CHAPTER I

AN ANALYSIS AND STUDY OF
SELECTION AND RECRUITMENT PROCEDURES

1.1- IMPORTANCE OF HUMAN FACTOR IN BUSINESS:

In the modern world of 1980's, we are constantly being reminded of the importance of the human factor in business from many corners. The politicians, government officers, various party leaders, educationists and various community groups constantly express their interest in the aims and problems of better worker-relations. Business leaders have started recently, while the labour leaders have since long voiced their deep concern for workers. Ever widening research in the behavioral sciences are casting new light on interpersonal relations in the working environment.

In case of the working population itself--apart from administrators and top-executives--a large segment of their life is encompassed by business affairs. Their standards of living and earning power are dependent upon their jobs and general economic conditions. Much of what and how they think is determined by job factors. Their aspirations and weaknesses, as well as those of their families, are bound up in the business environment. Thus in nume-
rous ways, all employees at all levels are made aware of their dependence on business affairs.

I.-2 CONCEPT OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT:

No definition can be expected to describe fully any concept or subject. It can, however, serve as a springboard for realistic analysis and amplification. With this background, Personnel Management can be defined as follows:

The field of management which has to do with planning, organizing, directing and controlling the functions of procuring, developing, maintaining and utilizing a labour force, so that (a) objectives for which the company is established are attained economically and efficiently; (b) objectives of all levels of personnel are served to the highest possible degree; and (c) objectives of Society are duly considered and served.

I.-3 PHASE OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT:

There are two phases of Personnel Management.

1) Management Phases

This emphasizes, at the outset, that personnel management is a responsibility. Though, this does not preclude others from participating in consideration of matters important to them, it does mean
that constructive leadership in personnel work is a basic obligation of management. Such leadership encompasses four broad managerial functions viz., planning, organizing, directing and controlling.

The planning function pertains to the steps taken in developing a personnel programme and further specifying what operative personnel functions are to be performed, and how.

After plans have been developed, next comes organizing. This calls for procuring the resources necessary to carry out the plan, designing appropriate systems for this, establishing lines of authority and communication between the various people working with or receiving benefits from the personnel plan.

Directing refers to the function of actively running the organization units responsible for executing specific personnel plans. This specifically refers to the job of leadership, both at the operative as well as higher managerial levels. This includes motivation of and supervision over people.

By controlling function, management evaluates
results of personnel work in comparison with desired objectives. Thus, through direct observation and supervision, as well as reports, records and audits, management assures itself that its organization is carrying out planned programmes.

2) Operative Phases of Personnel Work:

The foregoing definition of personnel management, in the second place, lays emphasis upon four broad and fundamental phases of personnel work. These arise out of the fact that labour force must be procured, developed, maintained and utilized. Each of these four involves many detailed duties and tasks.

Procurement cells for the performance of such functions as locating sources of supply, interviewing applicants, giving tests and inducting selected applicants. Development cells for training and education, morale building, good communications, promotion and transfer plans, suggestions system and such other plans. Maintenance thinks of activities that serve to support the skills and favourable attitudes of employees such as adequate wages, satisfactory working conditions, supervision, grievance machinery, recreational and social programmes.
and housing plans. All of the above impinge upon the utilization of labour, which is concerned with the working effectiveness of the employee.

3) Objectives:

The description of personnel management, in the third place, stresses the point that personnel work is intended to attain a number of important objectives. Personnel management must seek to make employees effective contributors to the success of the enterprise. The foregoing definition recognizes clearly and unequivocally that the performance of personnel duties must also keep in view the objectives of people. Non-financial as well as financial needs of people must be fairly considered in the plans of management. Finally the definition recognizes that personnel management must make appropriate contributions to social needs and norms. Briefly, this means that a business, though an economic institution, is also an inseparable part of the social complex.

PERSPECTIVE OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT:

Personnel Management must deal with the present and be concerned with the future. It must build programmes that solve problems in the framework of today and tomorrow. But these tasks can
be performed effectively only if past is taken into consideration. Hence a review of pertinent historical trends and an estimate of future prospects in the field of personnel management is inevitable before we proceed to analyse the subject matter as on to-day.

Within the limited scope, it can only be stated here that the historical changes are earmarked by the following general types of changes:

1) Technological conditions of business;
2) Cultural and Social background;
3) Changed Government Policies;
4) Changing concepts of labour participation;
5) Change in Management attitudes;
6) Force of educational revolution.

Without much discussion on each of the above types of changes, it could only be said that labour in business has travelled many roads and has involved many groups. Changes in relationships have been numerous and continuous. It is not, therefore, unreasonable to expect that present patterns will be reconstructed with the passage of time.

What are the future prospects may be conject-
ural. But a number of possibilities are worth mentioning. In the first place, it is almost certain that employees will exert more influence on decisions which affect their interests. This may be in the form of voluntary co-operation with management, intervention through labour union, legislative controls or certain combination of all these.

Secondly, Government will take an increasing role in labour-management affairs. On one hand, it will be forced to do so by the growing voting power. On the other hand, government representing all classes of people must seek ways and means of balancing the interests of economically backward and economically advanced classes of people.

Thirdly, technological change can be expected to be more striking than it has been since now; and its impact upon personnel relations will be more electrifying. Trends like automation are bound to increase problems. Technological changes will also affect the factors like mobility of labour.

In the fourth place, new insights will be provided towards the end, that employee and mana-
agement may work together more harmoniously and effectively. Labour cannot be viewed simply as a technical or an economic factor of production. Contributions from the behavioral sciences are particularly encouraging.

Varied research has indicated that improvement is likely in the areas of industrial sociology, group dynamics and inter-personal relations. Perhaps gratifying is the realization that human problems in business should be approached from an inter-disciplinary rather than a specialized point of view.

I.-5 THE HIRING FUNCTION:

With this much background of managerial functions of personnel, it will be pertinent now to turn attention to the operative functions of personnel management. These, as stated in aforesaid pages, include procuring, developing, maintaining and utilizing a manpower force. Each of these involves detailed activities, specific methods and underlying principles. The hiring function is also called a staffing function. "Staffing" as the term is used in modern manpower management, means the filling of jobs in the working organization.
As a result, procurement part will now be studied and analyzed in detail.

Personnel procurement may be defined as the task of hiring people to fill current or future job vacancies.¹

Recruitment is the development and maintenance of adequate manpower sources.² The staffing function includes the determination of manpower needs, as named by Dale Yoder — the discovery of people to fill these needs, their recruitment and employment, and their placement and orientation to the team of the job.³ It almost goes without saying that the calibre of the work force of an organization largely determines its strength and its success as an enterprise. Task of staffing is much more difficult and complicated when free workers are allowed to choose their work and change jobs at will than it is in societies that arbitrarily assign workers to jobs.⁴ The employment policies of many companies are not formalized. They are just evolved as practices over the course.

---

2. Dale S. Beach-'Personnel-The Management of People at work' pp.226
3. Dale Yoder."Personnel Principles and Policies" Ch.11- pp.192
4. Ibid Ch. 11- pp.193.
of many years. They are changed and cancelled as the immediate situation dictates. However, there is much to be gained from the adoption of carefully worked out, stable employment policies. They serve as necessary guides to the personnel department, and operating managers who should administer the hiring and placement programme. They ensure consistency of action throughout the entire organization.

I.-6 PLANNING FOR MANPOWER NEEDS:

The number and type of employees that must be hired by a company are determined by a number of factors. The needs for additional manpower (in an established concern) are influenced by (1) employee turnover, (2) nature of present work force and (3) rate of growth of the organization. A high rate of turnover, involving voluntary quits, discharges, retirements, promotions etc. means that the personnel department must constantly seek out new employees.

The nature of the present work force of a company in relation to its changing needs also affects the requirements for new manpower. If the technology of a firm is changing, if new product lines are
being substituted for old, it may be that the present work force must either be retained, or else new blood must be brought in from outside to fill certain positions. In addition, vacancies may occur in key positions for which there are no qualified persons within the organization. This situation then requires hiring from outside.

Third major factor effecting the need for new employees is the rate of growth of the organization. This in itself is influenced by management policy, extent of competition in the product market, state of national economy and such other considerations. However, a mere fact that company's sales and volume of production are increasing does not mean automatically that employment must expand.

If hiring practices are to be most effective, a number of important questions must be got answered. Some of them are:

(A) Requirements of the job to be filled;
(B) Kind and number to be procured;
(C) Source from which required manpower is to be procured;
(D) Procedure to be used to screen the candidates;
(E) Use of tools such as interviewing and testing in the selection procedures;
(F) Place of transfers and promotions in procurement function.

(A) Specification of Requirements:

Since employees are hired to carry out specific tasks, it automatically follows that knowledge of work assignments is a basic prerequisite for setting in motion the procurement function. Though such knowledge is often kept in the minds of line executives alone, it certainly is essential to prepare job specifications. Especially, when hiring is done by personnel department, such specifications are indispensable. Such specifications of requirements could suitably be studied under the following sub-headings:

1) Job specification information;
2) Men Specification information;
3) Responsibility for collecting information;
4) Methods of gathering information;
and
5) Writing up specifications.

1) Job specification information:

The initial step in a well organized programme of job specifications is to prepare a list of all jobs in the company and where they are located. Information on job titles may be derived by checking payroll records, Organization Chart titles, super-
visors and employees. In general, the information sought should include the following:

1) Job title including trade nicknames;
2) Number of employees on the job and their organization locations;
3) Names of immediate supervisor;
4) Materials, tools and equipment used or worked with;
5) Work or instructions received from whom or to whom delivered;
6) Salary or wage levels and hours of work;
7) Conditions of work which discovers distinctive working conditions e.g., Are hours long or irregular, are conditions unusually hazardous or unpleasant, wet, hot, cold etc.,
8) Complete listing of duties, separated according to daily, weekly, monthly and casual and estimated according to time spent on each; Answers to these must be specific, rather than general;
9) Education and Experience required; job analysis takes special note of the personal qualifications required to do it;
10) Skills, aptitudes and abilities required;
11) Promotional and transfer lines from and to the job;
12) Miscellaneous information and comments;
13) Job Responsibilities, if any.

Job responsibilities are those that go with the job. While assessing these, questions such as following be asked. Does the job involve responsi-
bility for the safety of other employees or for the regularity and continuity of their work? Is the worker responsible for valuable machinery and equipment? Does the job involve supervision or direction of others etc.

The above information, secured by various methods, is detailed in the job-analysis report; for day to day use, this information is then summarized in formal job descriptions. More sharply focused data, emphasizing personnel requirements, may be summarized in the form of job specifications. This is done particularly as a basis for recruiting, placement, transfer and promotion.5

Selection programmes, like recruitment, are largely dependent upon the basic job analysis function. A job Analysis discovers what qualifications are required for satisfactory job performance; it provides information from which job specifications are developed. Job specifications then become a major guide in recruitment and selection; they indicate what types of personnel are required.

In some of the above -- such as (1) Education

and experience required (2) skills, aptitudes and abilities required for a job, it should be observed that a job analysis seeks to discover what personal qualifications are requisite to the job, and not what qualifications may characterize present job-holders.  

11) Man Specification Information:

A job specification, in and of itself, does not describe what kind of person is required to fill a job. Hence for hiring purposes, job information must be converted into required man characteristics. A man specification is called for, which describes needed physical, mental, emotional, social and behavioral requirements.

(a) Physical specifications:

It is obvious that various kinds and degrees of physical capacities are required on different jobs. Hence it is easy to list the physical qualifications which are called for on the given jobs.

(b) Mental specifications:

With these, the various mental processes called for on particular jobs, such as an ability to solve problems, to think, or to concentrate, are

6. Ibid- Ch. 11 pp. 200.
referred to. A general approach to these mental processes has been to specify for a given job, the required schooling or experience. In this way, a given educational level may be used as an indirect measure of the level of mental processes required on a particular job. The intelligent quotient (IQ) of the psychologist is also a generally accepted measure in this area.

(c) Emotional and Social Specifications:

Although the trend is not widespread, there is nevertheless growing realisation that perhaps the most important aspects of man requirements are those pertaining to emotional and social characteristics. Recent studies have shown that most personnel problems stem from poor emotional and social adjustments of employees.

Specifying required emotional and social characteristics is, however, a very difficult task. However, certain companies appraise the social factors in all jobs.

(d) Behavioral Specifications:

At higher levels, behavioral descriptions are
increasingly being included in specifications. This approach seeks to describe the overt acts of people rather than the traits that cause or underlie the acts.

v) Writing of Specifications:

A number of requirements must be met in writing of specifications. On one hand, there are language problems. Written words, to convey the desired meaning, should be chosen carefully. Trade terms are particularly elusive and often colloquial; hence when used, they should be defined in non-technical languages, as far as possible.

On the other hand, overestimation of the requirements of a job should be avoided. The specifications should define the minimum acceptable standards for employment and performance on the job. Exceptional functions, to be performed occasionally, should not be allowed to influence the overall descriptions. Nor should specifications be coloured by the personalities of or special skills shown by particular employees.

Job descriptions, when to be used in making work assignments, should be carefully written to minimize the chances of their getting into jurisdictional disputes over who is to do particular parts of jobs; or
for claiming exemption from doing certain tasks on the ground that they were not included in the job descriptions. This emergence of responsibility can be suppressed by including a catch-all clause stating that management reserves the right to add or to remove duties from particular jobs when circumstances dictate.

c) Sources of Manpower Supply:

Suitable candidates must be attracted before actual hiring takes place. A good knowledge of sources of supply and how they may be tapped are prerequisites to a program of attracting candidates.

Ordinarily, all of the sources of supply mentioned herebelow do not remain at a constant degree of usefulness, but are affected by the general state of the labour market.

Sources of manpower supply are commonly divided into internal and external sources. The former refer to the present working force of a company. In the event of a vacancy, somebody already on the payroll is upgraded, transferred, promoted or at rare times demoted. Usually the definition is extended to include (1) those in the employment of affiliated or subsidiary companies and (2) those who were
once on the payroll and to whom company would like to re-employ (such as those on voluntary quits, on production layoffs etc.) External sources, on the other hand, refer to employment exchanges, schools/colleges, floating labour and persons recommended by present employees.

1) The Internal Source:

It is often credited with being better than the external. This is argued on the ground that the morale of employees is raised by cultivating the internal source. Another and cogent argument in favour of the internal source is that the employer is in a better position to evaluate those who work for him then outside candidates. This, however, is valid only when a satisfactory record of progress, experience and service of its employees is kept; otherwise, the internal source will de-generate into an undeserved monopoly for those on the payroll.

The chief weaknesses of the internal source are twofold: danger of "inbreeding" and possible inadequacy of supply. The first arises out of the fact that a learner seldom has ideas or notions that differ widely from those of his teacher. Consequently, they seldom contribute any startling
innovations or make suggestions (which are of vital importance in a competitive economy). Further, a policy of using internal sources also breaks down when there are numerous vacancies. For example, during a period of rapid expansion, the internal source is by and large inadequate.

ii) The External Source:

Ultimately, of course, all vacancies must be filled from the outside. Even for a company resorting to internal recruitment policy exclusively, has to go to the outside to fill vacancies at the bottom of the promotional ladder. Hence, every company must be acquainted in some degree with the kinds of external sources. Following are the widely used sources for manpower supply:

1) Government Employment Exchanges;
2) Private Employment Agencies;
3) Advertisements;
4) Casual Labour Sources;
5) Recommended Labour;
6) Schools, Colleges or Universities;
7) Trade Unions;
8) Labour Pirating; and
9) Scouting.
Evaluation of alternative Sources:

A knowledge of available sources of labour should be augmented by an evaluation of their relative merits. Some plan should be devised by which it is possible to measure how good or how poor various sources have proved to be. Perhaps the most accurate way, though by no means indisputable, of evaluating effectiveness of sources of manpower supply, is to work out statistical correlations. By this, it is possible to relate the factor of success on the job with particular sources of supply. Alternatively, a simple plan of evaluating alternative sources of supply is to use such measures as turnover, grievances and disciplinary action.

D) THE SELECTION PROCEDURE

Scope of the Selection Procedure:

The Selection procedure is the system of functions and devices adopted in a given concern for the purpose of ascertaining whether or not candidates possess the qualifications called for by a specific job or for progression through a series of jobs. The procedure can be effectively operated only when three major steps have been taken:

1) Requirement of the job to be filled have been specified,
2) Qualifications essential as well as desirable for the job have been laid down; and

3) Candidates for screening have been attracted.

After the above steps have been crossed, it is then the task of selection to match the qualifications of candidates with the requirements of the jobs. Undesirable candidates are screened out and the qualified retained. Selection may be contrasted with recruitment, although they are obviously complementary functions. Recruitment is 'positive'; it involves finding manpower and encouraging potential employees to seek jobs with the company. Selection is 'negative'; it involves screening and appraising these applicants and rejecting those who are unsuited for the jobs to be filled. Of course, the recruitment programme, if it is well-considered and adequately planned, involves an element of selection. It seeks to give special attention to those sources known to provide acceptable candidates and to avoid sources known to be unproductive. 7

Although selection procedures existing with companies in this country differ widely--some are

content with a cursory personal interview and a simple physical examination while others at the opposite end have laid down elaborate series of tests, examinations, interviews and reference checks -- almost all selection procedures must include -- and in fact they do -- the following broad steps :-

1) Designing Procedural and Structural relations,
2) Initiating the selection process,
3) Making the Candidates available for selection,
4) Gathering information about candidates,
5) Interpreting findings,
6) Making decisions and recording results,
7) Inducting successful candidates.

It could be observed here that thoroughness of any selection procedure depends upon a number of factors -

(a) The consequences of faulty selection must be weighed carefully against the rigidity and intensity of the selection procedures. This is influenced by the length of training period, money invested in new employees, level and complexity of jobs and lastly by the possible damage to the orga-
nisation if incumbent job holder fails to suit the job.

(b) Further, the company policy and top management attitude must invariably be considered before details of any selection procedure are chalked out. For example, a particular company may adopt deliberate overhiring and to count upon successively weeding out the poor performers after a few months from the pay roll. However, this procedure apart from being most unsuitable to Indian companies under the existing economic conditions, is costly for both the organisation as well as the individuals involved. It is costlier to the company in the sense that the money-investment in selection and training of those individuals which are at subsequent stages weeded out for their unsuitability, pushes per head cost of selection of finally retained and absorbed individuals so high as to compel the organisation to change this policy. In case of individuals, who are thus weeded out of the company, it wastes their time and energy as they might more profitably have been employed elsewhere, where the employer does not overhire.

(c) Length of the probationary period also governs the thoroughness of the selection procedures. If the period is of short duration, then the process
must be quite accurate in its predictions. This problem is especially acute if the learning period on the job is much longer than the probationary period.

(1) Design of Procedural and Structural Relations:

If the selection procedure is considered like a sequence of hurdles, then three important considerations must be answered in connection with these hurdles. First, in what order shall the hurdles be arranged? Second, who is responsible for checking the candidates as they try to cross these hurdles? And third, what are the characteristics of a good procedure of selection?

(a) Procedural Design: It demands consideration of a number of subjects. Specifically, information is to be collected as to whether a decision has been made as to how many of such factors, as the following, are to be used. (Application Form, Reference Letters, Psychological Tests, Interviews, Personal Observations, Physical Examination etc.) When the decision regarding number and kinds of hurdles to be included in a selection procedure is made, the next criterion to be decided—perhaps more difficult to do—is the matter of how detailed such tools are to be made. In other words, a degree of emphasis
on any one of the above, or on all is to be decided. Then, the sequence in which the above factors are to be arranged is to be explored. In this context, special attention is to be given to the fact whether the sequence has been arranged with a particular object in mind or whether it has been arranged in a particular order only due to convention or convenience. The emphasis on answers to the above questions depend in part upon the significance placed upon procurement phase of personnel management. The belief that good selection is the heart of employee productivity and better human relations will warrant spending more time and money on careful consideration and planning of selection procedures.

The answers to above questions also depend upon other factors prevailing in the economy. For example, the business conditions, availability or scarcity of labour also are to be taken into account. Where the labour is scarce, a company which sets high standards of selection will be unable to hire as many people as it needs. Conversely, in a depression, standard can be conveniently raised. Cost is also other factor affecting the design of hurdles, particularly in relation to the sequence of arrangement. Thus it is usually desirable to give extended psychological tests
only after some less expensive, preliminary steps have weeded those that are obviously unqualified. Nor would it be desirable to have medical tests in the last, for jobs which essentially demand higher standards of physical fitness. Tradition is also a factor sometimes. For example, medical examination done by honorary or part time medical men is conducted at a time suitable to the doctor and not suiting the procedural design. Now-a-days, where a physical check-up is done by company's doctor, it should be necessarily at the beginning of the series of tests. Some advocates of the use of mathematical methods in designing a selection procedure have prescribed two methods for procedural design: (1) Successive Hurdles Method and (2) Multiple correlation method. In designing a selection procedure according to successive Hurdles Method, the selection device that has the highest correlation with job success (validity) is placed first in the sequence; one with the next highest relationship with on-the-job performance is placed second and so forth.

Multiple correlation approach - which is less commonly used, is based upon the assumption that a deficiency in one factor can be counterbalanced by

an excess amount of another. If a battery of selection tests is used, the procedure may entail compiling of a composite test score index.

(b) Organisational Relationship: In the design of selection procedures, it is very important matter of how line and staff executives should share the work and also the responsibilities for selecting or rejecting a candidate. Usually, a personnel department is entrusted with the responsibility for operating the selection procedure. In this role, the personnel department, as a staff unit, has to assist the line departments, and not to dictate them. Firstly, unsuccessful candidates should be eliminated by the staff so that the time of the line executives is not spent needlessly on such candidates. Secondly, candidates possessing required qualifications should be made available to line executives as promptly as demanded.

Such assistance implies responsibility on the line executives of supplying the personnel department with the information needed for good selection. Line executive should also hold themselves ready to participate in particular phases of the selection process—such as technical interviewing—when it is required. Besides, the ultimate authority of a line
executive to accept or reject a candidate be not contravened by the personnel department. The latter has the right to offer what it considers good candidates, but the line executive must have the right to accept or to reject. Thus each executive -- line or staff -- complements the other in the work of selection.

(c) Characteristics of a Good Selection Procedure: The essential feature of a good selection procedure is that it produces results effectively and economically. To do this, each step in the selection sequence must be assigned a place so that it may contribute its fullest share to the final result. Each phase of the selection procedure must be equipped and manned to a degree commensurate with its importance. Also, for each step, it is necessary to establish (1) standards of performance and (2) means of allocating and determining responsibility for results. Also in designing, care should be taken to make a procedure reasonably flexible to meet temporary changes in volume, as well as sufficiently stable not to yield to whimsical changes. The selection process should have definitely established starting and finishing points, so that unauthorised or dangling procedures will not enter in it. Each step should take into account the
cost, time taken and the local customs. Finally, the laws relating to discrimination on grounds of race, religion, sex, nationality, cast etc., should not be transgressed by the selection procedure.

Many selection procedures place too great an emphasis on weeding out functions. Essentially they are rejection procedures. However, a number of reasons justify making selection more positive, as it can be. With manpower relatively scarce, both individual and social interests are best served when selection seeks to discover not merely whether a candidate fits a particular job under consideration at the moment, but where he can be fitted into the organization? What jobs he is qualified to fill? How can his abilities best be utilized? Are some of the questions to be asked in a positive programme of selection?. 9

**Differential Selection**: It is a policy in which the employers propose to fit the selection procedure to varying needs for manpower. In effect, such a policy seeks to avoid a single, stereo-typed selection procedure, substituting selective practices adapted to the special needs for various types of employees.

Practice in selection of a manager or executive has differed from that with which production workers are selected. The importance of such flexibility is perhaps more evident in selection of those who may be expected to assume supervisory or managerial responsibilities.

For each area of promotion, an appropriate selection procedure may be developed. Sound policy might require, for example, only a prefunctory interview and a simple physical examination for those to be employed as common labour. But for the machinist, who may later become foreman, then Superintendent and ultimate Chief Engineer, sound policy may dictate a far more complicated selection procedure involving aptitude, temperament and intelligence tests and extensive interviewing. Such a procedure would implement the policy of differential selection. 10

(ii) Initiation of Selection Procedure:

The Selection process is placed in operation by release of authority to fill an existing or expected vacancy. How such authority is released, by whom and to whom may differ from company to company. In an elementary stage organisation where the line form of organisation is in use, each executive decides for

10. Ibid - Ch. 13 pp. 240.
himself when vacancies should be

With the growth of an organisational structure, authority assumes more and more significance. The introduction of formalised records and systems is a step forward in the management of employment. Hiring Requisition is the beginning of the process. It may vary from company to company in terms of the authority of issuing such requisitions.

The personnel department should be responsible for issuing such requisitions. The personnel department should be empowered to issue such requisitions, while some other companies may allow supervisors regarding direct vacancies. For machine operators, carpenters, etc., the requisition may need approval in the case of indirect productive help such as clerks, messengers, etc. Other companies may require each requisition signed and approved by higher authorities. The reason for putting such restrictions is to avoid the possibility of unnecessary employment, which can affect the effectiveness of the employment procedure.

The requisitions for employment have to be based on the kind and amount of information that is necessary. In smaller companies, where personnel are personally acquainted with the job in

of various departments, a simple and brief form can serve the purpose of initiating the selection process. As would be true in larger organisations, where such information may not be personally known to the employment officer or his subordinates, a more detailed statement for labour requisition is needed.

The requisition may be recorded in a labour register maintained by the personnel department in order to trace and control requisitions and their final disposal. The assistants in the personnel department, who might have specialised themselves with certain types of jobs and their supply market, prepare themselves to start checking on available candidates.

(iii) Making the candidates available for Selection:

For non-technical posts and also for subordinate level technical posts for which basically qualified candidates are available plenty in number, the list of candidates is made available for scrutiny, generally by any one or a suitable combination of the following methods:

1) Advertising in News-Papers;

ii) Notices on company notice boards, and also to sister or group concerns, colleges
and/or Universities;
i) Reference to Employment Exchanges and
iv) By revising the applications already received by the company when there was no need to recruit any such post.

There are also a couple of other methods—which are almost non-existent in majority of industries in this country. They are:— (i) By providing scholarships or Fellowships and direct grants to colleges/Universities to create suitable employment list ready whenever required; and (ii) By providing industrial "Internships" or "Applied Research Opportunities" by which promising individuals can as well gain practical experience.

For the shortages of qualified high-level talent at the management or executive level, more aggressive efforts could be made for making available sufficiently enough number of candidates for selection and screening. Some of the efforts could be:

1) By Advertising in News-papers and college/University bulletins;

ii) By organising 'Introduction Seminars' for college professors;

iii) By retaining Consultant's Firms;

iv) By reference to Professional Associations (By speaking informally over a dinner/banquet or formally by putting job requirements on job files and the job-seekers
submitting their resumes and applications)

v) By scouting: Scouting is the practice in which employers send their representatives to the source from which employees are to be hired. Labour scouts were used by large firms to recruit large numbers of unskilled workers in Europe in the years before immigration was sharply restricted. 11 The essence of scouting is the positive action by employers in going to the sources of labour supplies, as contrasted with other recruitment practices in which potential employees are expected to come to the employer.

However, cost of recruitment through this method may be prohibitive. Further, it may encourage a tendency to exaggerate job prospects and actual opportunities. Besides, to the extent that recruiters actually make offers of jobs, the practice raises serious questions about the relationship between such new employees and their supervisors.

vi) By Labour Pirating. Active Scouting and Advertising may have destabilizing effects in tight labour markets. Under such circumstances, some employers have extended their scouting activities to the employees of other local companies. They may make direct approaches to these workers, offering them additional pay or other benefits if they will move. This practice, frequently described as 'pirating', though beneficial at times, often causes great concern on the part of employers. 12

(iv) Gathering Information about the candidates:

The work of gathering information about the prospective employees can be divided into two ways of:

(1) what information is sought and how and (ii) how

11. Ibid. Ch.12, pp. 228.
12. Ibid. Ch.12, pp. 229.
the information is interpreted after it is collected.

(a) **Information sought**: 
A variety of information may be gathered from and about the candidates for vacancies. The general class of information may include the following:

i) Training, Experience and General Background;

ii) Mental ability and level of Intelligence;

iii) Physical fitness, Aptitude and Skills;

iv) Moral and Emotional Characteristics and skills;

v) Family background and Financial Status;

vi) Psychological and Sociological aspects.

(b) **The Methods of deriving the above information**: 
The general groups of methods of collecting information include the following:

i) Interviews;

ii) Tests and Examinations;

iii) Personal Observations;

iv) Application forms, References and similar reports;

v) Trade Union Sources.

Out of the above methods, application forms, interviews, references and tests are more often and gen-
erally used for the purposes whereas the union source is in a way not properly made use of. Hence they are treated in this order hereafter:

(A) Application Forms:

It is, no doubt, one of the most common tools of selection. It invariably occupies a leading role because information collected by this method provides a clue to the need of and a basis for other selection processes. Its layout varies widely from company to company, but commonly sought are the following classes of information:

1) Identifying information such as name, address, etc.,

2) Personal information such as marital status, number of dependents etc.,

3) Physical details such as height, weight, health, defects etc.,

4) Educational Qualifications;

5) Professional or any other previous experience through the last 3/4 or all employers;

6) Names of References—Personal and business;

7) Miscellaneous remarks and comments, such as hobbies, extra-curricular and sports, interests etc.,

Before determining what information is to be asked for on an application form, it is essential
to reach a compromise between what is wanted and needful and what can be obtained effectively on such a form. However, the application form alone is seldom used as the sole basis of employment decisions. Its fundamental use is for reference checking, good interviewing and correlation with testing data. However, of course, when an application indicates a lack of basic training or educational qualifications or experience, the application serves an useful purpose of rejecting such candidate.

Design or form of the application form should be carefully attended to. Firstly, from the viewpoint of the applicants, following devices always prove useful: grouping similar questions together or in adjacent blocks of space; using 'yes' and 'no' questions as well as questions that can be checked, whenever possible; secondly, it must equally be designed with the company's purpose in mind. It should be relatively easy to handle in the employment office. Here consideration of the matters such as ease of filing, durability in handling, prominence of the most pertinent information. Besides, two or three suitable type of application forms may conveniently be used so that they will fit the various classes and levels of applicants to be selected for
different vacancies, for example ministerial employees, floor level technical employees and executive/managerial employees.

According to recent management scientists, there are two methods of evaluating a filled-in application form: (i) Clinical Method and (ii) Statistical Method. In the former, a careful study of the answers to the questions is made to find out meaningful patterns that can reveal important information regarding individual's personality and make up. The advocates of this method claim that a properly designed application form can provide clues to leadership ability, assertiveness etc. William H. Whyte, Jr. has made a sharp criticism of this method of psychologically analyzing job application in his book "The Organisation Man" (New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc. 1956. Chapter 15). His point of view is that in making these psychological predictions, the analyst is projecting his own world, value judgments, and standards too heavily into the picture. He claims that even if the interviewers and the analysts are able to diagnose accurately an applicant's personality, the personnel specialists are still not

at all certain nor in agreement upon what characteristics are essential for, say, a successful salesman or an executive.

In perspective, it seems safe to say that a well trained interviewer is on solid ground if he makes only tentative inferences based upon a clinical study of an application form and waits for much more conclusive evidence in interviews, tests and background investigations.

In the statistical Evaluation method, the basic inference is derived from the fact that over the years, a great deal of statistical correlation work has been done with the "Weighted Application Form" 14. In order to use a weighted application form in selection, it is necessary to have a different form for each occupational group. In developing a weighted form, it is necessary to identify those items of personal history of present employees which differentiate between groups of successful and unsuccessful employees. For example, a successful salesman tends to be married, belongs to large number of clubs and organisations etc.,

However, more reliance upon the statistical formula of a weighted application form can result in fake

predictions in individual cases. However, it is useful only in that it certainly improves predictive probabilities.

In some current practices, candidates who pass the preliminary screening interview are asked, as a second step, to fill in a formal blank application for employment. In other practices, this written application precedes the preliminary screening interview and may determine which applicants will be interviewed. The policy in this regard i.e. whether the applicants shall make written applications before or after the preliminary interview depends upon the nature of the jobs to be filled, the location of the employer, current state of the labour market, customary practices, the number of vacancies to be filled and other such variables.

Advantages of getting filled blank application forms before the preliminary interview:

There are some wholesome advantages of this system. Some of them are as follows:

1) Work of the Personnel Department is much reduced;

ii) When the number of applicants is comparatively larger, preliminary screening is possible and reduction in interview work and time is thereby achieved.

iii) By such preliminary screening, the time
and cost on travel for interview is saved for long-distance candidates;

iv) A permanent record of the candidates is created in the personnel department;

v) The building up of a waiting list becomes possible;

vi) The applicants selected for interview are likely to receive more personalized treatment than is possible in a crowd of candidates.

**Drawbacks of the above system:**

The advantages mentioned above are to be weighed against the following drawbacks before a decision on the system to be adopted in this regard is taken:

1) For certain types of jobs, the applicants may encounter difficulties in answering certain questions in the application form;

ii) Answers may have less reliability than would their conversation on a face-to-face basis;

iii) Candidates may resent a detailed enquiry into their training, experience and background without an opportunity to discuss these and enquire about the employer.

**Functional Application Forms:**

Organisations that have carefully considered and prepared their application forms recognising the above-mentioned difficulties and deficiencies have resorted to a quite different policy. Blank application forms have been designed for the specific task
they are to perform, namely, to aid in the selection of applicants. In these practices, the permanent personnel records are distinguished from the application forms duly filled in; and such record is prepared only by and for those who are finally selected and employed. A corollary of this basic principle holds that forms should be specifically designed for the type of position/s to be filled. Though it does not mean that a separate form must be prepared for each job in the organisation, it does mean that the distinctive forms will be provided for major types of positions or for each group of jobs having distinctive personnel requirements. This generally results in a reduction in the size and details of the application forms. In many cases, the preliminary application form may be reduced to a post-card or similar size. If indicators are numerous, the form may require a full-page; but old-style three-four page folders become unnecessary.

**Predictive or Weighed Application Forms**

In a sense, all application forms are predictive. They seek to discover definite indicators of job requirements and thus to predict the success or failure of those applicants who may be employed.
In some selection procedures, however, the form has been designed to discover not only the personal characteristics of applicants but also certain other information believed to be associated with the success as a long-term employee of the organization. The additional information is weighed according to its relative significance as an indicator of success. The application form thus becomes a combined preliminary summary of personal data and something of an employment aptitude test.

Such combination forms may be valuable and effective tools in selection. They can be developed, however, only when fairly large numbers are to be selected over a considerable period of time. Their designing is time-consuming and may be expensive. The usual way of preparing such forms involves a preliminary identification of successful and unsuccessful employees (which may be distinguished on supervisor's ratings, sales, output or similar measures of value to the employer). Various personal and social item suspected of having a possible relationship to success are then correlated with these things. Thus, number of dependents, or financial status may correlate positively with success on job, or the number of jobs held in recent years, or mari-
tal status may show a negative correlation.\(^{15}\)

(B) Personal Observation:

In spite of the increasing reliance upon the sophisticated steps in a selection procedure such as psychological tests, trade tests etc., and despite the high probabilities of error due to personal prejudice, ineffectiveness (for want of suitable training), the step of personal observation is no doubt widely used and weighs heavily in reaching decisions in the process of selection interviewing, which essentially is a form of personal observation, has been recognised to be of higher significance in selection since its technique have been studied more scientifically during recent years. This has been dealt more in detail after a few important steps such as (i) Use of References, (ii) Trade Union Source and (iii) Selection Tests have been taken into consideration as their place in the selection process.

(C) Use of References:

The use of references is also common to most selection processes. This implies reliance upon the evaluation of the previous employers, friends, professional acquaintances and professors in educational

institutions. In as much as most people are reluctant to make reports that may hinder the chances of selection of particular candidates, their opinions are not likely to result in accurate appraisals unless carefully controlled and examined. It may be said that "to whom it may concern" letters of reference are generally regarded as of slight value. It is because not many people are likely to include a critical appraisal of the candidate in a letter to be carried by him and addressed to no one in particular. Such letters can be little more than means of identification. They may, however, suggest the possibility of further confidential enquiries from the same source.

Serious question must be raised as to the honesty and frankness with which written commitments will be made by references. Little incentive is provided for frankness and candor.\textsuperscript{16} On the contrary, inspite of assurances that replies will be regarded as confidential, such reports, not infrequently, fell into the hands of candidates or their friends. The probability of receiving more accu-

\textsuperscript{16} Ibid. Ch. 43 pp. 248.
rate information increases only when there exist some close acquaintance of the executives of new company with the executives of the older. The professional associations of inter-company executives in a locality could serve a vital role towards such close acquaintance. Alternatively, if a reference form is used which requires specific answers, the chances of getting unbiased references are increased. Utility of this step to the selection process also depends upon the speed with which the reference can be got checked. In case of urgent needs to fill certain vacancies, speedier methods such as telephone, telex etc., can also be relied upon.

When names of potential references are requested, they have some value in selection even if no enquiry is addressed to the individual mentioned. They indicate acquaintance and association. They may be a guide to earlier experience. Frequently, an employer may know that if the applicant worked with one of the references, he must be competent or must have received good training or valuable experience. For all these reasons, requests may be justified even though no follow up is intended.

However, in an underdeveloped country like
India, where chances of impartial and unbiased references are comparatively rare, excessive reliance on this step in selection needs some caution.

(D) Trade Union Sources:

Information can also be obtained from concerned trade union office in case of those candidates only, who were employed in some other company prior to present. It appears probable that as time goes on, trade union office is likely to take more interest in who among their members, is employed, in their competency to hold jobs, and in the company's tests of selection.

(E) Selection Tests:

In recent years, selection tests have become a well-accepted part of a selection process for the majority of medium and large-sized companies. These tests are usually conducted by Industrial Psychologists. The companies which employ such tests may not use them for all the jobs for which they hire; but certainly for some. Widespread use of tests commenced with world war I, when the Army Alpha Test was used to aid in the selection and placement of soldiers. Though it gathered momentum during the two world wars, it certainly came into its own since the 1940.
The installation of a sound testing programme in an organisation is time consuming and costly. Each test adopted must be validated in one's own organisation before reliance can be placed upon it. A simple question will correctly indicate the validity of tests in a selection process in a particular company. "To what extent will a given test or tests improve the accuracy of selection predictions over that obtained without tests?" The organisation should certainly get a higher percentage of successful employees through the use of tests.

THE ROLE OF INTERVIEWING AND COUNSELLING:

The interview is one of the most commonly used method of seeking information from job applicants. Despite the noteworthy development of a selection procedure, the interview remains the single most important tool in the hiring programme. Interview is a face-to-face, oral, observational and personal appraisal method. The interviewer is in the unique position of being able to integrate all of the information and impressions collected about the applicant from all sources: - application form, preliminary interview (at the personnel office), test scores and reference checks. The interviewer can then assess a candidate
on such attributes as personal appearance, mannerism, emotional stability, maturity, attitudes, motivation and interests. The interview permits deep probing into the candidates' home and family background, education, previous work experience, avocations and other pertinent areas.

Interview has been defined as "a conversation or verbal interaction, normally between two people, for a particular purpose." The method of interviewing and counseling, though significant in the procedure of hiring, is equally important in handling grievances, taking disciplinary actions, vocational guidance, handling employees removed off the payroll, assisting employees with personal problems, handling transfers and promotions and conducting training sessions.

Good interviewing is not easily achieved. It must be based upon sound rules and applied by skilled personnel. The following aspects will have to be well considered before planning and conducting any interview:

a) Purpose of Interview

b) Types of Interview

c) Technical Factors

d) Procedures to be followed

and e) Rules

As already noted above, interviewing can be used in a variety of personnel areas such as employment, training, human relations, labour relations etc. However, the scope of this study being confined to recruitment aspect, we are concentrating on selection interviews alone.

(a) Purpose of Interview:

The goals of a selection interview can be grouped into three broad categories. First, the interviewer seeks to obtain sufficient knowledge about the candidate to determine whether he is suitable for employment in the organisation and for the particular job under consideration. But this is not the only purpose of a selection interview. Employment is a two-way proposition. Not only is the employer choosing an employee, but also the candidate choosing an employer. Therefore, the interview has a second purpose - the giving of sufficient information about the organisation, job requirements and people with whom the applicant will have to work - so as to enable an applicant to make an intelligent decision on acceptance or rejection of the job if it should be offered.
to him. From this point of view, a selection pro-
cess is equally a rejection process by the candi-
dates as well as by the employers. The third goal
on an interviewing situation is to deal with the
candidate in such a manner as to maintain and cr-
create good will towards the company and its mana-
gement.

(b) Types of Interviews

The aforesaid purposes could well be achieved
by any of a number of types of interviewing. In pra-
ctice, there are, no doubt, as many types of inter-
viewing as there are interviewers. By and large,
much interviewing has been unplanned and unskilled.
In such cases, though the interviewers may have some
idea of the purpose he desires to achieve or more
specifically of the information he desires to obtain
from the candidate, he mostly relies upon on-the-spot
motivation to conduct interviews. Broadly, however,
the practices of interviewing can be grouped into
the following broad types of interviews:

1) Planned Interviews;
2) Patterned Interviews;
3) Non-directive Interviews;
4) Depth Interviews;
5) Group Interviews and
6) Stress Interviews.
1) **Planned Interview**:

A number of interviewers increase the utility of their interviews by following a definite plan of action. Before entering into an actual interview, they work out in their minds — though not necessarily on paper — what they hope to accomplish, what kind of information they are to seek or give, how they will conduct the interview and how much time they will allot to it. Deviations from this plan may be made by the interviewers during the progress of interview; but it must be with full knowledge of the deviation and also of the fact how far he has deviated from the pre-planned way. With some formalities about such a plan, flexibility is one of its major advantages.

ii) **Patterned Interview**:

A more formalised type of planning is that illustrated by the patterned interview. A patterned interview, which is sometimes called standardised interview, uses as its basis an extremely comprehensive questionnaire used by the interviewer in asking his questions. It is therefore highly structured.

Two of the best known patterned interview procedures are the MacMurray Pattern-
ed Interview Form - published by Dartnell Corporation, Chicago, and the Diagnostic Interviewers' Guide developed by E.F. Wonderlic. Validation studies might have, no doubt, revealed good results with these methods, but experienced interviewers generally may not like to be constrained by adherence to a rigid schedule of questions.

iii) The Non-directive Interview:

Apparently this has been a type during recent years only. As its name implies, the applicant in such an interview is not directed by questions or comments as to what he should talk about. The interviewer's brief phrases are non-committal so that the candidate himself determines the trend of conversation.

The theory behind such interviews is that a candidate is thus more likely to reveal his true self than when he answers set questions. With set questions, the candidate tends to respond as he thinks the interviewer wants him to, or with favourable answers, whether they are true or not. But in the non-directive approach, a candidate will reveal by what he includes and what he does not,

18. Ibid. p. 278,
state much about his goals, interests and competency.

An important preliminary step in non-directive interviews is to study the requirements of the job to be filled and then get acquainted as much as possible about the candidate from such sources as the application form, reference checks, tests, etc. From such studies, the interviewer ascertains what he must listen for, while the candidate is talking.

Such interviews are initiated by putting the candidate at ease by usual introduction, courtesies and idle talk. Then by appropriate statement or introductory/opening question, he is made to talk about his personal history. When he starts talking the interviewer must keep him talking by suitable hint-questions (but without much interruption, argument, cross-questions).

The interviewer must be skilled in judging the story the candidate tells against the normal standards of human behaviour, attitudes and attainments. In terms of how the candidate conducts himself, from his disclosure of training and experience, and from his statement on recreational and social activities, the interviewer must appraise the candidate's quali-
fications to fill the job in question.

(iv) The Depth Interview:

Although not strictly a distinct type, the depth interview is worthy of special note. It is aimed to go into considerable detail on particular subject of an important nature, the idea being that intensive examination of a candidate's background and thinking is indispensable for correct evaluations and decisions.

The emphasis is upon "why", and, if possible, the why of the why. Of course, the questions are not asked crudely and belligerently. Finess is required. It is felt that only through such exhaustive analysis can one get the true picture of a candidate. And as far as time, resources, and skill permit and conditions warrant, the results of interviewing in depth will yield much revealing information.

(v) The group Interview:

An interesting departure is to interview groups rather than individuals. This may be done either by one or more executives question a group of candidates or by having a group of executives observe a number of candidates talking over some assigned questions or problems. Such an approach has two major advantages.
First, the time of busy executives is conserved because all candidates are interviewed at one time. And second, it is possible to get a better picture of candidates when they have to react to and against each other.

Dele Yoder states that the theory behind such "Panel Interviewing", as he calls this - holds that several appraisals are better than one and that the candidate thus gains some notion of the kind of people with whom he would be working, if he accepts an invitation to join the team. 19

(vi) The Stress Interview:

The stress interview was devised during World War II by the United States Government for selecting undercover agents for the Office of Strategic Services. In this type of interview, the interviewer assumes a role of hostility towards the subject. He becomes an interrogator. He puts the man on the defensive and deliberately seeks to annoy, embarrass and frustrate him. He seeks to cause the candidate to lose control of his emotions. Sometimes a candidate is assigned a problem of unusual difficulty and with considerable annoy-

The object of stress interview is to find those persons who are able to maintain control over their behaviour when they are highly annoyed internally. They must be able to act poised and well adjusted. They must be resourceful and have their wits about them in this situation.

The stress interview should be used only by a very well-trained person and only for those types of occupations where action under stress is an essential ingredient of the job, for example, police work, spying or secret agents. For the typical industrial or business situation, this technique is generally inappropriate. It tends to inhibit open and full response. When an interviewer deliberately adopts a hostile attitude towards the applicant, he finds that the latter, being on the defensive, will tend to guard his every response and give only socially acceptable answers.

(c) Technical Factors:

The effectiveness of whatever type of interviewing is basically dependent upon the skill with which certain factors common to all interviewing are utilized. These factors are language, the sense
and mechanical aids.

1) Language:

Interviewing takes place mainly through the media of words. They represent ideas, thought and feelings; though they are not the actual ideas, thoughts and feelings. Unfortunately, words are not precise and universally accepted representatives. A good interviewer does not, therefore, presume that his ideas will be conveyed to another simply because he chooses words which have a given meaning to him. Appropriate selection of words, thus, helps to clarify exchanges between interviewer and interviewee, and serves to minimize undesirable reactions. Besides, appropriate usage of language can avoid embarrassment and mistakes, and can lead conversations along desired channels. On one hand, words whose meanings are not known to the listener should be avoided. If poly-syllabic verbiage which the interviewee does not understand is used, he seldom, if ever, will reveal his ignorance. While on the other hand, the interviewer who can ask suggestive questions, use descriptive terms, and draw clear word pictures will get fuller answers. He will reduce the number of 'yes-no' answers.

ii) The Senses:

The interviewer must use his senses to good advantage, especially those of sight and hearing. By careful practice, the interviewer can improve his observational skills. He can note the behavioral patterns of the interviewee. What mannerism or the expressive movements does he have, such as excessive hand movements, ear pulling and nervous jerking? How does he control his physical posture during the interview? Does his face and eyes show unusual changes as questions become more intensive or border on the personal or embarrassing? Are there evidences on the clothing or hands of poor personal habits or lack of cleanliness? Observation of such items will provide some clues as to how a man acts.

Hearing, too, deserves special attention. Most people believe they are good listeners, which is far from truth. Only through conscious practice can one become a good listener. A good listener must listen. He should restrain the desire to talk until the time it is ripe for it. He does not argue, interrupt or disapprove without due cause. Further a good listener listens with sincerity, interest and apparent
attention. He gets himself involved in the problem, exercises his mind in grasping the ideas being expressed, and applies his logical faculties to the case at hand. Lastly, a good listener, through his behaviour and expressions, conveys to the interviewee his undivided concern for what is being said.

iii) Mechanical Aids:

The efficacy of interviewing is also being raised by the use of mechanical aids. Recorders of various types are being used to obtain transcriptions of interviews. The record can be replayed as often as needed to verify and evaluate the information so obtained. In rare instances, movies have been taken, so that visual record is also obtained. However, this is practicable and suitable for selection of top-ranking executives only. Of interest as an observational aid is the use of window glass which is uni-directional. A number of people can observe an interview without themselves being seen. If a hidden microphone is used, the observers can also hear the conversations.

Preparations for the Interview:

A number of actions should be taken prior to the actual interview itself. Privacy is of utmost importance. This is to ensure unrestrained response
from the interviewee. Closely related to privacy is freedom from interruptions, (say by frequent telephone calls, messages etc.). Not only is this rude to the interviewee but it also interrupts the channel of thought and takes several minutes to realign their thinking. Moreover, freedom from interruptions creates the impression in the individual that the interviewer considers him and what he has to say so important that he will devote undivided attention to the interview.

Enough time should be allowed in the interview schedule to permit a complete exposition of all the facts necessary for a fair assessment of the job seeker. For the main interview, this would mean a time period of 25 to 30 minutes for candidates for normal vacancies. On the other hand for high-level jobs such as technical, managerial or sales where personality and motivation are critically important, an allowance of at least one hour per interview is not much.

**Procedures of Interviewing:**

From what has been said thus far, it can be seen that interviewing involves (1) establishment of the purposes of interviewing; (2) design of a plan to gather, record and analyse information and
sions thereupon; and (3) development of interviewers. Now as enough has been said of these three points, attention can now be directed to the second and third points.

Gathering and Interpreting Information:

Interviewing is largely a looking and listening process; information may be easily forgotten or distorted with the passage of time, unless recorded. While a few companies use sound recordings (tape recorders etc.) for this purpose, by far the greater number employ the printed and written word to preserve pertinent data and findings. The forms for such purposes record (a) the areas of information that are to be considered (b) the interviewer's findings by areas, (c) his interpretations of findings by area and (d) his total detailed evaluations.

The final test of interviewing and counseling is, of course, whether or not they achieve established goals satisfactorily. It may be noted that interviewing was once considered to be an unreliable tool of selection; and to this day, it remains so when performed in an unplanned and unregulated manner by unskilled interviewers. However, in those instances in which interviews have been carefully
planned by skilled personnel, the results have been highly successful. This can be illustrated by a number of results, which are sufficient to show the value of good interviewing practices. It may be noted here that such practices are not perfect, but they are far better than poor practices. Employment interviews, do not perfectly separate the promising from the unpromising; the successful from the unsuccessful. If they are used without a thoughtful planning, or if their results are not carefully checked and analyzed, they can mislead and result in serious errors in selection.21

**Developing Skillful Interviewers:**

It has already been noted that an important element in interviewing is the skill of the interviewer. This suggests the need for careful selection and training of interviewers. A list of qualifications for a good interviewer would include the following:

1) A suitable background of experience similar to that of those who are to be interviewed;
2) Maturity of action and viewpoint;
3) Experience and training in sizing up

people from their behaviour and actions;

iv) Good judgement (so that proper weight is assigned to information obtained from the interview in relation to other sources of information);

v) An ability to plan the work of interviewing and to see its implications.

Individuals with such capacities or potentials are not too difficult to find in most companies. Usually, the main thing to be done is to train available talent properly. The practices of training interviewers are varied. Some use conference method to conduct training sessions. Some give an opportunity to attend specialised courses either at evening colleges or at specialised training institutes.

v) Interpreting Findings:

The next important step in the selection process is to interpret findings and make decisions. Of course, this is a phase of selection that takes place at all stages of the process. In as much as the selection process is also a rejection process, some candidates will fall by the wayside after each step. Some may be rejected before they are even permitted to fill out an application form, others will be rejected because of the screening of filled in
application forms, and still others will not fail until a final survey of all evidence is taken. Figure No.1.1 on the next page shows a Flow Chart of a selection procedure which also indicates rejections at each stage.

vi) Making Decisions:

This task of separating 'acceptable' from 'non-acceptable' candidates is very difficult, particularly in the marginal cases, and in cases where the candidates succeeded in passing the preliminary hurdles. Most companies leave this to the personal judgement of the employment officer or the line executive in important cases.

Reports and Records:

As decisions are reached regarding applicants, it is necessary to make out reports and records. These records may be classified according to whether the candidates are rejected, are not hired but would be desirable employees if vacancies are available, or are hired.

Keeping records of candidates not selected may seem a useless gesture, but it is not necessarily so. If considerable study has been made of a can-
FIG. No. 1.

FLOW CHART OF
SELECTION PROCEDURES

1. RECEIPTION OF APPLICANT

2. PRELIMINARY INTERVIEWS

3. APPLICATION BLANK

4. EMPLOYMENT TESTS

5. INTERVIEWS

INVESTIGATION OF PREVIOUS HISTORY

PRELIMINARY SELECTION IN PERSONALITY

NEGATIVE DECISION

6. FINAL SELECTION BY LINE EXECUTIVES

7. PHYSICAL EXAM

8. PHYSICAL EXAM

9. PHYSICAL EXAM

10. PLACEMENT

didate and he is found unsuitable, records of the case will prevent a re-study if the applicant should later present himself again. Further, a record of reasons for rejection is highly desirable in cases in which a company might be accused of unfair labour practices. This is important as State Laws have laid down rules governing fair employment.

Almost all companies maintain a record of candidates who would make desirable employees if vacancies existed. The usefulness of such record depends on the economic position of the industries and business. In a tight labour market, such record is found to be useless unless followed up within a very short time. On the other hand, during recession periods, application thus filed, may be a useful source even after a lapse of time.

As to the candidates who are employed, the system of keeping records may vary from company to company. But careful planning of personal records will make it possible to maintain them at minimum expenses.

vii) **Induction of New Employees**

The final step in the selection process is that of inducting the new employees into his new
surroundings and placing him on his new job.

The stage of induction should take into account two major aspects: (a) acquainting the new employee with his new surroundings and company rules and regulations, and (b) indoctrinating him in the 'philosophy' of the company and its reasons for existence.

In acquainting the new employee with his new surroundings and company regulations, practice tends towards giving introductory materials and instructions away from the working centre. Either a classroom lecture or a group conference (in certain cases use of a movie too) is held by members of the personnel department. In any case, such subjects as the following are covered:

1) Company history; products and major operations;

2) General company policies and regulations;

3) Relation of foremen and personnel department;

4) Rules and Regulations regarding:
   a) wages and wage payment
   b) Hours of work and overtime
   c) Safety and accidents
   d) Holidays and vacations
e) Discipline and grievances
f) Uniforms and clothing

v) Economic and recreational services available:
   a) Insurance schemes
   b) Pensions/Gratuity
   c) Social, Cultural and Sports facilities

vi) Opportunities:
   a) Promotion and transfer
   b) Job stabilization
   c) Suggestion system

It is ordinarily not expected that much of the forgoing will stick in the minds of the inductee, but this preliminary step does serve to prove that the company is taking a sincere interest in getting him off to a good start. Moreover, booklets and pamphlets which may be supplied, provide a permanent record of the materials that have been seen and heard by inductees during the induction process.

After this, the new employee is conducted to his workplace. Instead of giving oral instructions and then leaving to find his way himself, as is done in few companies, a better practice to have either a representative of the personnel department act as guide or someone from the operating department come
over and take the new employee in hand. The inductee, at his work-place, is introduced to his supervisor and fellow workers. The supervisor or a senior employee then gives routine instructions on such matters as to how to come in and out, how his job is to be done etc. After an employee has been put on his job, good induction practice also includes periodic follow-up. This serves to check whether the employee has been properly placed and also whether any problems have arisen that require attention.

**Indoctrination:** The indoctrination stage provides an excellent opportunity to develop favourable attitudes of new employees towards their new employment and surroundings. Perhaps the essence of indoctrination is to convince the employee that what is good for the company is also good for the employee. Indoctrination based on mutual self-interest, moreover, must be a continuous process, beginning when a person is employed and persisting throughout the relationship.