Chapter — II

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT - AN OVERVIEW
A review of the existing literature on Human Resource Management and Development is attempted in this chapter. The review is arranged thematically and divided into following sub-sections.

2.1 Evaluation and Emergence - from 1760 onwards


2.3 Human Resource Management Approach


2.5 Human Resource Development - World and Indian Scenario.

2.6 Human Resource Development Mechanisms

2.7 Human Resource Development in Service Sectors

2.8 Human Resource Development in Rural Areas

2.9 HRD in Panchayatraj Institutions

2.10 HRD in Voluntary Organisations

2.11 Summary - Inferences from the Review of Literature
2.1 Evolution and Emergence

A probe into the roots of Human Resource Management, leads us back to the period of Industrial Revolution (1760 - 1850), which was characterised by the invention of machinery, power connected machines and formation of factories employing workers. The rapid expansion of industries made the management of finances, products, raw materials, and labourers a subject of discussion, study and evaluation. This led to the emergence of some systematic attention in the functioning of factories, which paved the way for the foundation of Human Resource Management.

The British mathematician, Charles Babbage, was the first scientist to demonstrate the application of scientific methods of observation, experiment and verification in the management process. He recommended “accurate observation, exact measurement and precise knowledge of the cause and effect relationship as a substitute for guess work, intuition, and opinion.” (Prasad and Bannerjee 1985 : 7). But the honour of being the first to establish the claim of management as a science has been unanimously given to Frederick Winslow Taylor, whose view of scientific management is based on the 'functional organisation'.
2.2 Stages of Development

Scientists in the field of management have conveniently divided the period of development of human resource management into nine inter-related stages. These are:

1) Scientific Management Period (1895-1915)
2) Classical Organisation Period (1916-1929)
3) Human Relations Movement (1930-1950)
5) Behavioural Science Movement (1960-1980)
6) Neo-Classical Approach (1960-1970)
7) Organisational Development Movement (1950 to present)
8) The Process System View - contemporary view
9) The Corporate Culture Analysis - contemporary view

2.2.1 Scientific Management Movement (1885 to 1915)

Winslow Taylor, one of the early prophets of scientific management movement was instrumental in bringing the logic of efficiency to management. His concept of ‘functional organisation’ was the foundation stone for the development of management process. This concept is based on the arrangement and division of work in such a way that the worker has to do only the possible functions. Taylor has conducted a number of live experiments in this area and
asserted that management persons should have “adequate intelligence, an orderly habit of mind and the ability to see a subject as a whole while keeping track of the parts. (Taylor 1947).

Along with Taylor, Henry L. Gantt, Frank William Gilberth and others were also involved in the process of improving the management systems based on the ‘principle of precision’ Gantt developed the methods of planning and managerial control with emphasis on time and cost. He developed the ‘Gantt Chart’ for operating the method. This chart was the first technique developed to analyse how the parts of a programme are related and fit together in due course. Frank Gilbreth’s major contributions were in the field of time and motion study. He analysed the body movement of workers and said that there were much wasted movements in the working pattern of labourers. He proved that these movements could be systematised for achieving greater output, Lillian Gilbreth, the wife of Frank Gilbreth, an industrial psychologist, is also credited with a pioneering work relating to the principles of scientific management to psychology. She is widely acclaimed as the ‘first lady of management’.

Taylor affirmed that ‘productivity’ was the answer to both higher wages and higher profits. He said that the key to productivity without undue expenditure of energy is the application of scientific method. In his address to the House of
Representatives Committee in the United States of America, Taylor put forward the ‘science of shovelling’. He illustrated that shovelling could be broken down into separate and more comfortable movements, each of which had an optimal level of mechanical efficiency and greater level of output. Taylor suggested a sort of ‘mental revolution’ to integrate the interests of management and labour into a mutually rewarding system. This includes the time and motion study, proper training, physical and mental matching of the job, planning and decision of work. (Edwin A Locke 1982: 14-24). “Overall, there is little doubt that application of the principles of scientific management has resulted in much higher productivity than would otherwise have been possible. What is remarkable is not that Taylor was ‘correct in the context of his time’, but that many of his insights are still valid today. (Casio 1989: 42). Some of the key reasons for the gradual decline of scientific management are:

1) emergence of labour as critical factor in the firm,
2) increasing complexity of markets and products,
3) political social and cultural changes,
4) organisations became large and more complex. (Wilson & Rosenfeld 1990:8)

2.2.2 Classical Organisation Theory (1916 to 1929)

Classical Organisation Theory was put forwarded by Henry Fayol. His book ‘Administration Industrielle et Generale’ (The General and Industrial
Administration) analysed the issues faced by the top management. This was against the ‘work focus’ of scientific management. Fayol was the first scientist to discuss management as a process, and in the process he distinguished six main branches such as technical, commercial, financial, security, accounting and administration. The administrative function is only a specialised function, which occurs in a greater or lesser degree in relation to all other activities. As one goes higher in the ladder of hierarchy, administrative knowledge and skill become more important than technical skill. According to Fayol, it is the unwillingness of the top executive to recognize this fact is often responsible for the failure of a business.

After analysing all the ingredients and nature of administration, Fayol listed fourteen principles, which formed the central part of his theory of administration. These are: authority and responsibility, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interest to general interest, division of work, remuneration of personnel, centralisation, scalar chain, order, equity, stability of tenure of personnel, initiative and ‘esprit de corps’. Having enumerated the principles of administration, Fayol went on to discuss the five elements of management via planning, organisation, co-ordination, motivation and control. He observed with great foresight that since all enterprises
require managing, the formulation of a theory of management based on sound principles is necessary for it to be effectively propagated and taught.

2.2.3 Human Relations Movement (1930-1950)

The theory of Human Relations Movement, propounded by Elton Mayo, Chester I Bernard, Roethlisberger, Dickson etc., concentrates more on the human behaviours and relations than the mechanical efficiency. Mayor’s experiments clearly proved the tremendous influence of emotions on group behaviour. Bernard in his books ‘The functions of the Executive’ (1938), said that there is a social or natural group in every work group which can be considered as a precedence over the functional group. He stressed the need of flow of information from down to upward also. Bernard continued that for installing the long-run aims of the organisation, cohesive leadership is necessary. When the above criteria are fulfilled, the congregation of all the factors will ensure effective and coherent decision-making. During 1939, Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger conducted the How throne studies and constituted the ‘human relations school’. They find out that in addition to physical environments, social factors such as morale, satisfactory inter-relationships etc... will also have an impact on efficiency. Based on all these developments, it is realised that there is an important need to motivate people. This led to the increasing emphasis on the
concepts of leadership, informal organisation and morale in the management theory and practice.

2.2.4 Management by Objective Movement (1950 - 1960)

   Peter F. Drucker and Douglas Mc Gregor are the advocates of this system of thought. Peter F Drucker was the first scientist to coin the term ‘management by objective’ in 1954. He said ‘each member of the enterprise contributes something different, but all must contribute towards a common goal. Their efforts must all pull in the same direction, and their contributions must fit together to produce a whole without gaps, without friction, without unnecessary duplicating of effort. In the 1954, in his book ‘Practice of Management’, Drucker said “an effective management must direct the vision and effort of all managers towards a common goal”. His concept of goal - directed leadership is fundamental to human resource management. (Drucker 1954).

   Drucker has identified eight key areas of organisational needs. These are market standing, innovation, productivity, physical and financial resources, profitability, manager performance and development, worker performance and attitude and public responsibility. According to Drucker, there are three ways to determine the kind of structure needed in specific enterprises. They are: a) activity analysis, b) decision analysis and c) relation analysis. Drucker observed
that the managers’ main instrument for operating his affairs is reliable information. “The greatest advantage of management by objective is perhaps that it makes it possible for a manager to control his own performance. Self control means stronger motivation: a desire to do the best rather than do just enough to get by.......... Management by objective and self control asks for self discipline”.

“Management by Objective and self control is more than a slogan, more than a technique more than a policy even. It is, so to speak constitutional principle”. (Drucker 1974).

Douglas Me Gregor advocated management by integration and self-control, partly as a form of management by objective but more importantly as a strategy for managing people. In his book “The Human Side of Enterprise”, Douglas Me Gregor has described the traditional concept of management as theory X and the modern concept as theory Y. According to him, the traditional managers emphasise on directing and controlling the efforts of others. They believe that: 1) the average person dislike work and whenever possible will avoid it, 2) most people are not ambitious and have little desire for responsibility and prefer to be directed, 3) to get people work, it is necessary to use strict control, threats, constant says that unless a system of reward and punishment is introduced, which would create fear in his mind, he will not work. The traditional approach thus rest upon the basic distrust of human nature.
“Management by direction and control may not succeed because it is a questionable method of motivating people, whose physiological and safety needs are reasonably satisfied and whose higher level needs are becoming predominant”. (Me Gregor 1960). He therefore developed the theory Y. The assumptions of this theory are:

1) work is a natural activity like playing and rest, if the conditions are favourable,
2) close supervision and threats of punishment are not the only ways to get people to do things,
3) motivation occurs at the social esteem and self-actualisation levels, as well as at the physiological and security levels and
4) people can be self-directed and be creative at work if properly motivated.

The new theory of management, according to Me Gregor, looks upon man as a social being who likes work as much as rest or play. The ‘carrot and stick policy’, according to this theory, does not work. Instead, the principle of self-direction and self-control works better. Management in Me Gregors view is thus “a process primarily of creating opportunities, releasing potential, removing obstacles, encouraging growth, providing guidance”. Drucker consolidated that “traditionally, business has been held responsible for quantities for the supply of food and of jobs, for costs prices, hours of work, and standards of living. Now
business increasingly is being asked to take on responsibility for the quality of life in our society…. It is a demand that the quality of life become the business of business”. Thus Drucker and Me Gregor paved the way to the Human Resource Management Philosophy. The human resources policies and Programmes must be built into the strategic objectives and plans of the business enterprise and must also aim to get every one involved in the achievement of these objectives and plans. (Me Gregor 1960 : 4ff)

2.2.5 Behavioural Science Movement (1960 - 1980)

The behavioural science movement came into prominence in the 1960’s. It was coined by writes such as Maslow, Likert and Herzberg. ‘The hierarchy of human needs’ of Maslow, the ‘integrating principles of supportive relationship’ of Likert and the ‘job enrichment’ of Herzberg are the valuable contributions to the behavioural science movement. The behavioural science approach encompasses a much broader base of academic and applied disciplines and addresses itself to a much wider range of problems. Disciplines such as sociology, psychology etc. have contributed a lot to the knowledge and practical application of human resource management.

Abraham H. Maslow, in his hierarchy of human needs said that all behaviours are goal-directed. People behave in a particular way because of their
need to achieve certain things. The first need in the order of hierarchy of human need is the physiological need like food, clothing, air, etc. Until they have enough of these, all their activities will be directed towards obtaining them. Once they have their physiological needs satisfied to the required level, a second order of needs come to the surface and directs their behaviour. These are safety and security needs. Once they have required level of security needs they move to the next level of needs for love and belongings. Once the needs for love and belongings are satisfied they come to the higher order of social needs. These needs include the needs for achievement, recognition, status, power and influence over other. These are also called ‘ego needs’ or ‘esteem needs’. The last one in the hierarchy is called ‘self-actualising need’. It is the need for understanding one’s own abilities and potentials and using them to the maximum. Most people are struggling with one or more of the needs below this order, and very few attain this highest motivational level of self-discovery and the need to exploit one’s own potential. Maslow acknowledged that his hierarchy was not rigid and that needs is relative in their strength and is individualistic. A lower need does not have to be fulfilled completely before a higher need emerges.

(Maslow 1943)

Herzberg developed the motivation hygiene theory, which is based on the results of numerous studies in many diverse organisational settings and was
closely interrelated to Maslow’s ‘hierarchy of needs model’. Frederick Herzberg (1959) and his associates distinguished between motivational and maintenance factors in the work situation. Herzberg says that man has two different categories of needs, which are essentially independent of each other and affect his behaviour in different ways. Herzberg calls the first category of needs as hygiene factors because they describe man’s environment and serve the primary purpose of presenting job dissatisfaction. Maintenance factors or hygiene factors are those which belong to the company policies and administration, supervision, inter-personal relations, working conditions, pay, job security, personal life, status etc... (Herzberg, 1959 : 59-62) propounds that these factors help in removing discomfort, dissatisfaction and discontent on the part of the employees but are not motivators as traditionally perceived by management. These potent dissatisfying factors are called maintenance factors on the job, because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction in employees. They are also known as hygiene factors because they support employee’s mental health. The second category of needs is called motivators because they seem to be effective in motivating people for superior performance. Motivators or job content factors include achievement, recognition, increased responsibility, challenging work, growth and development. According to Herzberg both the sets of factors work in one direction only. Absence of hygiene factors may dissatisfy the
workers but will not de-motivate them. Similarly, in the presence of motivators workers will be motivated, but their absence does not make them dissatisfied.

Herzberg’s Motivation Hygiene Theory was analysed by Dumettee, Camphbell and Hakel (1967) and has accomplished that;

1) It discovered the difference between satisfaction and dissatisfaction in job situations

2) It emphasises those job features that lead to change in feelings towards the job and

3) It developed taxonomy of job situations consisting of satisfying and dissatisfying features.

Many authors have however criticized Herzberg’s theory. Keith Davis observed that a limited testing of the model on blue-collar workers suggests that sometimes normally considered as maintenance factors are frequently considered motivational factors. Some authorities even doubted whether the factors leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction are different from each other. It is sure that in less developed countries it is likely that the workers will designate some of the maintenance factors or hygiene factors as motivators, since they are yet to meet some of their lower order needs. Me Clleland’s (1953) theory of motivation is quite extensive and involved. According to him striving for pleasure and seeking to avoid displeasure are innate and all others are acquired. He says
that people can be classified into two broad groups - one small and the other large. Those falling in the small group are challenged by opportunities and are willing to work hard to achieve some goal. People in the large group, on the other hand, have less need of achievement and are not so challenged by opportunities.

2.2.6 The Neo-classical Approach (1960 -1970)

While classical theories focussed more on structure and physical aspects of work (not withstanding Taylor’s concern for mental revolution), The neo-classical theory recognises the primary of psychological and social aspects of the worker and his relations within and among groups and the organisation. It considered the importance of caring the feelings of workers and understanding the dynamics of the informal organisation of workers, which affects the formal organisation structure, its activities, processes and output. The neo-classical viewpoint thus gave birth to human relation movement and provided the thrust towards democratisation of organisational power structures and participatory management. The neo-classical viewpoint does not replace classical concepts. The need for order rationality, structure, etc... have been modified to highlight the importance of relaxing the rigid and impersonal structures and consider each person as an individual with feelings and social influence that effect performance on the job. The most significant contributors of this theory were Chris - Argyris
and Rensis Likert. They are called neo-classicists because they have suggested improvements in the classical model.

Chris Argyris (1964, 1971, 1982) said that in bureaucratic organisations, managers with total responsibility and domination made subordinates to become passive and dependent, with a decreased sense of responsibility and self-control. He said that such an environment would lead to poor, shallow, and mistrustful relationships. The legitimate human needs for self-reliance, self-expression and accomplishment are subverted. Dissatisfaction and frustration breed unhappiness. If makes immensely difficult for managers to meet organisational goals. Employees should have interpersonal competence and we should provide a psychologically safe environment. Otherwise employees will become easy victims of mistrust, inter-group conflict and rigidity, which will harm the organisations wellbeing and success. As an alternative, Argyris argued for an organisational design that would better meet human needs and increase the satisfaction of its people.

Likert (1961,1967, 1973, 1973), on agreeing with the views of Argyris said that traditional authoritarian management’s were less able to motivate their employees to higher standards of achievement than managements, who actively supported their subordinates feeling of self, worth and important. Rensis Likert’s
always insisted for a scientifically based theory of management. He said “supervisors with the best records of performance focus their primary attention on the human aspects of their subordinates problem and on endeavouring to build effective work groups with high performance goals”. He developed the ‘four system management theory’ to describe different organisational designs and their effectiveness. These systems are;

1) Explorative-authoritative, where power and authority are strictly used. Fear is used as motive and trust is virtually absent.

2) Benevolent-authoritarian, where economic rewards are used as motivating force and some upward communication is permitted

3) Consultative which is Likert's ideal management style and

4) Participative, which is an optimal approach to manage people in our dynamic and educated society. Advocates of the fourth style believe that this system is universally applicable and it is the best way to organise modern society.

2.2.7 Organisational Development Movement (1950 - to the present)

Organisational Development Movement came into prominence based on the felt need in the field of organisational behaviour, where conventional methods have only limited success. Organisational development as an intervention strategy focuses on the whole culture of an organisation in order to bring about planned and desired change. “Organisational development is a top management
supported long-range effort to improve an organisation’s problem solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative diagnosis and management of organisational culture—with special emphasis on formal team work, temporary term and inter group culture—with the assistance of a consultant facilitator and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioural science, including action research” (French and Bell 1991:17).

The works at National Training Laboratories in the early 1950’s and at ESSO Oil company in the late 1950’s are considered as the preliminary efforts in the field. Robert Blake and Jane Srygley (1964), on the basis of a study of about 5000 managers in several types of organisations formulated a nine point scale with 81 different positions in which a leader’s style may fall. Herbert Shepard has conducted experiments at ESSO during 1950’s and 1960’s and later applied it to the community problems. Robert Tannenbaum in 1952 and 1953 conducted the sessions on ‘team building’, at the US Naval Ordinance Test Station California and also led the first non-degree training Programme in 1967. Richard Beckhard, WW Burke and FI Steels have their contributions in the organisation of training and development. Warren G Bennis, has published his views on the nature, origin and prospectus of the organisational development. Kurt Levin, Kenneth Benne, Leland Bradford and Ronald Lippert are well known for their experiments and research at the State Teachers College in Britain in the late 1940’s and early
1950's. WR Bion, John Rickman and Eric Trist, Floyd Pann and Renesis Likert are known as the Tavistock Clinic Team, who developed the survey research and feedback method at the Survey Research Centre, University of Michigan.

Organisational Development emerged largely from applied behavioural sciences and is a confluence of four major streams.

1) Laboratory training to find solutions to work team and systems problems.

2) Innovations focusing around the effective feedback of attitude survey data.

3) The emergence of action research techniques and approaches.

4) The emergence of socio-technical and socio-cultural approaches to improve organisations.

In a typical organisational development Programme, action research involves gathering information through interviews and questionnaires, making that information visible and then facilitating employee participation in a diagnostic and problem solving effort. The technique of organisational development may involve laboratory training, managerial grid training, survey feedback, team building, process consultation, job enrichment, behavioural modification job design, stress management, career and life planning, management by objectives, sensitivity training, role playing, gaming and behavioural modelling as part of the overall approach.
The steps involved in the OD process include problem recognition, organisational diagnosis, feedback, development of change, interventions, measurement and evaluation and feedback. (Rush 1973 : 6). The consultant, in the process acts as a facilitator and catalyst. At the appropriate time, he also throws in short lectures and exercises on decision-making, team building, group interaction and problem solving. He also encourages openness and objectivity. The exercise concludes with a mutually agree 'strategy for change and an understanding to meet again after a lapse of time to measure and evaluate the results of the OD efforts. Thus OD becomes a continuous process-planned, systematic and focussed on change with overall and clear objective of increasing and improving the effectiveness of the enterprise. Thus organisational development focuses on whole organisation for problem solving, experimental learning and group processes, feedback, contingency orientation, and team building. Managerial Grid is also a form of team building. Organisation Development places heavy reliance on group processes with the principal objective of improving interpersonal relations, establishing open communication channels, building trust and encouraging responsiveness to others. This group process includes role-playing, gaming, sensitivity training, transactional analysis, process, consultation, encounter groups etc....
2.2.8 The Process System View

It was perhaps Chester I. Bernard, who in 1938, provided a comprehensive explanation of the modern viewpoint. He considered the individual, organisation, suppliers and consumers as part of the environment. Winer's (1948) pioneering work on cybernetics developed concepts of systems control by information feedback. Kenneth Boulding propounded General systems theory (GST). The GST approach suggests nine levels of systems complexity. They are the level of frameworks, level of clockworks, cybernetic systems, open systems level, genetic-societal level, animal level, human level, social organisations level and the level of transcendental systems. (Kenneth Boulding 1956: 197) The systems approach points to the interdependent nature of everything that forms part of an organisation. Systems approach deals with formal organisations and concepts relating to different disciplines such as technical, social, psychological and philosophical. Specific management systems deal with aspects relating to organisation structure, job design and specific functions of management. A closed system operates in closed loop, devoid of external inputs. An open system, in contrast, is a dynamic input-output system with, in contrast, is a dynamic input-output system with continuous interaction with the environment.

The works of D. Katz and R. L. Kahn (1960) provide the intellectual basis to merge classical, neo-classical and modern viewpoints. This belief in viewing
organisations as open systems widened the perspective further and led to the development of a ‘contingency approach’ which incorporate the environmental variables and relates them to management variables. The underlying logic is that concepts relating to organisations and management work differently in different situations or environments. Jay Galbraith's (1973) modern structural organisation theory highlights the information-processing model and captures the essence of the systems, contingency perspective on organisations. He constructs theories about the amount of information and organisation must process under different levels of (1) uncertainties, (2) interdependence among organisational elements, and (3) organisational adaptation mechanisms.

2.2.9 Corporate Culture Analysis

Corporate Culture Analysis deals with the analysis of corporate culture and the relationship between culture and human resource practices. Culture can be inferred from what people say, do and think within an organisational setting. The reflections of this culture set the tone for the company and establish the framework for its human resources policies and programmes. Many analysts have called this relationship between culture and human resource practices as ‘symbiotic’. Peters and Waterman (1982) said that only companies with broader set of value could show excellent performance. Financial goals alone will not help the company to prove its effectiveness. Their research is explicitly about human
nature and the ways that people interact in organisational settings. Building on the work of Herbert Simon, organisation theorist Kal Weick, social psychologist Stanley Milgram and others, Peters and Waterman deducted some general rules for treating others with dignity and respect and proper expectation about their work capabilities. William G Ouchi (1981) started from where Me Gregor had left and put forward the theory Z. The theory Z represented a corporate culture that was people centered, where concern for the individual employee was the overriding principle. By this approach each member of the organisation gets a sense of strategic vision or a holistic view of the direction of the whole organisation and thus including commitment through individual ‘internalising’ the culture of their company.

2.3 Human Resource Management Approach

Since management is responsible for getting the assigned task done within the given time, with the given resources and in a particular manner, it can be said as process of getting things done through people by effective utilisation of resources, time and environment. There are five basic elements such as planning, organisation, co-ordination, control and motivation. There are also many other sub-functions that are associated with it. These functions include both technical and non-technical. Non-technical functions are mainly the
activities of the people that are to be co-ordinated and regulated by the management. So it is also called a social or socio-technical process.

Management as we know "has to make productive, the values aspirations, and traditions of individuals, community and society for common productive purpose " (Peter Drucker). Our greatest asset is people. Most managers know perfectly well that of all the resources, people are the least utilised and little of the human potential of any organisation is tapped and put to work. The manager must treat the people with whom he works as a resource to himself. He has to took to them for guidance regarding his own job". (Drucker). "The effective utilisation of an organisation's employees is most often the crucial factor in the successful accomplishment of its mission. Regardless of the amount of computerisation that had taken place in offices, or implanting robots in factories all companies and organisations require people to perform their work. Managers are successful only if their employees are successful. ‘The truly successful organisation accomplishes its mission through development of its human resources to their fullest potential’. (Nadler and Wiggs 1986). Peter Drucker (1960) said, “Japan greatest lesson to the world is putting to work her traditions of community and human values for the new ends of a modern industrialised state. They alone have succeeded in this. They know that management is both a science and humanity".
HRM is concerned with the people dimension in management. Since every organisation is made up of people, acquiring their services, developing their skills, motivating them to high levels of performance and enduring that they continue to maintain their commitment to the organisation, are essential to achieve organisational objective. “Human resource management is the systematic control of a network of inter related processes affecting and involving all members of an organisation”. (French and Cecil 1991: 17ff). HRM is a strategic approach to the acquisition, motivation, development and management of the organisation’s human resources. HRM should always look forward to what needs to be done and then doing it rather than waiting to be told what to do. The techniques of the application of HRM will include many familiar functions of personal managers, such as manpower planning, selection, performance appraisal, salary administration, training, and management development. Special Programmes designed to improve communication systems, involvement, commitment and productivity will overlay these. In its essence, human resource management is the qualitative improvement of human beings, who are considered the most valuable assets of an organisation - the sources, resources and end-users of all products and services. The approach of human resource management is multidisciplinary from the beginning to the end. It is a scientific process of continuously enabling the employees to improve their competency and capability to play their present and future expected roles. So that the goals of
employees are also met to an adequate extent. Under the HRM approach, some basic assumptions about human resource are as follows: (Sarma 1995 :12).

1. The members of an organisation are reservoirs of untapped resources.
2. There is scope for unlimited development of these resources.
3. It is more in the nature of self development than development thrust from outside.
4. The organisation further develops a culture in which utmost emphasis is placed on harmonious superior-subordinate relations, teamwork, collaboration among different groups of individual, open communication, and above all, integration of the goals of the organisation with the needs of the employees.
5. Top management takes the initiative of HRM formulates necessary plans and strategies and creates an overall climate and support for its implementation.

2.4 Human Resource Management Programmes

The Programmes of human resource management are modulated in such a way to achieve the fullest development of human resources with all consideration of its specific characteristics and the other related social realities and processes in the organisation and society. It is essential that HRM systems
should be designed in the framework of the total organisation. HRM efforts fail miserably in such organisations where do attention is paid to these systems. There are specific Programmes of HRM which, when taken up comprehensively lead to the complete and satisfactory implementation of the HRM system. We can broadly identify six clear Programmes.

2.4.1 Human Resource Organisation

The fundamental objective of human resource organisation is to ensure that every aspect of the organisation is integrated with the strategic objectives of the business and contribute to the successful achievement of those objectives. Organisational development Programmes and interventions are needed to achieve better integration, improve teamwork, motivate human resource, develop proper leadership facilitate communication system, manage conflict and change and obtain commitment. Thus human resource organisation is concerned with achieving success by organisation design and development, motivation, the application of effective leadership and the management of organisational culture.

Thayer (1968) has divided the functions of communication into information function, command and instructive function, the influence and persuasion function, and the integrative function. The information function serves to provide knowledge to the individuals needed guidance in their actions. It also fulfils
workers desires for awareness of things that affect them. The command and instructive functions serve to make the employees aware of his obligations to the formal organisation and to provide him with additional guidance on how to perform his duties adequately. The influence and persuasion function (also known as motivational function) encourages the appropriate individual to perform or to exhibition a certain behaviour. The integrative function refers to the fact that the communication of message / ideas, if properly handled, should help to relate the activities of the workers to their efforts compliment rather than detract from each other.

Likert (1961) says that there is the contingency model of leadership, which states that the most appropriate leadership style depends on the situation in which the leader works. Any style can be effective or ineffective depending on the situation and the leader should have an adaptive style that leads to effectiveness. Another popular approach for identifying leadership style is the managerial grid. It has five basic styles, each representing a combination of two dimensions, namely concern for people and concern for production. Likert suggests that the participatory style is most effective, but its application differs depending upon the nature of the task and the impact of the intervening variables. Chakraborty and Bhattacharya (2001) classified leadership into secular insights, spiritual insight focuses on the lessons from Swamy Vivekanandan and Mahatma Gandhi.
Applied insights pertain to a variety of applications of leadership vis-a-vis power in different segments of the society. Sagacious insights seek to draw lessons from India’s rich heritage and ancient scriptures including the Ramayana and Mahabharatha. Sreenivas Pandit (2001) ways that leadership is the art of creating an impulse, an urge in other to do something, which the leader desires that they do. Leadership is an action, it is not just a word, nor a theory. The difference between a leader and an authority is that a leader inspires, motivates and stimulates a group of people to follow voluntarily even eagerly.

2.4.2 Human Resource Planning

Human resource planning is the process of assessing the needs of the organisations human resources in the light of the organisational goals and making plans to ensure that a competent, stable work force is employed. The starting point of effective human resource planning is the organisations over all-purpose or mission, which is called the mission statement. From this the strategic plan is derived. Strategic plan deals with conducting the business as profitably and successfully as possible. Then the organisational goal is developed. Organisational goal is the long-term result of the overall activities. It is operated with the help of specific objective. The planning process includes an analysis of skill levels among employees, skill level in the external labour market,
current and expected job openings, plans for expanding the reducing staff and the assessment of the external legal environment.

2.4.3 Human Resource System

Human Resource systems are the essential programmes needed to recruit, appraise, pay and look after the health, safety and well-being of the employees in the organisation. The main key programmes are: recruitment, management, information management, training management, performance management, regard management, health and safety management, discipline management and culture management.

2.4.4 Human Resource Development

Lippert (1978) points out that HRD as a system depends on

a) the work itself which generates a higher degree of responsibility for the employees

b) the individuals personal and professional growth

c) the improved quality output as a result of increased responsibility

d) the organisation as an open system
Focus on all these aspects is what HRD is all about. Rao (1985) defines HRD as “a process by which the employees of an organisation are helped in a continuous planned way to;

a) acquire of sharpen capabilities required to perform various tasks and functions associated with their present or expected future roles;

b) develop their general enabling capabilities as individuals so that they are able to discover and exploit their own inner potentials for their own and or organisational development purposes; and

c) develop an organisational culture where superior-subordinate relationship, team work and collaboration among different sub-units are strong and contribute to the organisational health, dynamism and pride of employees”

2.4.5 Human Resource Relationships

The aim of human resource relationship is to increase co-operation and trust among employees and involve them actively in the organisations programmes. Human resource relationships deal with the handling the employees individually and collectively as members of trade unions or staff associations. An approach to collective dealing should be:

a) recognition of the union;

b) the respective role performance of management and union;
c) the type of procedures one can adopt to regularise relationships with unions;
d) the basic techniques of negotiating with unions;
e) the mechanism of involvement through participation, both traditional forms of joint consultation as well as the method of quality circles.

2.4.6 Human Resource Utilisation

In order to achieve productivity through people it is very essential to “treat them as adults, treat them as partners, treat them with dignity, and treat them with respect” (Peters and Waterman 1982). The following actions are required to improve the use of human resources;

a) conduct productivity drive;
b) improve manpower budgeting and control techniques;
c) introduce work measurement;
d) use appropriate payment method by results; bonus and profit sharing schemes;
e) improve motivation;
f) involve employees in improvement programmes;
g) introduce new technology;
h) negotiate appropriate productivity agreements; and
i) introduce training programmes based on an analysis of productivity needs.
2.5 Human Resource Development

People need competencies such as knowledge, attitude, values and skills to perform tasks. Higher degree and quality of performance of tasks requires higher level or degree of skills. Without continuous development of competencies in people an organisation is not likely to achieve its goals. Competent and motivated employees are essential for organisation survival, growth and excellence. It is well recognised everywhere that human competency development is an essential pre-requisite for any growth and development effort. Now enterprises are becoming more aware that human resource is the most valuable asset to the organisation. Hence every organisation takes all efforts to develop its own human resources to suit their specific needs. Human resource development is a process. It is a mechanism to initiate, facilitate and promote the process in a continuous way in order to retain the capabilities.

HRD has two main purposes: to provide employees with a greater opportunity to grow and succeed within a company and to strengthen management and professional teams at all organisational levels. Further more, it aims at developing employee capabilities in line with their career interests and with the manpower needs of the company. The primary responsibilities of a HRD manager are:

1) to act as an internal change agent and consultant;
2) to initiate change and act as an expert and facilitator;
3) to actively involve himself in company’s strategy formulation;
4) to keep communication lines open between the HRD functions and individuals and groups both within and outside the organisation;
5) to identify and evolve strategies in consonance with overall business strategy;
6) to facilitate the development of various organisational teams and their working relationship with other teams and individuals;
7) to try to relate people and work so that the organisational objectives are achieved effectively and efficiently;
8) to diagnose problems and to determine appropriate solution, particularly in the human resources areas;
9) to provide co-ordination and support services for the delivery of HRD programmes and services and
10) to evaluate the impact of HRD intervention or to conduct research so as to identify, develop or test how HRD has improved individual or organisational performance.

In order to build human competencies, to build an appropriate climate and to improve employee satisfaction at work (competency development, climate building and innovation development) many organisations have set up separate
departments which symbolise the recognition of the importance of peoples competency development. In addition to the well-known mechanisms of training, mechanisms such as performance appraisals, potential appraisals, feedback and counselling, mentoring, job-rotation, OD interventions, career development systems etc... are also being used to develop the human resources.

Shaw (1991) makes an analytical study of the present training programmes and highlights the deficiency of the system. He brings to the forefront the concept and technology of andragogy (the science of adult learning), in contrast to pedagogy (the science of child learning), which is the base of the existing training system. The author tries to visualise training as a profession, highlighting its constituent elements. Peter Villers (Amazon.com) in his book “18 Training Workshops for Leadership Development” gives trainers the complete lesson plans and materials needed to conduct productive and exciting workshops in 18 key areas of leadership skills. The workshop designs include, formal and informal leadership, leadership and cultural change, putting values into practice, the press conference, leadership and conflict resolution, chairing, power of authority, and the difference between leadership and management. Robert L Craig (1996) narrates hundreds of practice-proven techniques which can be used to develop effective leadership skills, exploit self directed learning to meet empowerment, continuous improvement of quality, develop professional
training staff, build employee participation and involvement, prepare for organisational development and change and evaluate training results. The ASTD Handbook of Training Design and Delivery explains the advantages and weakness of many important training approaches. It provides the essentials for preparing an effective lesson plan, choosing the most effective visual aids and learning to present new knowledge and skills so that trainees will understand and apply what they learn. This handbook has been created in response to dramatic changes and advances in training Programmes, including web-based training and technology based instruction. In evaluating training Programmes, Donald L.Rikapatrick (1998) encapsulates his lifetime experiences to provide real solutions to the training evaluation dilemma through a comprehensive step-by-step guide.

Many methods are being used for performance appraisal. Rating scale is one among them, which is the oldest and most widely used. For lower level employee typical qualities rated are quantity and quality of work, job knowledge, co-operative attitude dependability, initiative, industriousness, and willingness to accept responsibility and attitude. For managerial person, the attributes included are analytical ability, initiative, knowledge of work, imagination, interpersonal skills, planning and conceptualising abilities (Casio 1989). For performance appraisal there are several different sources of appraisal information. One of the
most widely used measurement techniques classifies them into three distinct approaches. They are comparison to job standards, comparison between individuals and comparison to agreed objectives. Comparison to job standard includes essays, checklists, critical incidents, rating scales, and behaviourally anchored rating scales (BARS). In the second approach one person is compared with all others for the purpose of placing them in a simple order of rank, based on worth to the organisation. Under the third one comes management by objective (MBO). MBO is not a measure of employee’s behaviour rather it is measure of each employees contribution to success of the organisation (Milkovich, Boudreau & Boston: Irwin Inc 1991). James E Neal (2000) describes about 2000 professionally written phrases, which will clearly illustrate all the activities of performance appraisal. This is book will also help people who has to write appraisals of employees, providing hundreds of proven descriptions of motivation, personal qualities, organising skills, productivity etc... Strauss and Sayles (1985), have classified performance appraisal into three groups. They are traditional performance rating, newer rating method and result-oriented appraisal. Traditional is by the completion of a form. The newer rating method includes rank order, paired comparison, forced distribution, forced choice, critical incident and field review. The third one is ‘management by objective’ - "Management by objective is a process whereby the superior and the subordinate managers of an organisation jointly identify its common goals, define each individuals major
areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him and use this measure as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members” (Strauss and Sayles 1985). Rigors and Myers (1973) also suggests several steps to develop and administer the appraisal programmes effectively.

Job enrichment programme, as an ongoing phenomenon of managing people, has become very essential and the need has been felt by many progressive organisations to introduce it. Huckman, Lawler and Edward (1977) say that there are five core dimensions that provide enrichment of jobs. These are; task variety, risk identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. Knowledge about jobs and their requirements are collected through a process of job analysis. E.J.Mc Cormick (1976) in his article “Job and Task Analysis” illustrates the kind of data generation that is achieved through a comprehensive job analysis. They are work activities, worker-oriented activities, machines; tools; equipment and work aid used, job related tangibles and intangibles, work performance, job context, and personal requirements for the job.

Stress is a major concern is organisations. “Stress means any force that places on the individual a psychological or physical factor beyond that individuals range of stability, producing a strain within the individual” (Cooper
In 1946 Sayle provided a helpful model outlining the process or stress-related illness. There are three stages of stress. These are alarm stage, resistance stage, and the third one is the resistance collapsing stage. In his book ‘Human Behaviour at Work’ Keith Davis (1990) describes the different behavioural patterns and the related variables. About the importance of job design, he says that there are some specific needs to be fulfilled. Davis says, “essentially the human resource approach means that better people achieve better results”. In the book ‘Secrets of Executive Success’, Golin, Bricklin etc... (1991) describes some of the approaches for organisations that consider that winning in very important. They are:

1) treat everybody with respect and as a potential source of valuable insights;

2) encourage people to suggest new ways for doing things;

3) enjoy your work;

4) speak with pride about your organisation;

5) initiate changes;

6) be willing to take on responsibilities;

7) bring uncomfortable issues out in open and

8) feel free to disagree with our superiors and others in the group.
On dealing with organisations Samuel and Peter (1991) has identified the characteristics of effective companies and ineffective companies. The characteristics of effective companies are:

1) genuine concern for people; a positive view employees assets,
2) good training;
3) good pay and good compensation Programmes;
4) able to retain employees;
5) good internal communication and
6) top management committed and supportive of human resources and encourage employee participation.

Management process is made up of four steps embarrassing the ‘people’ dimension getting them, activating them and keeping them. (Mamoria 1994). Tornow and London (1988) brings to light the 28 years experience of the Centre for Creative Leadership to give human resource managers, consultants and systems designers some specific view to improve individual and organisational performance through their '360 degree feedback’. In their book ‘flexible learning’ Jakupec, Garrick and Routledge (1999) addresses contemporary contexts of flexible learning and its practices and provides insights about directions which education and training provides are required to follow in order to implement flexible learning to in a variety of settings.
Scarcity is the basic economic problem confronting all humanity and humanity has struggled for centuries to overcome it. Senyo and Adjibolosoo (1998) argues that the root of development problems lies in continuing human factor decay and under development. For successful economic development every country must focus on human factor development. Their book explores that concept of scarcity and its significance to the evolution of the existing social order and political economy of nations.

In organisational learning, performance and change, Jerry W. Gilley and Ann Maycunich (2000) present a complete and comprehensive introduction to the field of strategic human resource development, integrating principles and insights from the three major schools of thoughts and practice; learning, performance and change, learning organisations’ is a new concept. Learning organisation takes care in promoting a culture of continuous innovation, performance improvement and employee growth (Jerry W. Gilley and Ann Maycunich 1999). To facilitate the development of a learning organisation, training becomes an important operation, in the ‘Learning Alliance’, authors Robert O. Brinkerhoff and Stephen J. Gill (1994), how managers, supervisors, trainees and training professionals can collaborate to manage systematically the process of learning and behaviour change and consistently deliver the cost
effective results needed to build and sustain an organisation’s competitive advantage.

The quality of workforce is an asset to any organisation. Herman and Gioia (2000), suggests that we have to attract good people, optimise their resources and keep with us the food people we are having. Pat Hargreaves and Peter Jarvis (2000), deals with the current staff development practices. They also provide relevant theories of training in the late 1990's. Johnson and Broms (2001) say that by focusing on its member’s activities, the manager has to improve the systems capability to serve the needs of the customers. This is called ‘management by means’ (MBM). The managers who are responsible for bulldozing everything on the pathway to increase the shares holders wealth, did emerge as the most ardent advocates of the principle of ‘Management by results’ (MBR). In Turnround and Excellence’ Pradip N Khandwalla (2001), says that ‘turn-round’ is recovery to profitability from a loss situation, Turn-round management is not far from usual management techniques. Turn-round management involves application of conventional management techniques in a rather unusual environment. Sastry (2001), in his ‘Dharmic Values and Human Resource Management’ adds yet another dimension to human resource problems and perspectives. He puts forward the application of Dharmic values to modern managerial practices. In the ‘Changing Patterns of Human Resources Developmental Farhad Analoui (2001)
discusses the changing role of human resource management on an international spectrum. The author critically assesses the human resource development in the context of public organisations, private organisations and non-governmental organisations.

William A Howatt (2000) provides an overview of the 12 major theories and corresponding techniques with a special focus on helping readers to develop their own counselling styles. The theories of Carl Rodgers (Person Centred Therapy), Carl Jung (Jungian Philosophy), Alfred Adler (Adlerian Psychotherapy), Eric Berne (Transactional Analysis), Fritz Perls (Gestalt Therapy), Richard Bandler and John Grinder (Neurolinguistic Therapy), William Glasser (Choice Therapy and Reality Therapy), Aaron Beck (Cognitive Therapy), Albert Ellis (Rational Emotive Behavioural Therapy & Virginia Satir (Behavioural Therapy, Family system therapy). In addition to the theories the author also presents the first aid counselling, covering crisis management and interventions for suicide, addictions, grief, eating disorders, stress and verbal crisis.

2.5.1 HRD in the World Scenario

A peep into the world scenario of human resource development is relevant because of the knowledge in the changed situations will enrich the study of human resource development. Increasing collaborative ventures between India
and foreign corporations, the import and export of technology and other resources, and an anxiety for effective partnerships heighten concerns about human resources management and development in other countries.

"Management is management wherever practised, a universal profession whose principles can be applied in every form organised activity". (Austin Tobin 1965: 305). Such a view has found support in some well-known research findings. A classic study is that of Harbison and Myers who studies management did not differ fundamentally from country to country (Harbison and Myers 1959). On the other hand, another school of thought, which has gained much prominence in recent time, has challenged the notion of the universality of management. Winston Oberg argued that the ground rules under which managers operate are different across countries and that, therefore, it is fruitless to search for a common set of beliefs and values underlying management practices which differ with culture and social context. (Newman 1970 : 7). Indians, because of our social and cultural background, have a strong need for a tough but nurturing style of management, which is authoritarian but also benevolent. (Sinha 1979 :109)

The understanding of HRD in the USA is best reflected in the definition by Leonard Nadler that HRD is “organised learning experiences in a definite time period to increase the possibility of improving job performance growth. (Nadler
1984:1). South American countries range from Costa Rica to Brazil. The entire region is characterised as developing. Industrialisation has come only recently to this continent. South America is affected by long-standing problems of overpopulation and lack of adequate education. The end result is that there is a large workforce without the skills required for industrialisation (Nadler 1884). In Western Europe the main focus of HRD appears to be on training and educational activities. It gives much emphasis to the building of specific skills. One of main HRD related concerns in Western European countries is the impact of the new technology on people. The role of the HRD practitioners is seen most frequently as being that of helping people deal with the problems of change (Nadler 1984).

Africa is the least developed of all the worlds continents. African governments have generally concentrated on capital and physical resources to the neglect of human resources. In most African countries, HRD has been institutionalised. A heads of State summit in Lagos in 1980 is a landmark for HRD in Africa (Nadler 1984). Of all the regions of the world, Asia probably presents the greatest contrasts. It contains one of the most developed countries, namely Japan and also some of the least developed.

In an advanced economy like Japan, there is a long tradition HRD. Japanese organisations are known for their unique development schemes,
quality circles, participation methods, life-long employment etc... Srilanka, Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia and Pakistan have formal organisations for manpower training and development. In the Philippines, the productivity and development Centre is working on awareness programmes related to increasing productivity. Nepal which is yet poorly industrialised has set up an Industrial Service Centre to conduct studies for HRD need identification and prepare HRD programmes (Nadler 1984).

2.6 Human Resource Development Mechanisms

The objective of any human resource development effort is to build human competencies, to build an HRD climate, innovation and development. Human Resource Development, therefore, should be a continuous process in organisations. The nature of efforts and investments put into develop human resources may vary from organisation to organisation depending on its need, nature, size etc... This may also vary from time to time in the same organisation depending on the nature of change the organisation is going through or the nature of capabilities the organisation wants to build within it. There are many methods or instruments available for organisations to develop employee competencies.
The instruments of HRD are many. The HRD instruments should lead to the generation of HRD process like role clarity, performance planning, development climate, risk taking, dynamism, collaboration and team work, awareness of competence required, trust, authenticity, openness, norms and standards etc... Such HRD process result in more competent, satisfied, and committed people, that would make the organisation grow by contributing their best to it. The HRD mechanisms or instruments are performance appraisal, review discussions; feedback and counselling role analysis exercise, potential development exercises, rewards job enrichment programmes etc....

The most frequently used development instruments re-performance appraisals and training programmes. Many organisations are still mixing up developmental goals with control and administration goals and thus reducing the effectiveness of appraisals. Those organisations that emphasis performance reviews, discussions, counselling sessions, etc... rather than appraisal ratings, promotions and rewards, seem to achieve HRD goals far more and far better. However, accomplishing HRD goals through performance appraisals is less visible and much slower than achieving HRD goals through training, although the nature of HRD goals achieved through these two types of instruments are different. Role analysis exercise has helped a great deal in some organisations to bring about role clarity and setting the climate for development. Very few
organisations are using job-rotation as a HRD mechanism. OD exercises are being used by a few organisations largely for developing team spirit, teamwork and interdepartmental collaboration. Potential development exercise has not yet begun to take shape.

2.7 HRD in Service Sectors

Traditionally economic theory looks at society as consisting of three main sectors. These are the agricultural sector, industrial sector and the service sector. The service sector comprises activities and occupations, which provide a wide variety of services to individuals, business and government establishments and other organisations. Services create value by providing a bridge between the production and consumption segments of society. This is why the growth of the service sector in modern society is linked with the increased productivity of the manufacturing sector, (Athreya 1985 : 46). A major characteristic of modern socio-economic development has been the increasingly dominant role of the service sector. As an economy develops the relative contribution of the primary and secondary sectors to the total economy decreases, where as that of the service sector increases.

Unlike goods manufactured in agricultural and industrial sectors, a service is intangible and perishable in the sense that a consumer cannot store a service.
Thus in the service sector the production and delivery of goods are carried out simultaneously. The consumer therefore is an integral part of the whole service delivery system. (Sehgal 1985 : 182). By extending service to the people of all social and economic segments, service sector provides opportunities for development and for reduction of socio-economic disparities. They enable the weaker section to have access with the benefits of modernisation. The services themselves have an HRD effect, first by developing individuals and deprived groups, and secondary by gradually changing societal culture towards a more egalitarian, democratic direction (Athreya 1985 : 46-48).

Service sector has some special features, which call for particular emphasis in the design and implementation of HRD systems. These are;

1) Intangibility of products: Service is the provision of value to the customer, without a physical product. This could create lack of clarity about the tasks and erosion of self-confidence. So HRD has to create appreciation of client needs and pride in the potency of the service to meet those needs.

2) High public exposure: The service institution is much more exposed to its clientele. Even if the institution does not proactively promote its service, the clients may take the initiative and best at its doors. The staff needs relation-
ship skills and tolerance of customer reactions. In the case of subsidised free services, some customers may be arrogant in their demands and misuse the service, while some others may be less literate, gullible and timid.

3) Size constraints: To be effective, the service institutions should be perceived as a huge, slow, monolith, in the face of which the consumer is anonymous and insignificant. Conceptualisation of roles is especially important. The roles at the environment / customer interference need to be so designed as to enhance service.

4) Back-room technology: At the customer end, a service has to be simple to understand. For example air travel should be made easy, but behind it there may be complex procedures and technologies. We have to ensure that those at the delivery end of a service institution understand the power and limitations of this back-up technology, while at the same time the technicians understand customer needs, abilities and limitations.

5) Special knowledge: The level of general and specialised education tends to be relatively high in service institutions. In fact, a service institution like a consultancy, has to be intellectually a few steps ahead of its clients to be of real value to them. So, a research and learning orientation is needed. The
service institute tends to have preponderance of white-collar workers and executive manpower. Their motivation is more complex. Besides monetary rewards, they look more for ego satisfaction and quality of work life.

Propensity for disintegration: Service institutions seem to have a higher tendency to disintegrate. Depending upon bruised egos, personal ambitions, inequality etc... rebel groups break away from the mother organisation and form new ones. Therefore, HRD needs to provide for more participation in planning and control of the projects, as well as sharing of rewards, whether psychic satisfaction, fame, visibility, profits or upward mobility (Athreya 1985 :46-48)

HRD is most needed in a country like India for the development of service sectors. Our Schools and colleges, universities, research institutions, agricultural development agencies, district development agencies, health centres, panchayathraj institutions, voluntary organisations etc... need continuous competence development of their staff who have to act as agents of development. Development agencies require a high degree of motivation and complex skills to deal with people, particularly in rural area and influence their attitudes, habits and behaviour. Unfortunately very little is being done so far apart from increasing the number of training programmes for these agents. Training programmes by
themselves may have a limited impact on developing complex competencies. So a more serious and concerted effort is highly inevitable.

2.8 HRD in Rural Areas

India is predominantly a rural and village based society. Thus in the India context, rural development assumes special significance. It is mainly because of two important reasons. First, about two thirds of the population still lives in village and there can not be progress so long as rural area remain backward. Second, the backwardness of the rural sector would be a major impediment to the over-all progress of the economy. The industrial sector cannot think of sufficient demand for its products so long as the rural income is low. (Satya Sundaram 1997). This is why the concept of rural development and the strengthening of rural based administrative institutions have continued to enjoy high priority in the development policies and strategies of the country. “As some scholars maintain, what happens in national development is measured by the relevance of what it does or fails to do for or with the rural people”. (Bogaert 1985: 4).

The rural situation in the country is still plagued with social and economic problems. Several years of development efforts have not succeeded in eliminating age-old problems. Large sections of our population still suffer from lack of minimum needed in the areas of health, nutrition, education and other
subsistence facilities. They are vulnerable both to natural calamities like floods and droughts as well as to the exploitation of vested interests and money lenders. Their level of economic productivity is low and they lack adequate delivery systems for employment and industrialisation. (Malathi Bolar 1985 : 16).

Rural labour is another most disadvantaged section of Indian population. Rural labourers have not benefited much from the general socio-economic development witness after independence. Intervention of administration, operation of market forces and activities of trade unions and political party’s etc are the major impediments (Radhakrishna & Sharma eds. 2001)

2.9 HRD in Panchayatraj Institutions

In the early stage of India’s development as an independent country, it was recognised by visionary leaders like Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru, that the development of the rural area needs to be vested largely in the hands of the people by the setting up of appropriate socio-political institutional mechanisms. The main such institution is the village panchayat. In the directive principles of the constitution, it is said “the state shall take steps to organise village panchayat and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self government. Based on that
the three tier panchayatraj institutions at the village level, block level and district level were started functioning (Nirmal Mukarji 1986: 235).

The role that panchayatraj was expected to fulfil was:

1) to encourage participatory decision making at the micro social level by involving people in decision making relating to various activities affecting them;

2) look after day to day administration of local areas by mobilising resources and administering day-to-day facilities;

3) formulating micro-level plans on the basis of the constraints of development;

4) taking care of local physical infrastructure; and

5) working for the awakening of the people and making them aware of their plight and rights. (Indira Hirway 1989 :1663).

For the inefficient functioning of the panchayatraj system, there are some critical reasons, which are attributable to the absence of adequate attention to human resource development. For a long time, the leadership of the local panchayat was in the hands of the vested interests. Recent indications, however, are that the middle class group of educated farmers and local businessmen are beginning to contest (Surat Singh & Rahim 1989: 429). A second reason has
been the absence of trained competent people to carry out the tasks of administration in the panchayathraj bodies. Such tasks require not only functional skills such as financial management and technical skills for basic management and organisations, but also appropriate attitudes and values. (Bogaert 1985: 24-29). The absence of proper and adequate organisational structures and institutional mechanisms to lend stability and continuity to the panchayatraj institutions is another reason for the poor performance of these bodies.

From the HRD point of view, the major priorities for the success of panchayatraj and rural development institutions are;

1) clarifying purposes and ensuring that these are reflected in pertinent strategies, policies and Programmes;

2) developing people as change agents and as cultural bodies to bring about necessary transformation in dysfunctional cultures existing in the rural areas;

3) training and development in order to enable people develop their capabilities and potential for productive employment;

4) strengthening panchayatraj and other organisations engaged in development;
5) increasing administrative accountability through task clarity and appropriate monitoring and appraisal mechanisms;
6) developing role clarity and task of results orientation on the part of functionaries;
7) motivation of functionaries through attitude change and motivation development programmes;
8) developing and implementing appropriate reward system for those involved in the routine administration and implementation of tasks (Haridwar Rai & SP Singh 1979).

2.10 HRD in Voluntary Organisations

One well-recognised reality in India has been that the efforts of the government and government sponsored organisations and agencies along are inadequate to achieve the enormous task of socio-economic transformation of the country. Over the years the role of non-governmental organisations has increased to a very great extent in a variety of fields such as rural development, community development, health and rehabilitation, vocational training, consumer organisation etc... Acknowledge of the need for voluntary organisation is reflected in the seventh five-year plan document, which stated that “the seventh plan can be implemented successfully with the involvement of the people. The plan proposes to do this by increasing the involvement of voluntary agencies in
the implementation of plan Programme. (Seventh Five Year Plan of Government of India, Report by Planning Commission).

Voluntary organisations enjoy a number of advantages, which make them potentially effective change agents. Being usually small in size, they are flexible and therefore, organisationally more adaptive. They tend to have a strong ideological commitment to social justice and economic opportunity for all. They have empathy for the underprivileged sections of the society. Since they are by and large autonomous in functioning, independent and dynamic, they are able to take on risks and undertake controversial activities which government and corporate bodies would find difficult (D’Souza 1988). There are hundreds of live examples to illustrate and high list the special nature of their activities and HRD nature of their activities and HRD commitments. One such illustration is that of the ‘Maliwada rural development project’ in Maharashtra. Members of the organisation settled down in the village, lived and worked with the rural folk, and in 10 to 12 months they helped the villages to remove many of the long standing obstacles in social and economic development of the village, and gave them a measure of self confidence. Another experiment is the ‘Thilonia experiment’ in Rajasthan. A voluntary organisation known as “Social Work and Research Centre” (SWRC), consisting of 40 specialists (geologists, social workers, teachers, etc..) established their centre in the village and started work from the level in which the
rural poor were, recognising the skills and resources that were available in the villages. Together with the villagers they worked on health schemes, water supply projects, improvement of agriculture, village industries and other activities. Their motto was to work with the villagers and not for them. The six years time, these youngsters had changed Thilonia block of 80,000 people into a prosperous and happy community. (Philip 1980:1-7).

KC D’Souza (1988) in his unpublished dissertation ‘Organisations as agents of social change’ makes some generalisations regarding the kind of HRD interventions, which may be useful in voluntary organisations.

1) Studies on voluntary organisations have indicated that they are more likely to be effective when they are characterised by a flexible and participatory management culture. While many voluntary organisations begin with such cultures, as they grow in age and size, they tend to become less flexible and allow less scope for participation. Diagnostic HRD activities, climate surveys and culture-building or culture changing interventions and team development, may therefore have particular relevance to voluntary organisations;

2) An aspect widely neglected in voluntary organisations is the design and development of appropriate HRD systems and procedures. While
many voluntary organisations are engaged in educational training and consciousness generation activities with various client groups, they often suffer the neglect of these aspects within themselves. Especially in large voluntary organisations, there is need for systematic mechanisms of performance and potential appraisal and training and development;

3) Voluntary organisations are also found to be more effective when their organisation climates are characterised by a high degree of achievement orientation, warm interpersonal relations and mutuality. HRD practitioners, therefore need to address themselves to what kind of systems and interventions are required to build and foster such climates;

4) People in most voluntary organisations functions function under conditions which are usually less attractive and materially rewarding then those under which people in business and governmental organisations function. Often, working conditions and facilities are difficult and material rewards are poor. Motivation of members under such condition is sustained largely by intrinsic, work-related rewards and the satisfaction or being able to contribute to super-ordinate
goals. HRD activities such as target based performance appraisal systems, activities would be useful in these circumstances;

5) Finally, perhaps the most important contribution, which HRD can make to voluntary organisations, is to develop human resources that are motivated and capable of working in them. It is clear that voluntary organisations require people with skills and competencies, which may be common to those of people in other organisations, but their attitudes, values and motivations need to be distinctly different. HRD may need to reorient many of its conventional tools to the specific human resource needs of voluntary organisations.

2.11 Summary

Human Resource Development as a separate branch of study had emerged from the early years of 19th century. It strengthened in to a very essential branch of study during the second half of 19th century. There is umpteen numbers of laudable works on subject. But almost all the books deal with the subject in the industrial / organisational perspective. The works of Elton Mayo (The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilisation, 1933); Chester I.Bernard (The Functions of the Executive, 1938); PJ Roethlisberger and William J.Dickson (Management and the Worker, 1943); Abraham Maslow (A Theory of Human Motivation, 1943); The
works of Frederick Winslow Taylor (Scientific Management, 1947); Henry Fayol (General & Industrial Management, 1949); Frederick Herzberg (Motivation to Work, 1959); Douglas Me Gregor (The Human side of Enterprises, 1960); Rensis Likert (New Patterns of Management, 1961); Chris Argyris (Interpersonal Competence and Organisational Effectiveness, 1962); Chris Argyris (Personality and organisations, 1957); Chris Argyris (Integrating the Individual and the Organisation, 1964); Vector H Vroom (Work and Motivation, 1964); Peter F. Drucker (Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices, 1974); Rensis Likert (An Improvement Cycle for Human Resource Development, 1978); have helped to develop theoretical base and conceptual clarity.

The works of J Philip (Human Resource Development in India, 1980); NV Lalitha (Status of Voluntary Effort in Social Welfare, 1982); L. Nadler (The Handbook of Human Resource Development, 1984); MB Athreya (HRD in the Service Sector, 1985); RK Seghal (HRD for the Development of Indian Society, 1985); Rao TV (Strategies of Developing Human Resources, 1985); MVD Bogaert (HRD for Rural Development with Social Justice, 1985); Malathi Bolar (Human Resource Development for Rural Development, 1985); KC D’Souza (Organisations as Agents of Social Change, 1988); MB Athreya (Human Resource Development in Government, 1989); KM Mathew (Human Resource Development in Administration, 1989); Keith Davis (Human Behaviour at Work, 1990); Wendell
L. French (Human Resource Management, 1990); Wendell L. French (Organisation Development, 1991); Mamoria CB (Personal Management, 1994); have helped to reach the area of study with more clarity, by understanding the overall situation in the area of Human Resource Development. But it is also found that no specific work has been done in the area of study.

2.12 Inferences from the Review of Literature

Based on the study the following inferences can be drawn.

2.12.1 Human Resource Development initiatives cannot be done in isolation. It is influenced by many social, economical and human characteristics.

2.12.2 Human Resource Development is not the development of a particular skill or quality or efficiency. It is a holistic approach for the overall development of the person with special priority in his specialised area of interest.

2.12.3 HRD should be based on the capacity of the individual to make him capable for different activities and enable him to prove his competency with others to make the particular activity effective to the optimum level (the 3C principle)
In this context, Human Resource Development can be defined as a process through which people are helped in a continuous and planned way, based on assessed capabilities, to develop acquire or sharpen capabilities, and increase competency with commitment to prove the effectiveness in comparison with others, in order to perform various general functions as an individual and social being and the specific functions associated with the job at present and future.
References


Website

http://www.a.ttiay.on.com/cxcc/ohitlos/search-li andle-foon/rtffHIn sr 00/104-7369816-4699104

Newspaper

‘The Hindu’ English daily HRD talk (Wednesday column).

‘The Hindu’ English daily book review (Tuesday column).