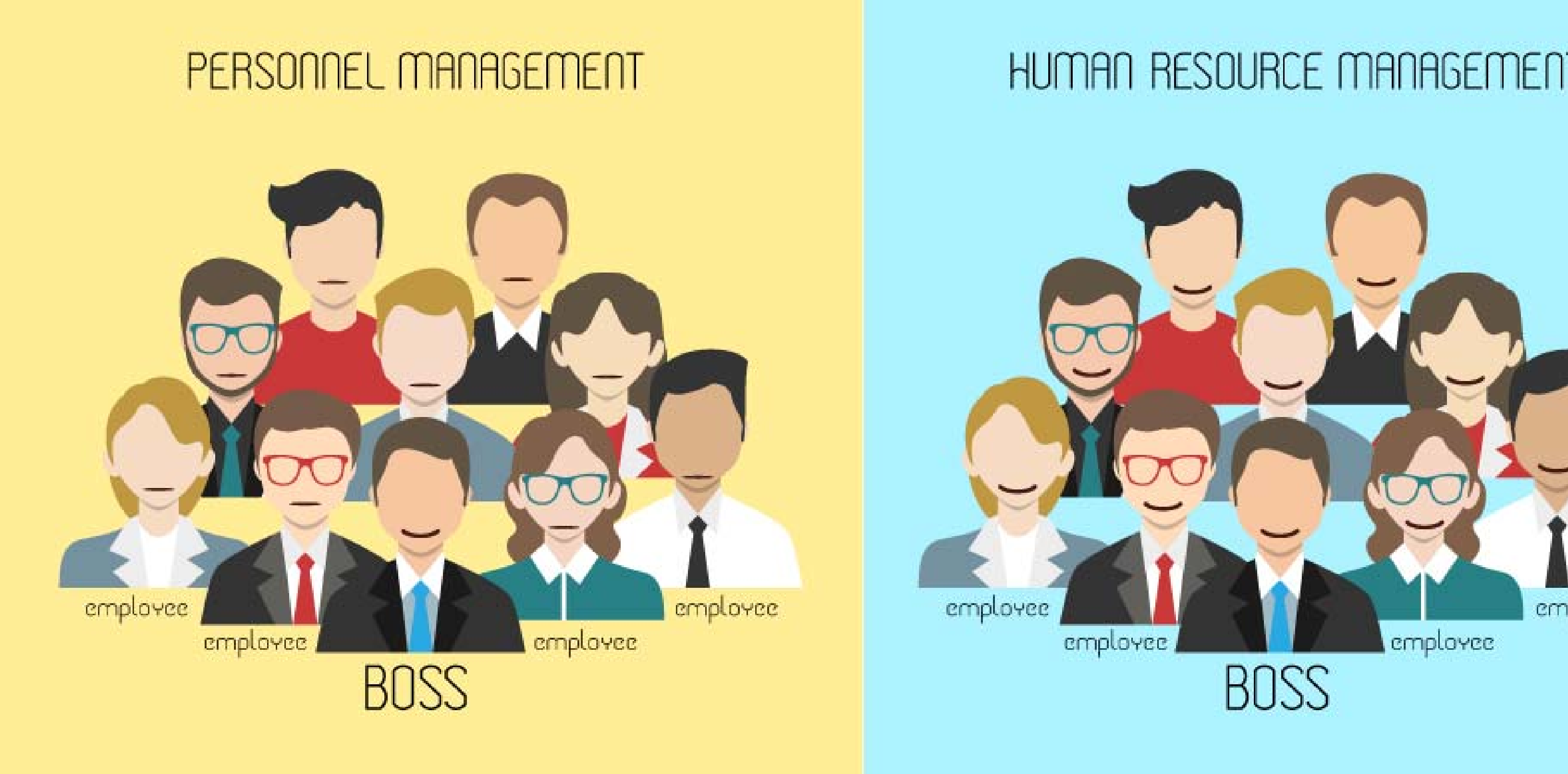
Personnel management also strives to reconcile the aspirations and views of the workforce with management interest by institutional means such as collective bargaining, trade union-based negotiations and similar processes. This leads to fixation of work conditions applicable for all, and not necessarily aligned to overall corporate goals.

However, there are some differences in the following matters.

1. Personnel management is a traditional approach of managing people in the organization. Human resource management is a modern approach of managing people and their strengths in the organization.
2. Personnel management focuses on personnel administration, employee welfare and labor relation. Human resource management focuses on acquisition, development, motivation and maintenance of human resources in the organization.
3. Personnel management assumes people as an input for achieving desired output. Human resource management assumes people as an important and valuable resource for achieving desired output.
4. Under personnel management, personnel function is undertaken for employee's satisfaction. Under human resource management, administrative function is undertaken for goal achievement.
5. Under personnel management, job design is done on the basis of division of labor. Under human resource management, job design function is done on the basis of group work/team work.

PM can be described as a series of activities related to various aspects of an employee's relationship with the organization. HRM is also concerned with these issues, but in addition stresses the primacy of business needs. Other points of departure are that HRM embraces individual flexibility and congruency between individual and organizational goals, whereas PM is concerned with systems applied to individuals and collectivism.

Personnel Management v/s Human Resource Management



In an organization, a group of people (employers and employees) work together with a common motive i.e. to achieve their organizational goal, which is only possible when efforts of all the people in the organization are efficiently managed. There are two basic approaches that employers adopt to manage people or employee in their company. They are

1) Personnel Management

Personnel are those who are employed in the workplace. Personnel management is an administrative function which exists in an organization to ensure right personnel at right organizational activity. It is a traditional approach of managing employees which focuses on adherence to policies and rules of organization. Personnel management is concerned with planning, job analysis, recruitment and performance appraisal along with training and compensation management. Personnel management also focuses on managing labor relationship by handling employee grievances.

2) Human Resource Management

Human resource management is a modern approach of managing people at workplace which focuses on acquisition, development, utilization and maintenance of human resource. It combines physical energies and their strengths with human competencies. In simple words, human resource management can be referred as the policy which ensures right quality and quantity of human resource in the organization. Like personnel management, human resource management is also concerned with planning, job analysis, recruitment and selection, hiring and socialization, training, performance appraisal, rewarding, and compensation management.

How Personnel Management is different from Human Resource Management?

At this point, you might be thinking, what actually is different between personnel management and human resource management. Not only you but many critics have also argued regarding this topic. In fact, some of them have commented that Human Resource Management is just a new title given to Personnel Management in endeavor to rebrand personnel department and achieve more acknowledgement for their role. On the other hand, remaining critics, after thorough inspection, have noted major differences between personnel management and human resource management.

Although both the management seem to be involved in same organizational activities, the difference is in the way those activities are approached and operated.

For more detailed information regarding differences between personnel management and human resource management, please check the table below.

Basis of Difference	Personnel Management	Human Resource Management
Meaning	It is traditional approach of managing people at workplace and is concern of personnel department.	It is modern approach of managing people at workplace and is concern of managers of all level (from top to bottom).
Nature	It is a routine function.	It is a strategic function.
Focus	Efficient management is given priority.	Human values and individual needs are given priority.
Function	Personnel administration, labor relation and employee welfare	Acquisition, development, utilization and maintenance of

Basis of Difference	Personnel Management	Human Resource Management
	are major functions of personnel management.	human resource are major functions of human resource management.
Objective	It manages people in accordance with organization's goal.	It determines human resource needs and formulate policies by matching individual's needs with organization's needs.
Perspective	It regards people as basic input to make desired output.	It regards people as strategic and valuable resource to make desired output.
Job design	Jobs are designed on the basis of division of labor.	Jobs are designed on the basis of teamwork.
Interest	Organization's interest is valued the most.	Interest of organization and interest of employee is harmonized.
Orientation	It is discipline, direction and control oriented.	It is development oriented. It provides space for employee involvement, performance and growth.
Communication	Communication is limited, or even restricted.	Communication is open.
Emphasis	It emphasizes on adherence of rules and regulations and their implementation.	It emphasizes on combination of human energies and competencies.
Benefits	• Disciplined employees • Increased production	• Committed human resource • Readiness to change • Increased production • Increased profit • Quality of work life

Basis of Difference	Personnel Management	Human Resource Management
Result	Organizational goal is achieved and employers are satisfied.	Organizational goal is achieved and both employers and employees are satisfied.

QUESTION 15

15. **Discuss the philosophies of Human Resource Management**

Human resource management (HRM) is the strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organization's most valued assets - the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the business. The terms "human resource management" and "human resources" (HR) have largely replaced the term "personnel management" as a description of the processes involved in managing people in organizations. Human Resource management is evolving rapidly. Human resource management is both an academic theory and a business practice that addresses the theoretical and practical techniques of managing a workforce

Human resource management as rightly said by someone is like gardening where HR managers strategize how to nurture employees, help them grow and be fruitful for the organization as well as themselves.

The main goal of any HR management is to retain the trained employees. Underlying this goal is the philosophies of HR which help in achieving the goals of an organization.

PHILOSOPHIES OF HRM

1. Hold the employees at the center stage of the organization - employee centric policies

2. Provide a learning platform, freedom to think, innovate, challenging areas of work.

3. Understand and predict human behavior

4. In a particular organization context HRM philosophy shapes the way the employees are managed in that organization

HRM is the backbone of any organization because it's not the technology that builds an organization it's the people who use that technology and that is why managing those people is of utmost importance to any company.

Paper on the addressing the philosophy of HRM; the paper should include things that are deemed to be the most valuable to HRM. Examples should include things such as you running a department and how you would intend to manage the human resource asset for the company.
While running a department which is dependent on other departments of the organization,

the HR policies become a bit tricky, as the communication within the department as well as inter-department becomes crucial. Employees will work for a company only if they are motivated enough. This motivation could vary from person to person, from department to department because the needs and desires of a department and an individual vary respectively. Therefore, for management of human resources in a department the HR managers need to strategize their policies in a way that they fit with the goals of an organization as well as satisfy the individuals working towards them. The employees need to feel that they are a part of the organization and not just working for it. The policies should be employee centric keeping the department's goals and objectives in mind. Rewards and appraisals are one side of motivation whereas learning and individual growth is the other. There are people who would go for a better profile and learning as compared to a better package, this is an individualistic choice, but it's important that there is flexibility in the HR policies so that every individual gets what he wants r expects from his job. This improves the satisfaction levels and reduces the attrition rate.

For any department to progress the team effort behind the scene is very important. For instance, a sales target in a retail store can't be achieved just by the manager or sales person but a collective effort of all which would even include your visual merchandisers, sourcing managers, category managers, sales analyst, sales person, maintenance staff etc. Therefore, one can say that team building is very important in any HRM program. Team building can be done when the managers understand the behavior of individuals, their strengths and weaknesses and put the people who complement each other in one team. There are times when there are people who are tough to deal with or from an individual's point of view you can't get along with a few in the organization. This is nothing but a few clashes due to different opinions, backgrounds, and experiences etc., therefore the responsibility of the HR program lies wherein they could help people from different walks of life to come together and build a team. It's challenging and this is where the strength of an HR department should be.

The HRM philosophies are very important because if followed they pave the way for managing people who are the crucial part of existence of an organization.

Managing people is much more of an art than it is a science. There is no secret formula or set of rules to follow. Like any true art it takes personal style and a relentless commitment to developing that art. (http://www.wikihow.com/Manage-People)

STEPS TO BE FOLLOWED:

1. Rid your mind of the word "manager" and replace it with "leader". Leaders don't require titles or promotions, they are people that inspire and motivate without regard to the setting or the team.

Solution Summary

The Philosophy of Human Resources

The philosophy of Human Resources our human resource management system began in 2004 with a program called "Strategic Identity", and seeks, among its primary goals, to involve all onshore staff and the entire crew. This is not to be seen as two separate projects, but rather as a 360-degree synergy.

We would like to propose a management model that reaches the ultimate goal of customer satisfaction and offers an excellent image of the operators of the sector and their reference market by means of a renewed "social contract" with the whole staff.

PLAN GOALS.

- The people, respect.
- Continue to improve the quality of life on shore and on board the ships;
- Extend Finial’s strategic lines in the widest and clearest way, to all company levels; strategic lines are not to be intended as those related to the activity, but rather those related to behavior, common to all collaborators, which identifies in a clear manner who and what is Finaval now and in the future;
- Re-evaluate the work pertaining to company roles, both on board and on shore, in order to try and render the operative relations more efficient and successful;
- Continue the course of change which focuses on company processes, giving up the old ways of doing things as it was based on the division of departments;
- Define an integrated and complete tool system to help us introduce a new work concept which is based on adopting a common behavior and spirit, or rather “Flag Spirit”.
- An indispensable condition in the management system of our human resources is liberty of expression, which enables the creation of a permanent loop consisting of a listening phase, comprehension, action, evaluation, and information feedback.
- Systematic dialogue and enrichment of information to create permanent grounds on which to share ideas, projects and goals.
- It is only through "meetings between people and the company" that a stronger sense of togetherness can be retrieved: this way, interests that have been set against each other can be overcome, transforming us in actors in the process of change and interlocutors of a dialogue, exalting the positive aspects that we have in common to create a cohesive atmosphere which is necessary to help us see our company in the same way.
- The creation of a human resource continuity by dedicating specific attention to training and to relations with the school.
- Make the qualities of the company stand out in its reference market sector by means of apposite intervention and different forms of communication.

QUESTION 16

16. **By using specific examples, discuss the relevance of Human Resource Management functions in the situation of a developing country.**

The human resources department handles a range of different functions within an organization. The department is responsible for hiring and firing employees, training workers, maintaining interoffice relationships and interpreting employment laws. The department works diligently behind the scenes to ensure an organization runs efficiently. The HR department's duties will vary between companies, but can generally be summed up in six main functions.

Hiring and Recruiting

One of the primary functions of the human resources department is to oversee hiring and recruiting within an organization. The department actively recruits, screens, interviews and hires qualified candidates for open positions. The department administers skills assessment and personality tests to match candidates with the right job within the company. The human resources department also develops employee handbooks that explain company policies and procedures to new hires.

Training and Development

The human resources department handles the training and development of staff within an organization. It creates training programs and conducts training for new hires and existing employees. The human resources department also works in conjunction with department managers and supervisors to determine the training needs of employees. They are also responsible for contracts with training providers and monitoring training budgets.

Handling Compensation

The human resources department is responsible for various aspects of employee compensation. The department typically handles employee payroll and ensures employees are paid accurately and on time, with the correct deductions made. Human resources departments also manage compensation programs that include pensions and other fringe benefits offered by the employer.

Employee Benefits

The human resources department manages all aspects of employee benefits, including health and dental insurance, long-term care or disability programs as well as employee assistance and wellness programs. The department keeps track of employee absences and job-protected leave, such as family medical leave. Human resources department representatives ensure employees receive the proper disclosures regarding benefit eligibility or if benefits are no longer available because of a layoff or termination.

Employee Relations

The human resources department handles employee relations matters within an organization. Employee relations involves employee participation in different aspects of organizational activities. The department maintains the relationship between employees and management by promoting communication and fairness within the company. The department also handles disputes between employees and management, as well as disputes between the company and labor unions or employee rights organizations.

Legal Responsibilities

The human resources department is responsible for interpreting and enforcing employment and labor laws such as equal employment opportunity, fair labor standards, benefits and wages, and work hour requirements. The department also investigates harassment and discrimination complaints and ensures company officials remain compliant with United States Department of Labor regulations.

New Recruitment

The success of recruiters and employment specialists generally is measured by the number of positions they fill and the time it takes to fill those positions. Recruiters who work in-house -- as opposed to companies that provide recruiting and staffing services -- play a key role in developing the employer's workforce. They advertise job postings, source candidates, screen applicants, conduct preliminary interviews and coordinate hiring efforts with managers responsible for making the final selection of candidates.

Job Safety

Workplace safety is an important factor. Under the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970, employers have an obligation to provide a safe working environment for employees. One of the main functions of HR is to support workplace safety training and maintain federally mandated logs for workplace injury and fatality reporting. In addition, HR safety and risk specialists often work closely with HR benefits specialists to manage the company's worker's compensation issues.

Employee Relations

In a unionized work environment, the employee and labor relations functions of HR may be combined and handled by one specialist or be entirely separate functions managed by two HR specialists with specific expertise in each area. Employee relations is the HR discipline concerned with strengthening the employer-employee relationship through measuring job satisfaction, employee engagement and resolving workplace conflict. Labor relations functions may include developing management response to union organizing campaigns, negotiating collective bargaining agreements and rendering interpretations of labor union contract issues.

Compensation and Benefits

Like employee and labor relations, the compensation and benefits functions of HR often can be handled by one HR specialist with dual expertise. On the compensation side, the HR functions include setting compensation structures and evaluating competitive pay practices. A comp and benefits specialist also may negotiate group health coverage rates with insurers and coordinate activities with the retirement savings fund administrator. Payroll can be a component of the compensation and benefits section of HR; however, in many cases, employers outsource such administrative functions as payroll.

Labor Law Compliance

Compliance with labor and employment laws is a critical HR function. Noncompliance can result in workplace complaints based on unfair employment practices, unsafe working conditions and general dissatisfaction with working conditions that can affect productivity and ultimately, profitability. HR staff must be aware of federal and state employment laws such as Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, the Fair Labor Standards Act, the National Labor Relations Act and many other rules and regulations.

Training and Development

Employers must provide employees with the tools necessary for their success which, in many cases, means giving new employees extensive orientation training to help them transition into a new organizational culture. Many HR departments also provide leadership training and professional development. Leadership training may be required of newly hired and promoted supervisors and managers on topics such as performance management and how to handle employee relations matters at the department level.

Professional development opportunities are for employees looking for promotional opportunities or employees who want to achieve personal goals such as finishing a college degree. Programs such as tuition assistance and tuition reimbursement programs often are within the purview of the HR training and development area.

References

- *Henry Mintzberg (May 1978). "Patterns in Strategy Formation" (PDF). Management Science. INFORMS. 24 (9): 934–48. doi:10.1287/mnsc.24.9.934. Archived from the original (PDF) on 19 October 2013. Retrieved 31 August 2012.*

- **Henrik von Scheel and Prof Mark von Rosing. Importance of a Business Model (pp. 23–54). Applying real-world BPM in an SAP environment. ISBN 978-1-59229-877-8**

- *Kvint, Vladimir (2009). The Global Emerging Market: Strategic Management and Economics. Routeledge. ISBN 9780203882917.*

- *Stacey, R. D. (1995). "The science of complexity – an alter-native perspective for strategic change processes". Strategic Management Journal. 16 (6): 477–95. doi:10.1002/smj.4250160606.*

- *Terra, L. A. A.; Passador, J. L. (2016). "Symbiotic Dynamic: The Strategic Problem from the Perspective of Complexity". Systems Research and Behavioral Science. 33 (2): 235–248. doi:10.1002/sres.2379. Retrieved 16 May 2017.*
- *Morin, E. (2005). Introduction à la pensée complexe. Paris: Éditionsdu Seuil.*

- *Rumelt, Richard P. (2011). Good Strategy/Bad Strategy - The Difference and Why it Matters. Crown Business. ISBN 978-0-307-88623-1.*

- *"American Rhetoric: John F. Kennedy – Cuban Missile Crisis Address to the Nation".*

- *Henderson, Bruce (1 January 1981). "The Concept of Strategy". Boston Consulting Group. Retrieved 18 April 2014.*

- **Liddell Hart, B. H.** ***Strategy*** **London: Faber, 1967 (2nd rev ed.) p. 321**

- ***Wilson, Andrew (2012). Masters of War: History's Greatest Strategic Thinkers. The Teaching Company.***

- **Giles, Lionel** ***The Art of War by Sun Tzu*****. Special Edition Books. 2007.**

- ***Porter, Michael E. (1980). Competitive Strategy. Free Press. ISBN 0-684-84148-7.***

- ***Kiechel, Walter (2010). The Lords of Strategy. Harvard Business Press. ISBN 978-1-59139-782-3.***

- ***Ghemawat, Pankaj (Spring 2002). "Competition and Business Strategy in Historical Perspective". Business History Review. Harvard Business Review. SSRN 264528.***

- **Chandler, Alfred** ***Strategy and Structure: Chapters in the history of industrial enterprise*****, Doubleday, New York, 1962.**

- **Bulla, D N and Scott, P M (1994) Manpower requirements forecasting: a case example, in Human Resource Forecasting and Modelling, ed D Ward, T P Bechet and R Tripp, Human Resource Planning Society, New York**

- **Reilly, P., (2003). Guide to Workforce Planning in Local Authorities, Employers Organization for Local Government, London.**

- *Chanda, Ashok, Shen, Jie, Sivarama Krishna, B. Strategic Human Resource Technologies.*

- ***"Human Resource Policies".***
- **Akingbola, Kunle. "A Model Of Strategic Nonprofit Human Resource Management." Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary & Nonprofit Organizations 24.1 (2013): 214-240. Human Resources Abstracts. Web. 6 Apr. 2016.**

- ***"EBSCO Publishing Service Selection Page". eds.b.ebscohost.com. Retrieved 2016-04-13.***

- ***Tung, Rosalie L. (2016-01-01). "New perspectives on human resource management in a global context". Journal of World Business. The World of Global Business 1965-2015Perspectives on the 50th Anniversary Issue of the Journal of World Business. 51 (1): 142–152. doi:10.1016/j.jwb.2015.10.004.***

- ***"EBSCO Publishing Service Selection Page". eds.b.ebscohost.com. Retrieved 2016-04-13.***

- **Anca-Ioana, M. (2013). NEW APPROACHES OF THE CONCEPTS OF HUMAN RESOURCES, HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT. Annals Of The University Of Oradea, Economic Science Series, 22(1), 1520-1525.**

- **Conine, Clyde Thomas, Jr. (1996). The integration of human resource development into the strategic planning process: A comparative case study of three corporations (Order No. 9710248). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304305049). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304305049?accountid=5683**

- **Ogunrinde, R. O. (2001). Strategic human resource planning and organizational effectiveness: An empirical analysis and recommendations (Order No. 3006656). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304783334). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304783334?accountid=5683**

- **Smith, C. S. (1987). STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN TEXAS COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (Order No. 8720965). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (303660511). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/303660511?accountid=5683**

- **Steadham, K. S. (2006). Strategic management competencies among chief human resource officers in Texas public community colleges (Order No. 3240562). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304913466). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304913466?accountid=5683**

- **Chanda, Ashok, B. Sivarama Krishna, and Jie Shen. Strategic Human Resource Technologies : Keys To Managing People. n.p.: Los Angeles : Response, c2007., 2007. Texas State - Alkek Library's Catalog. Web. 9 Mar. 2016.**

- **Mello, J. A. (2006). Strategic human resource management. Mason, Ohio ; Thomson/South-Western, c2006.**

- **Nicoleta, BELU, and VOICULEȚ Alina. "Organizational Strategic Planning Of Human Resources." (2014): BASE. Web. 9 Mar. 2016.**

- **Olivas-Lujan, Miguel R., and Tanya Bondarouk. Social Media In Human Resources Management. Bingley, U.K.: Emerald Group Publishing, 2013. eBook Academic Collection (EBSCOhost). Web. 9 Mar. 2016.**

- **Salaman, Graeme, John Storey, and Jon Billsberry. Strategic Human Resource Management : Theory And Practice. n.p.: London ; Thousand Oaks : Open University in association with Sage Publications, 2005., 2005. Texas State - Alkek Library's Catalog. Web. 9 Mar. 2016.**

- **Festing, M. (2012). Strategic Human Resource Management in Germany: Evidence of Convergence to the U.S. Model, the European Model, or a Distinctive National Model? Academy of Management Perspectives, 26(2), 37–54. Retrieved from http://eds.a.ebscohost.com/eds/detail/detail?sid=a34a2cfd-0bb9-4f60-ac29-598888abea3e%40sessionmgr4001&vid=0&hid=4111&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWRzLWxpdmU%3d#AN=79351875&db=bth**

- **Hollenbeck, J. R., & Jamieson, B. B. (2015). Human Capital, Social Capital, and Social Network Analysis: Implications for Strategic Human Resource Management. Academy of Management Perspectives, 29(3), 370–385. http://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2014.0140**

- **Jacobson, W. S., & Sowa, J. E. (2015). Strategic Human Capital Management in Municipal Government: An Assessment of Implementation Practices. Public Personnel Management, 44(3), 317–339. http://doi.org/10.1177/0091026015591283**

- **Kanter, R. M. (1983). Frontiers for Strategic Human Resource Planning and Management. Human Resource Management, 22(1/2), 9–21. Retrieved from http://eds.a.ebscohost.com/eds/detail/detail?sid=81c4a486-529c-4893-afb5-92aa2b8297ef%40sessionmgr4001&vid=0&hid=4111&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWRzLWxpdmU%3d#AN=7246591&db=bth**

- **Sikora, D. M., & Ferris, G. R. (2014). Strategic human resource practice implementation: The critical role of line management. Human Resource Management Review, 24(3), 271–281. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2014.03.008**

- **Tariq, S., Jan, F. A., & Ahmad, M. S. (2016). Green employee empowerment: a systematic literature review on state-of-art in green human resource management. Quality & Quantity, 50(1), 237–269. http://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-014-0146-0**

- **Tran, H. (2015). Personnel vs. strategic human resource management in public education. Management in Education, 29(3), 112–118. http://doi.org/10.1177/0892020615584107**

- **Tung, R. L. (2016). New perspectives on human resource management in a global context. Journal of World Business, 51(1), 142–152. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2015.10.004**

- **Kaufman, Bruce E. "Strategic Human Resource Management Research In The United States: A Failing Grade After 30 Years?." Academy Of Management Perspectives 26.2 (2012): 12-36. Business Source Complete. Web. 9 Mar. 2016.**

- **Mayo, A. (2015). Strategic workforce planning – a vital business activity. Strategic HR Review, 14(5), 174-181. doi:10.1108/SHR-08-2015-0063**

- **Pilz, Kevin, Paulo Nhaducue, and Deogratias Gasuguru. "Strategic Planning For Reform Of Human Resources For The Supply Chain Within Mozambique'S Health System." (2014): BASE. Web. 9 Mar. 2016.**

- **Agarwala, T. (2003), Innovative human resource practices and organizational commitment: an empirical**

- **investigation, The International Journal of Human Resource Management, Volume: 14, Issue: 2, Publisher: Routledge, pp.175-197.**

- **Ahmad, S. & Schroeder, R. G. (2003), The impact of human resource management practices on operational performance: recognizing country and industry differences, Journal of Operations Management, 21, pp.19 43.**

- **Cho, S., Woods, R. H., Jang, S., Cheong S., & Erdem, M. (2006), Measuring the impact of human l of Hospitality Management, Volume: 25, Issue: 2, pp.262-277. 827**
- **A. Aslan Şendoğdu et al. / Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences 99 (2013) 818 – 827**

- **Conway E. (2003), Relating career stage to attitudes towards HR practices and commitment: Evidence of interaction effects?, The learning, innovation and knowledge (link) research centre working paper series, WP 01-03, http://www.link.dcu.ie/publications/workingpaperseries/ (Accessed: 20.12.2012).**

- **Delaney, J. T., & Huselid, M. A. (1996), The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of organizational performance, Academy of Management Journal, Volume: 39, Issue: 4, Publisher: JSTOR, pp.949-969.**

- **Fiorito, J., Bozeman, D. P., Young, A., & Meurs, J. A. (2007), Organizational commitment, human resource practices, and organizational characteristics, Journal of Managerial Issues, Volume: XIX, Issue: 2, pp.186-207.**

- **Gelade, G. A., & Ivery, M. (2003) The impact of human resource management and work climate on organizational performance, personnel psychology, Volume: 56, Issue: 2, Publisher: Personnel Psychology, Inc., pp.383-404.**

- **Gellatly, I. R., Hunter, K. H., Currie, L. G., & Irving P. G. 2009), HRM practices and organizational commitment, The International Journal of Human Resource Management, Volume: 20, Issue: 4, Publisher: Routledge, pp.869-884.**

- **Giauque, D., Resenterra F., & Siggen M. (2010), The relationship between HRM practices and organizational commitment of knowledge workers: Facts obtained from Swiss SMEs, Human Resource Development International, Volume: 13, Issue: 2, Publisher: Routledge, pp.185-205.**

- **Hashim, J. (2010), Human resource management practices on organizational commitment: The Islamic perspective, Personnel Review, Volume: 39, Issue: 6, pp.785-799.**

- **Jayaram, J., Droge, C., & Vickery, S. K. (1999), The impact of human resource management practices on manufacturing performance, Journal of Operations Management, Volume: 18, Issue: 1, pp.1-20.**

- **Kun, Q., Xiaolin, L., & Xiaoyun W., (2008), HRM practices and organizational commitment: A study about IT employees from Chinese private-owned enterprises, 4th International Conference on Wireless Communications Networking and Mobile Computing, pp.1-6.**

- **Meyer, J. P., & Smith, C. A. (2000), HRM practices and organizational commitment: Test of a mediation model, Canadian Journal Of Administrative Sciences, Volume: 17, Issue: 4, pp.319-331.**

- **Paul, A. K., & Anantharaman, R. N. (2004), Influence of HRM practices on organizational commitment:**

- **A study among software professionals in India, Human Resource Development Quarterly, Volume: 15, Issue: 1, pp.77-88.**

- **Pfeffer, J. (1998), Seven practices of successful organizations, California Management Review, Volume: 40, Issue: 2, pp.96-124.**

- **Shahnawaz, M. G., & Juyal, R. C. (2006), Human resource management practices and organizational commitment in different organizations, Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, Volume: 32, Issue: 3, pp.267-274**