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HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

for the 3rd year students
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Preface to Second Edition

The practice of human resource management (HRM) is concerned with all aspects of how people are employed and managed in organizations. It covers activities such as strategic HRM, human capital management, corporate social responsibility, knowledge management, organization development, resourcing (human resource planning, recruitment and selection, and talent management), performance management, learning and development, reward management, employee relations, employee well-being and health and safety and the provision of employee services. HRM practice has a strong conceptual basis drawn from the behavioural sciences and from strategic management, human capital and industrial relations theories. This foundation has been built with the help of a multitude of research projects.

The main purpose of this book is to give a balanced introduction to the complex world of human resource management. Essentially it is intended for first degree students studying the subject as part of a modular degree course or for students on a foundation degree in Business Studies. The book combines the main theoretical underpinning for the subject area with a large number of practical examples and cases to assist the learning process. It is divided into 10 chapters to provide one topic a week on a modular course.

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1. Management Essentials

Management is the process of efficiently achieving organization objectives with and through people. To achieve its objective, management typically requires the coordination of several vital components that we call functions. The primary functions of management are planning (for example, establishing goals), organizing (determining what activities will accomplish those goals), leading (ensuring that the right people are on the job with appropriate skills and motivating them to high productivity), and controlling (monitoring activities to ensure that goals are met). When these four functions operate in a coordinated fashion, we can say that the organization is heading in the correct direction toward achieving its objectives. Common to any effort to achieve objectives are three elements: goals, limited resources, and people.

In any discussion of management, one must recognize the importance of setting goals. Organization goals are necessary because any activities undertaken must be directed toward some end. There is considerable truth in the observation, "If you don't know where you are going, any road will take you there." The established goals may not be explicit, but where there are no goals, there is no need for managers.

Limited resources are a fact of organizational life. Economic resources, by definition, are scarce; therefore, the manager is responsible for their allocation. This requires not only managers effective in achieving the established goals, but efficient in doing so. Managers, then, are concerned with attaining goals, which makes them effective, and with the best allocation of scarce resources, which makes them efficient.

The third and last requisite for management is the need for two or more people. Managers perform their work with and through people. Daniel Defoe's legendary Robinson Crusoe could not become a manager until Friday's arrival.

In summary, managers are those who work with and through other people, allocating resources, in the effort to achieve goals. They perform their tasks through four critical activities: planning, organizing, leading, and controlling.

Management – the process of efficiently completing activities with and through other people.

Planning – a management function focusing on setting organizational goals and objectives.

Organizing – a management function that deals with determining what jobs are to be done, by whom, where decisions are to be made, and how to group employees.

Leading – management function concerned with directing the work of others.

Controlling – management function concerned with monitoring activities to ensure goals are met.

2. Why is HR important t an organization?

Prior to the mid-1960s, personnel departments in organizations were often perceived as the "health and happiness" crews. Their primary job activities involved planning company picnics, scheduling vacations, enrolling workers for health-care coverage, and planning retirement parties. That has changed during the past three decades.

Federal and state laws have placed on employers many new requirements concerning hiring and employment practices. Jobs have also changed. They have become more technical and require employees with greater skills. Furthermore, job boundaries are becoming blurred. In the past, a worker performed a job in a specific department, working on particular job tasks with others who did similar jobs. Today's workers are just as likely, however, to find themselves working on project teams with various people from across the organization. Others may do the majority of their work at home and rarely see any of their coworkers. And, of course, global competition has increased the importance of improving workforce productivity and looking globally for the best-qualified workers. Thus, organizations need HRM specialists trained in psychology, sociology, organization and work design, and law.

Legislation requires organizations to hire the best-qualified candidate without regard to race, religion, color, sex, disability, or national origin—and someone must ensure that this is done. Employees need to be trained to function effectively within the organization—and again, someone must oversee this as well as the continuing personal development of each employee. Someone must ensure that these employees maintain their productive affiliation with the organization. The work environment must be structured to encourage worker retention while simultaneously attracting new applicants. Of course, the "someones" we refer to, those primarily responsible for carrying out these activities, are human resource professionals.

Today, professionals in human resources are important elements in the success of any organization. Their jobs require a new level of sophistication. Not surprisingly, their status in some organizations has also been elevated. Even the name has changed. Although the terms *personnel* and *human resource management* are frequently used interchangeably, it is important to note that the two connote quite different aspects. The human resource department head, once a single individual heading the personnel function, today may be a vice president sitting on executive boards and participating in the development of the overall organizational strategy.

The Strategic Nature

Many companies today recognize the importance of people in meeting their goals. HRM must therefore balance two primary responsibilities: assisting the organization in it strategic direction and representing and advocating for the organization's employees. Clearly, HRM has a significant role in today's organization. HRM must be forward thinking. HRM must not simply react to what "management" states. Rather, HRM must take the lead in assisting management with the "people" component of the organization. Moreover, organization's employees can assist in gaining and maintaining a competitive advantage. Attracting and keeping such employees requires HRM policies and practices that such employees desire. Being a strategic partner also involves supporting the business strategy. This means working with line management in analyzing organizational designs, the culture, and performance systems, and recommending and implementing changes where necessary.

HRM must also serve the organization by determining lowest-cost strategies to its HRM practices. It must look for ways to reduce personnel costs and find more effective means of offering employee amenities. Today's HR function needs to be as concerned with

the total costs of an organization's human resources as it is with the employees themselves. As such, HRM needs to take whatever steps it can to demonstrate its return on investment dollars spent by the organization for human resource activities—determining the value added that HRM brings to the organization.

HRM Certification

Many colleges and universities are also helping to prepare HRM professionals by offering concentrations and majors in the discipline in addition to an accreditation process for HRM professionals. The Society for Human Resource Management offers opportunities for individuals to distinguish themselves in the field by achieving a level of proficiency predetermined by the Human Resource Certification Institute as necessary for successful handling of human resource management affairs.

Human resource management is the part of the organization concerned with the "people" dimension. HRM can be viewed in one of two ways. First, HRM is a staff or support function in the organization. Its role is to provide assistance in HRM matters to line employees, or those directly involved in producing the organization's goods and services. Second, HRM is a function of every manager's job. Whether or not one works in a formal HRM department, the fact remains that to effectively manage employees all managers must handle the activities.

Every organization is comprised of people. Acquiring their services, developing their skills, motivating them to high levels of performance, and ensuring that they maintain their commitment to the organization are essential to achieving organizational objectives. This is true regardless of the type of organization—government, business, education, health, recreation, or social action. Hiring and keeping good people is critical to the success of every organization.

To look at HRM more specifically, we propose that it consists of four basic functions: (1) staffing, (2) training and development, (3) motivation, and (4) maintenance. In less academic terms, we might say that HRM is made up of four activities: (1) hiring people, (2) preparing them, (3) stimulating them, and (4) keeping them.

When one attempts to piece together an approach for human resource management, many variations and themes may exist. However, when we begin to focus on HRM activities as subsets of the four functions, a clearer picture arises (see Exhibit 1.1). Let's take a closer look at each component.

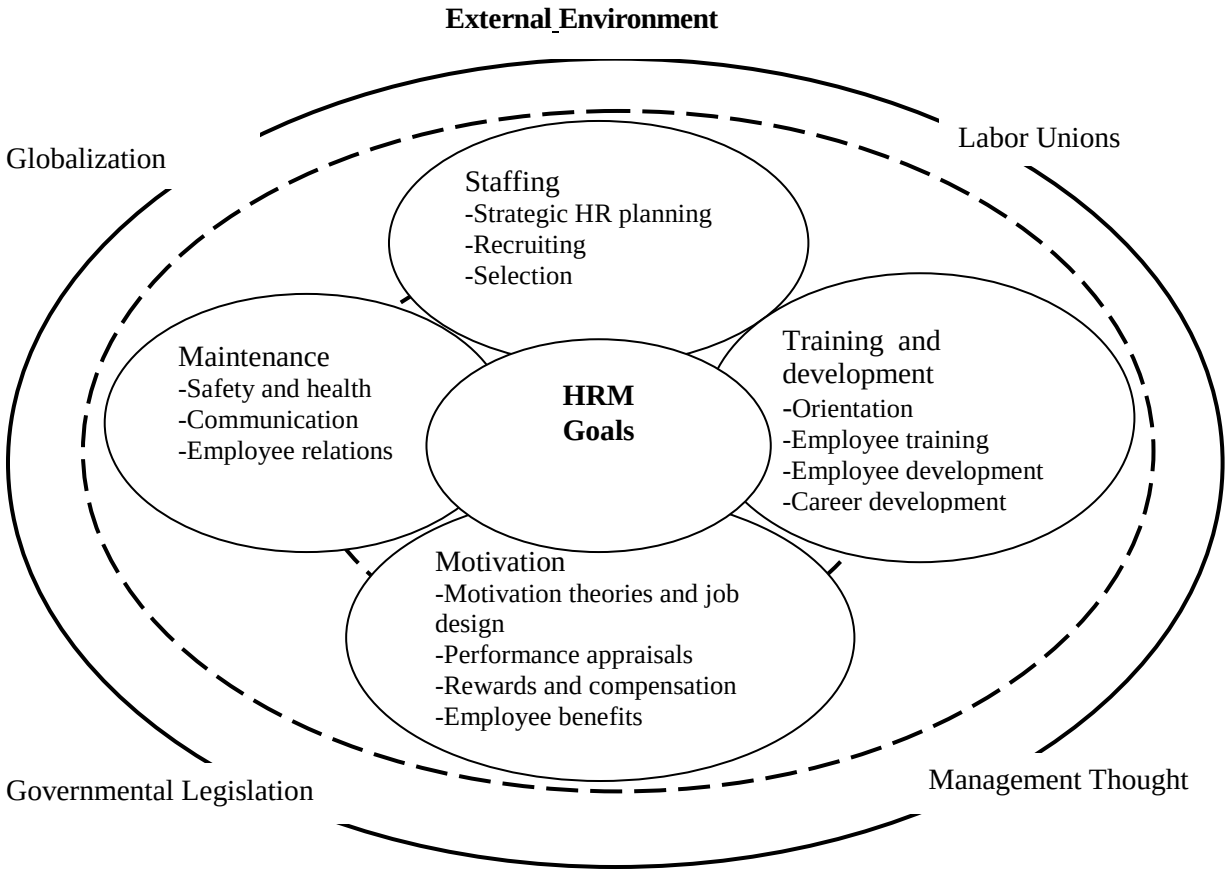


Exhibit 1.1 – Human Resource Management: Primary Activities

3. How External Influences Affect HRM

The four HRM activities are highly affected by what occurs outside the organization. It is important to recognize these environmental influences, because any activity undertaken in each of the HRM processes is directly, or indirectly, affected by these external elements. For example, when a company downsizes (sometimes referred to as rightsizing) its workforce, does it lay off workers by seniority? If so, are an inordinate number of minority employees affected?

Although any attempt to identify specific influences may prove insufficient, we can categorize them into four general areas: the dynamic environment, governmental legislation, labor unions, and current management practice.

The HRM Strategic Environment

It has been stated that the only constant during our lifetimes is change. We must, therefore, prepare ourselves for events that have a significant effect on our lives. HRM is no different. Many events help shape our field. Some of the more obvious include globalization, technology, workforce diversity, changing skill requirements, continuous improvement, work process engineering, decentralized work sites, teams, employee involvement, and ethics.

Governmental Legislation

Today, employees who want to take several weeks of unpaid leave to be with their newborn children and return to their jobs without any loss of seniority have an easier time making the request. Although some employers may think such an application negatively affects work flow, government legislation has given employees the right to take this leave. Laws supporting this and other employer actions are important to the HRM process.

Labor Unions

Labor unions were founded and exist today to assist workers in dealing with the management of an organization. As the certified third-party representative, the union acts on behalf of its members to secure wages, hours, and other terms and conditions of employment. Another critical aspect of unions is that they promote and foster what is called a *grievance procedure*, or a specified process for resolving differences between workers and management. In many instances, this process alone constrains management from making unilateral decisions. For instance, a current HRM issue is the debate over employers' ability to terminate employees whenever they want. When a union is present and HRM practices are spelled out in a negotiated agreement, employers cannot fire for unjustified reasons.

Management Thought

The last area of external influence is current **management thought.** Since the inception of the first personnel departments, management practices have played a major role in promoting today's HRM operations. Much of the emphasis has come from some of the early, and highly regarded, management theorists. Four individuals specifically are regarded as the forerunners of HRM support: Frederick Taylor, Hugo Munsterberg, Mary Parker Follet, and Elton Mayo.

Management thought – early theories of management that promoted today's HRM operations.

Frederick Taylor, often regarded as the father of **scientific management**, developed a set of principles to enhance worker productivity. By systematically studying each job and detailing methods to attain higher productivity levels, Taylor's work offered the first sense of today's human resource practices. For instance, Taylor advocated that workers needed appropriate job training and should be screened according to their ability to do the job (a forerunner of skill-based hiring). Hugo Munsterberg and his associates suggested improved methods of employment testing, training, performance evaluations, and job efficiency. Mary Parker Follet, a social philosopher, advocated people-oriented organizations. Her writings focused on groups, as opposed to individuals in the organization. Thus, Follet's theory was a forerunner of today's teamwork concept and group cohesiveness. But probably the biggest advancement in HRM came from the works of Elton Mayo and his famous Hawthorne studies.

Scientific management – a set of principles designed to enhance worker productivity.

The **Hawthorne studies**, so named because they were conducted at the Hawthorne Plant of Western Electric just outside of Chicago, ran for nearly a decade beginning in the late 1920s. They gave rise to what today is called the human relations movement. The researchers found that informal work groups had a significant effect on worker performance. Group standards and sentiments were more important determinants of a worker's output than the wage incentive plan. Results of the Hawthorne studies justified many of the paternalistic programs that human resource managers have instituted in their organizations. The advent of employee benefit offerings, safe and healthy working conditions, and the concern of every manager for human relations stem directly from the work of Mayo and his associates at Hawthorne.

Hawthorne studies – a series of studies that provided new insights into group behavior.

4. HRM Function

For ease of clarity, we'll discuss the following functions as if they are the responsibility of those working in HRM.

4.1 Staffing Function Activities

Although recruiting is frequently perceived as the initial step in the staffing function, it has prerequisites. Specifically, before the first job candidate is sought, the HR specialist must embark on employment planning. This area alone has probably fostered the most change in human resource departments during the past 25 years. We can no longer hire individuals haphazardly. We must have a well-defined reason for needing individuals who possess specific skills, knowledge, and abilities directly likened to specific jobs. No longer does the HR manager exist in total darkness, or for that matter, in a reactive mode. Not until organization mission and strategy have been fully developed can human resource managers begin to determine human resource needs.

Staffing function – activities in HRM concerned with seeking and hiring qualified employees.

Specifically, when an organization plans strategically, it determines its goals and objectives for a given period of time. These goals and objectives often lead to structural changes in the organization; that is, these changes foster changes in job requirements, reporting relationships, how individuals are grouped, and the like. As such, these new or revised structures bring with them a host of pivotal jobs. It is these jobs that HRM must be prepared to fill.

As these jobs are analyzed, specific skills, knowledge, and abilities are identified that the job applicant must possess to succeed. This aspect cannot be understated, for herein lies much of the responsibility and success of HRM. Through the job analysis process, HRM identifies the essential qualifications for a particular job. This is sound business acumen, for these jobs are critically linked to the strategic direction of the company. It is also well within the stated guidelines of major employment legislation. Additionally, almost all activities involved in HRM revolve around an accurate description of the job. One cannot recruit without knowledge of the critical skills required, nor can one appropriately set performance standards and pay rates, or invoke disciplinary procedures fairly without this understanding. Once these critical competencies have been identified, the recruiting process begins. Armed with information from employment planning, we can begin to focus on our prospective candidates. When involved in ***recruiting***, HR specialists should attempt to achieve two goals, to obtain an adequate pool of applicants, thereby giving line managers more choices, and simultaneously provide enough information about the job to head off unqualified applicants. Recruiting, then, becomes an activity designed to locate potentially good applicants, conditioned by the recruiting effort's constraints, the job market, and the need to reach members of under-represented groups such as minorities and women.

The goal of recruiting is to give enough information about the job to attract a large number of qualified applicants and simultaneously discourage the unqualified from applying.

Once applications have come in, it is time to begin the ***selection phase.***

Selection, too, has a dual focus. It attempts to thin out the large set of applications that arrived during the recruiting phase and to select an applicant who will be successful on the job. To achieve this goal, many companies use a variety of steps to assess the applicants. The candidate who successfully completes all steps is typically offered the job, but that is only half of the equation. HRM must also ensure that the good prospect accepts a job offer. Accordingly, HRM must communicate a variety of information to the applicant, such as the

organization culture, what is expected of employees, and any other information that is pertinent to the candidate's decision-making process.

The completed selection process ends the staffing function. The goals, then, of the staffing function are to locate competent employees and bring them into the organization. When this goal has been reached, HRM focuses its attention on the employee's training and development.

4.2 Goals of the Training and Development Function

Whenever HRM embarks on the hiring process, it attempts to search and secure the "best" possible candidate. And while HRM professionals pride themselves on being able to determine those who are qualified versus those who are not, the fact remains that few, if any, new employees can truly come into an organization and immediately become fully functioning, 100-percent performers. First, employees need to adapt to their new surroundings. Socialization is a means of bringing about this adaptation. While it may begin informally in the late stages of the hiring process, the thrust of socialization continues for many months after the individual begins working. During this time, the focus is on orienting the new employee to the rules, regulations, and goals of the organization, department, and work unit. Then, as the employee becomes more comfortable with his or her surroundings, more intense training begins.

Reflection over the past few decades tells us that, depending on the job, employees often take months to adjust to their new organizations and positions. Does that imply that HRM has not hired properly or the staffing function goals were not met? On the contrary, it indicates that intricacies and peculiarities involved in each organization's positions result in jobs being tailored to adequately meet organizational needs. Accordingly, HRM plays an important role in shaping this reformulation of new employees so that within a short time they, too, will be fully productive. To accomplish this, HRM typically embarks on four areas in the training and development phase: employee training, employee development, organization development, and career development. It is important to note that employee and career development are more employee centered, whereas employee training is. designed to promote competency in the new job. Organization development, on the other hand, focuses on system wide changes. While each area has a unique focus, all four are critical to the success of the training and development phase. We have summarized these four in Table 1.1

Table 1.1

Training and Development Activities

Employee Training	Employee training is designed to assist employees in acquiring better skills for their current job. The focus of employee training is on current job-skill requirements.
Employee Development	Employee development is designed to help the organization ensure that it has the necessary talent internally for meeting future human resource needs. The focus of employee development is on a future position within the organization for which the employee requires additional competencies.
Career Development	Career development programs are designed to assist employees in advancing their work lives. The focus of career development is to provide the necessary information and assessment in helping employees realize their career goals. However, career development is the responsibility of the individual, not the organization.
Organization Development	Organization development deals with facilitating system wide changes in the organization. The focus of organization development is to change the attitudes and values of employees according to new organizational strategic directions.

At the conclusion of the **training and development function,** HRM attempts to reach the goal of having competent, adapted employees who possess the up-to-date skills, knowledge, and abilities needed to perform their current jobs more successfully. If that is attained, HRM turns its attention to finding ways to motivate these individuals to exert high energy levels.

Training and development function – activities in HRM concerned with assisting employees to develop up-to-date skills, knowledge, and abilities.

4.3. The Motivation Function

The **motivation function** is one of the most important, yet probably the least understood, aspects of the HRM process. Human behavior is complex, and trying to figure out what motivates various employees has long been a concern of behavioral scientists. However, research has given us some important insights into employee motivation.

First of all, one must begin to think of motivation as a multifaceted process— one with individual, managerial, and organizational implications. Motivation is not just what the employee exhibits, but a collection of environmental issues surrounding the job. It has been proposed that one's performance in an organization is a function of two factors: ability and willingness to do the job. Thus, from a performance perspective, employees need the appropriate skills and abilities to adequately do the job. This should be ensured in the first two phases of HRM by correctly defining the requirements of the job, matching applicants to those requirements, and training the new employee in how to do the job. But another concern is the job design itself. If jobs are poorly designed, inadequately laid out, or improperly described, employees will perform below their capabilities. Consequently, HRM must ask has the latest technology been provided to permit maximum work efficiency? Is the office setting appropriate (properly lit and adequately ventilated, for example) for the job? Are the necessary tools readily available for employee use? For example, imagine an employee who spends considerable time each day developing product designs. This employee, however, lacks ready access to a computer-aided design (CAD) software program or a powerful enough computer system to run it. Compared to another employee who does have access to such technology, the first individual is going to be less productive. Indeed, office automation and industrial engineering techniques must be incorporated into the job design. Without such planning, the best intentions of organizational members to motivate employees may be lost or significantly reduced.

Additionally, many organizations today recognize that motivating employees also requires a level of respect between management and the workers. This respect can be seen as involving employees in decisions that affect them, listening to employees, and implementing their suggestions where appropriate.

The next step in the motivation process is to understand the implications of motivational theories. Some motivational theories are well known to most practicing managers, but recent research has given us new and more valid theories for understanding what motivates people at work. We've summarized the highlights of the more popular theories in Table 1.2. Performance standards for each employee must also be set. While no easy task, managers must be sure that the performance evaluation system is designed to provide feedback to employees regarding their past performance, while simultaneously addressing any performance weaknesses the employee may have. A link should be established between employee compensation and performance: the compensation and benefit

activity in the organization should be adapted to, and coordinated with, a pay-for-performance plan.

Throughout the activities required in the motivation function, the efforts all focus on one primary goal: to have those competent and adapted employees, with up-to-date skills, knowledge, and abilities, exerting high energy levels. Once that is achieved, it is time to turn the HRM focus to the maintenance function.

Motivation function – activities in HRM concerned with helping employees exert at high energy levels.

Table 1.2

Key Elements of Classic Motivation Theories

Theory	***Individual***	***Summary***
Hierarchy of Needs	Abraham Maslow	Five needs rank in a hierarchical order from lowest to highest: physiological, safety, belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. An individual moves up the hierarchy and, when a need is substantially realized, moves up to the next need.
Theory X-Theory Y	Douglas McGregor	Proposes two alternative sets of assumptions that managers hold about human beings' motivations—one, basically negative, labeled Theory X; and the other, basically positive, labeled Theory Y. McGregor argues that Theory Y assumptions are more valid than Theory X and that employee motivation would be maximized by giving workers greater job involvement and autonomy.
Motivation-Hygiene	Frederick Herzberg	Argues that intrinsic job factors motivate, whereas extrinsic factors only placate employees.
Achievement, Affiliation, and Power Motives	David McClelland	Proposes three major needs in workplace situations: achievement, affiliation, and power. A high need to achieve has been positively related to higher work performance when jobs provide responsibility, feedback, and moderate challenge.
Equity Theory	J. Stacey Adams	An individual compares his or her input/ outcome ratio to relevant others. If there is a perceived inequity, the individual will augment his or her behavior, or choose another comparison referent.
Expectancy Theory	Victor Vroom	Proposes that motivation is a function of valence (value) of the effort-performance and the performance-reward relationships.

4.4 How Important Is the Maintenance Function?

The last phase of the HRM process is called the **maintenance function.** As the name implies, this phase puts into place activities that will help retain productive employees. When one considers how employee job loyalty has declined in the past decade, it's not difficult to see the importance of maintaining employee commitment. To do so requires some basic common sense and some creativity. HRM must ensure a safe and healthy working environment; caring for employees' well-being has a major effect on their commitment. HRM must also realize that any problem an employee faces in his or her personal life will ultimately be brought into the workplace. This calls for employee assistance programs, such as programs that help individuals deal with stressful life situations. Such programs provide many benefits to the organization while helping the affected employee.

In addition to protecting employees' welfare, HRM must operate appropriate communications programs in the organization. Such programs help employees know what is occurring around them and vent frustrations. Employee relations programs should ensure

that employees are kept well informed—through the company's intranet, bulletin boards, town hall meetings, or teleconferencing—and foster an environment where employee voices are heard. Time and effort expended in this phase help HRM achieve its ultimate goal of having competent employees who have adapted to the organization's culture with up-to-date skills, knowledge, and abilities, who exert high energy levels, and who are now willing to maintain their commitment and loyalty to the company. This process is difficult to implement and maintain, but the rewards should be such that the effort placed in such endeavors is warranted.

Maintenance function – activities in HRM concerned with maintaining employees' commitment and loyalty to the organization.

Communications programs – HRM programs designed to provide information to employees.

Lecture 2 The role of the HR practitioner

1. *What is expected from HR professionals*
2. *Activities And Roles Of HR Practitioners*
3. *Classifying the types of roles HR specialists*
4. *Models Of HR Management Roles*
5. *Conflict In The HR Contribution*
6. *. Professionalism In Human Resource Management*

1. What Is Expected From HR Professionals

The Institute of Personnel and Development has stated that personnel professionals:

- ✓ are proficient in business management and deliver effective people strategies;
- ✓ are committed to ethical standards;
- ✓ can apply and adapt techniques for people management and development to fit the needs of organizations and the people who work in them; % are skilled in the management of change;
- ✓ are personally committed to lifelong learning and Continuing Professional Development.

The focus is therefore on being businesslike, strategic and ethical, the application of professional knowledge and skills, change management and continuous development.

2. Activities And Roles Of HR Practitioners

ACTIVITIES

The activities carried out by HR practitioners will of course vary widely according to the needs of the organization, the job they carry out and their own capabilities. In general, however, they provide services, guidance and advice.

Service provision

The basic activity carried out by HR specialists is that of providing services to internal customers. These include management, line managers, team leaders and employees. The services may be general, covering all aspects of HRM: human resource planning, recruitment and selection, employee development, employee reward, employee relations, health and safety management and welfare. Or services may be provided in only one or two of these

areas by specialists. The focus may be on the needs of management (eg resourcing), or it may extend to all employees (eg health and safety). The aims are to provide effective services that meet the needs of the business, its management and its employees and to administer them efficiently.

Guidance

To varying degrees, HR practitioners provide guidance to management. At the highest level, this will include recommendations on HR strategies that have been developed by processes of analysis and diagnosis to address strategic issues arising from business needs and human, organizational or environmental factors. At all levels, guidance may be provided on HR policies and procedures and the implications of employment legislation. In the latter area, HR practitioners are concerned with compliance - ensuring that legal requirements are met.

Providing guidance in the above areas means taking on the roles of business partner, strategist, innovator, interventionist, internal consultant and monitor as described in the next section of this chapter.

More general guidance may be given on the values the organization should adopt in managing people. This role of acting as 'guardian' of people values is also discussed in the next section.

Guidance will also be provided to managers to ensure that consistent decisions are made on such matters as performance ratings, pay increases and disciplinary actions.

Advice

HR practitioners provide advice on such matters as job design, advertising for staff, drawing up short-lists for selection, identifying methods of satisfying training needs, the rates of pay to be offered to employees on recruitment or promotion, health and safety requirements, employee relations issues (disputes, grievances and communications) and handling people problems (discipline, capability, absenteeism, timekeeping, etc).

Advice will be given to managers and team leaders on the above issues but it will also be provided to individuals. This may deal with aspects of work and development such as the suitability of the present job, developing competence and employability, self-managed learning and career development. It may cover problems arising from work, such as physical ailments, stress, incompatibility with managers or colleagues, bullying or sexual harassment. It could extend to personal problems that affect employees at work. These activities mean that the HR practitioner can take on the roles of counselor and mentor as well as problem solver.

ROLES

As mentioned above, the activities of HR practitioners involve taking on a number of different roles. Again, the extent to which any of these roles are carried out depends on the practitioner's position in the organization, the expectations of management on the contribution HR should make, and the practitioner's own capacity to make an impact, exert influence and demonstrate that the services, guidance and advice provided add value. The main roles that can be played are described below.

The reactive/proactive roles

HR practitioners can play a mainly reactive role. They do what they are told or asked to do. They respond to requests for services or advice. They provide the administrative systems required by management. This is what Storey (1992a) refers to as the non-interventionary role in which HR people merely provide a service to meet the demands of line managers.

But at a more strategic level, HR specialists take on a proactive role. They act as business partners, develop integrated HR strategies, intervene, innovate, act as internal consultants and volunteer guidance on matters concerning upholding core values, ethical principles and the achievement of consistency.

3. Classifying the types of roles HR specialists

The business partner role

As business partners, HR practitioners share responsibility with their line management colleagues for the success of the enterprise. As denned by Tyson (1985), HR specialists as business partners integrate their activities closely with top management and ensure that they serve a long-term strategic purpose, and have the capacity to identify business opportunities, to see the broad picture and to see how their HR role can help to achieve the company's business objectives.

HR practitioners in their role as business partners are aware of business strategies and the opportunities and threats facing the organization. They are capable of analyzing organizational strengths and weaknesses and diagnosing the issues facing the enterprise (PEST analysis) and their human resource implications. They know about the critical success factors that will create competitive advantage and they can draw up a convincing business case for innovations that will add value.

The strategist role

As strategists, HR practitioners address major long-term issues concerning the management and development of people and the employment relationship. They are guided by the business plans of the organization but they also contribute to the formulation of the business plans. This is achieved by ensuring that top managers focus on the human resource implications of their plans. HR strategists persuade top managers that they must develop plans that make the best use of the core competences of the organization's human resources. They emphasize, in the words of Hendry and Pettigrew (1986), that people are a strategic resource for the achievement of competitive advantage.

A strategic approach to managing people means that HR strategists strive to achieve strategic integration and fit. Integration means that strategies are linked together to form a coherent whole. Vertical integration takes place when HR strategies are linked to and support business strategies. Horizontal integration is achieved when a range of coherent, interconnected and mutually reinforcing HR strategies are established. Strategic fit means that both the business and HR strategies meet the particular needs and circumstances of the organization.

The interventionist role

To intervene is to modify die course of events. An intervention is an action or an event in itself that is intended to achieve this purpose.

HR practitioners are well placed to observe and analyse what is happening in and to their organizations. They can take a somewhat detached, albeit empathetic, view on what is happening to organizational processes and their impact on people. Line managers may find this more difficult because of their inevitable preoccupation with operational matters. The role of HR specialists is to adopt an all-embracing, holistic approach to understanding organizational issues and their effect on people.

Following their analysis, HR professionals can produce a diagnosis of any problems and their causes and formulate proposals on what should be done about them. Interventions can be concerned with organizational processes such as interaction between departments and

people, team work and structural change, for example delayering. It may be necessary to intervene with proposals on job design, team building, training, communications and involvement in anticipation of the people implications of the introduction of new technology, a business process re-engineering exercise, a change in work methods such as just-in-time (JIT) manufacturing, or the launch of total quality or improved customer service initiatives.

HR practitioners can also intervene when they believe that existing people management processes need to be improved or changed. They can observe problems of performance, productivity, competence, motivation or commitment and intervene with ideas about how these can be dealt with by, for example, performance management and reward processes. Similarly, they can identify high levels of employee turnover, a multiplicity of grievances and unfair dismissal cases or other evidence of poor morale, establish causes and then make proposals on any actions required in such areas as selection, training, pay and the provision of extra guidance and help to line managers.

A senior HR executive in Unilever, as reported by Armstrong (1989), expressed the following views about what he termed 'selective intervention':

You intervene in different ways in different situations and it is an opportunistic business. You have to start with an overview of where the pressure points are within an organization and where you can make a useful intervention. But the opportunity to intervene can come at the most unexpected times.

But intervention should not degenerate into interference. The interventionist role has to be handled delicately. It is necessary first to establish a good business case and then to take people along progressively, helping them to understand the problem and its causes and involving them in developing solutions which they will implement, with HR guidance and help as required.

The innovation role

A proactive approach to HRM will mean that HR specialists will want to innovate - to introduce new processes and procedures which they believe will increase organizational effectiveness.

The need for innovation should be established by processes of analysis and diagnosis that identify the business need and the issues to be addressed. 'Benchmarking' can take place to identify 'best practice' as adopted by other organizations. But 'best fit' is more important than ‘best practice'. In other words, the innovation should meet the particular needs of the business, which are likely to differ from those of other ‘best practice' organizations. It has to be demonstrable that the innovation is appropriate, beneficial, practical in the circumstances and can be implemented without too much difficulty in the shape of opposition from those affected by it or the unjustifiable use of resources - financial and the time of those involved.

The danger, according to Marchington (1995), is that HR people may go in for 'impression management' - aiming to make an impact on senior managers and colleagues through publicizing high profile innovations. HR specialists who aim to draw attention to themselves simply by promoting the latest flavour of the month, irrespective of its relevance or practicality, are falling into the trap which Drucker (1955), anticipating Marchington by 40 years, described as follows: 'The constant worry of all HR administrators is their inability to prove that they are making a contribution to the enterprise. Their pre-occupation is with the search for a "gimmick" which will impress their management colleagues.'

As Marchington points out, the risk is that people believe 'all can be improved by a wave of the magic wand and the slaying of a few evil characters along the way'. This facile assumption means that people can too readily devise elegant solutions which do not solve the

problem because of the hazards encountered during implementation - for example, indifference or open hostility. These have to be anticipated and catered for.

The internal consultancy role

As internal consultants, HR practitioners function like external management consultants, working alongside their colleagues - their clients - in analysing problems, diagnosing issues and proposing solutions. They will be concerned with the development of HR processes or systems, for example performance management, personal development planning or new pay structures, and in 'process consulting'. The latter is concerned with process areas such as organization, team building, objective setting, quality management, customer service and, importantly, change management. Process consulting is the most challenging field for internal consultants because it requires both skill and credibility, and external consultants may seem to be more credible because of their perceived expertise and independence.

In some organizations, HR specialists may be assigned service delivery contracts in such fields as recruitment and training. HR practitioners in their roles as interventionists and innovators are ideally placed to identify needs as they arise. They do not have to wait to be asked, as do external consultants. But management consultancy requires considerable skill and this is possibly even more the case with internal as distinct from external consultancy. Internal consultants must:

- understand the strategic imperatives of the organization and its business plan, environment and culture and their advice must be embedded in this understanding;
- have well-developed analytical and diagnostic skills;
- be good project managers able to plan and conduct assignments through the stages of contact, contract (deliverables and cost), data collection, analysis, diagnosis, feedback, discussion and agreement of recommendations, and implementation;
- be able to act as 'experts' as well as helpers;
- understand the needs of their internal clients and work with them in developing solutions while at the same time preserving an appropriate degree of independence and objectivity so that they can bring their expertise to bear on the issue or problem;
- ensure that their internal clients 'own' the solution and are capable of implementing it and want to do so.

The monitoring role

As monitors of the application of HR policies and procedures and the extent to which the organization's values concerning people are concerned, HR practitioners have a delicate, even a difficult, role to play. They are not there to 'police' what line managers do but it is still necessary to ensure that the policies and procedures are implemented with a reasonable degree of consistency. This role as described by Storey (1992a) can mean that HR specialists can act as 'regulators' who are 'managers of discontent' involved in formulating and monitoring employment rules. Although the tendency is to devolve more responsibility for HR matters to line managers, they cannot be given total freedom to flout company policy or to contravene the provisions of employment, equal opportunity and health and safety legislation. A balance has to be struck between freedom and consistency or legal obligations. For example, line managers may be given authority to award pay increases within a budget, but the HR department may monitor proposals and have the right to question unusual awards or distributions of increases. When a disciplinary case arises, the HR department has the right to insist that the standard disciplinary procedure is followed.

HR practitioners may also act as the guardians of the organization's values concerning people. They point out when behavior conflicts with those values or where proposed actions will be inconsistent with them. In a sense, their roles require them to act as the 'conscience' of management - a necessary role but not an easy one to play.

The monitoring role is particularly important with regard to employment legislation. HR practitioners have to ensure that policies and procedures comply with the legislation and that they are implemented correctly by line managers.

4. Models Of HR Management Roles

There is, of course, a variation in HR roles which follows from the great diversity in organizations and the people who run them. There are a number of models classifying types of roles. Although none of these is universal, they provide some insight into the different ways in which HR practitioners operate. Two of the best known models are summarized below.

The Tyson and Fell (1986) models The three management models are:

- *The clerk of works model* - in this model all authority for action is vested in line managers. HR policies are formed or created after the actions that created the need. Policies are not integral to the business and are short term and ad hoc. Authority is vested in line managers and HR activities are largely routine -employment and day-to-day administration.
- *The contracts manager model* - in this model policies are well established, often implicit, with a heavy industrial relations emphasis, possibly derived from an employers' association. The HR department will use fairly sophisticated systems, especially in the field of employee relations. The HR manager is likely to be a professional or very experienced in industrial relations. He or she will not be on the board and, although having some authority to 'police' the implementation of policies, acts mainly in an interpretative, not a creative or innovative, role.
- *The architect model* - in this model explicit HR policies exist as part of the corporate strategy. Human resource planning and development are important concepts and a long-term view is taken. Systems tend to be sophisticated. The head of the HR function is probably on the board and his or her power is derived from professionalism and perceived contribution to the business.

The 'contractor' model is probably less common now since the relative decline of the importance of the industrial relations aspects of the HR manager's work.

Karen Legge (1978)

Two types of HR managers are described in this model:

- *Conformist innovators* go along with their organization's ends and adjust their means to achieve them. Their expertise is used as a source of professional power to improve the position of their departments.
- *Deviant innovators* attempt to change this means/ends relationship by gaining acceptance for a different set of criteria for the evaluation of organizational success and their contribution to it.

5. Conflict In The HR Contribution

HR specialists, as Thurley (1981) put it, often 'work against the grain'. Their values may be different from those of line managers and this is a potential cause of conflict. But conflict is inevitable in organizations, which are pluralistic societies, the members of which have different frames of reference and interests, particularly self-interest Management may

have their own priorities: 'increase shareholder value', 'keep the City happy', 'innovate', 'get the work done'. Employees might have a completely different set: 'pay me well and equitably', 'give me security', 'provide good working conditions', 'treat me fairly'. HR specialists, as noted above, may find themselves somewhere in the middle. Conflicts in the HR contribution can arise in the following ways:

- *A clash of values* - line managers may simply regard their workers as factors of production to be used, exploited and dispensed with in accordance with organizational imperatives.
- *Different priorities* - management's priority may be to add value - make more out of less - and if this involves getting rid of people that's too bad. HR people may recognize the need to add value but not at the expense of employees.
- *Freedom versus control* - line managers may want the freedom to get on with things their own way, interpreting company policies to meet their needs, and the thrust for devolution has encouraged such feelings. But HR specialists will be concerned about the achievement of a consistent and equitable approach to managing people and implementing HR policies. They will also be concerned with the attainment of a proper degree of compliance to employment and health and safety law. They may be given the responsibility for exercising control, and conflict is likely if they use this authority too rigidly.
- *Disputes* - if unions are recognized, HR specialists may be involved in conflict during the process of resolution. Even when there are no unions, there may be conflict with individuals or groups of employees about the settlement of grievances.

As Mary Parker Follett (1924) wrote, there is the possibility that conflict can be creative if an integrative approach is used to settle it. This means clarifying priorities, policies and roles, using agreed procedures to deal with grievances and disputes, bringing differences of interpretation out into the open and achieving consensus through a solution which recognizes the interests of both parties - a win-win process. Resolving conflict by the sheer exercise of power (win-lose) will only lead to further conflict. Resolving conflict by compromise may lead to both parries being dissatisfied (lose-lose).

Ethical Considerations

HR specialists are concerned with ethical standards in two ways: their conduct as professionals and the ethical standards of their firms.

Professional conduct

The IPD's Code of Professional Conduct (1993a) states that members must respect the following standards of conduct:

- *Accuracy* - personnel practitioners must maintain high standards of accuracy in the information and advice they provide to employers and employees.
- *Confidentiality* - personnel practitioners must respect their employer's legitimate needs for confidentiality and ensure that all personal information (including information about current, past and prospective employees) remains private.
- *Counselling* - personnel practitioners with the relevant skills must be prepared to act as counsellors to individual employees, pensioners and dependants or to refer them, where appropriate, to other professionals or helping agencies.
- *Developing others* - personnel practitioners must encourage self-development and seek to achieve the fullest possible development of employees in the service of present and future organization needs.
- *Equal opportunities* - personnel practitioners must promote fair, non-discriminatory employment practices.

- *Fair dealing* - personnel practitioners must maintain fair and reasonable standards in their treatment of individuals.
- *Self-development* - personnel practitioners must seek continuously to improve their performance and update their skills and knowledge.

6. Professionalism In Human Resource Management

If the term is used loosely, HR specialists are professional because they display expertise in doing their work. A professional occupation such as medicine or law could, however, be defined as one that gives members of its association exclusive rights to practise their profession. A profession is not so much an occupation as a means of controlling an occupation. Human resource management is obviously not in this category.

The nature of professional work was best defined by the Hayes Committee (1972) as follows:

Work done by the professional is usually distinguished by its reference to a framework of fundamental concepts linked with experience rather than by impromptu reaction to events or the application of laid down procedures. Such a high level of distinctive competence reflects the skilful application of specialised education, training and experience. This should be accompanied by a sense of responsibility and an acceptance of recognized standards.

A ‘profession' may be identified on the basis of the following criteria:

- skills based on theoretical knowledge; the provision of training and education;
- a test of the competence of members administered by a professional body;
- a formal professional organization which has the power to regulate entry to the profession;
- a professional code of conduct.

How To Be An Effective HR Practitioner

Effective HR practitioners:

- Operate strategically - they have the ability to take, and implement, a strategic and coherent view of the whole range of HR policies, processes and practices in relation to the business as a whole.
- Ensure that their innovations and services are aligned to business needs and priorities, while taking account of the needs of employees and other stakeholders.
- Understand the culture of the organization and have the capability to facilitate change, initiating it when necessary and acting as a stabilizing force in situations where change would be damaging.
- Appreciate organizational and individual needs. Against a background of their knowledge of organizational behaviour, they understand how organizations function and the factors affecting individual motivation and commitment. They are capable of analysing and diagnosing the people requirements of the organization and proposing and implementing appropriate action.
- Understand HR systems and techniques.
- Are value driven - they have a well-developed set of values and ethical standards relating to the management of people and how they (the practitioners) carry out their work, and they measure what they do against these values. But they have to be able to cope with the possibility that some of the values they espouse, such as equal opportunity, may not be seen as so important by the managers they advise.

- Are business-like - if they are in the private sector, they are fully aware of the needs of the business as a commercial, market orientated and profit-making enterprise and are equally aware of how they can help to fulfil these needs. They have to demonstrate that they can make value-added contributions that will increase shareholder value in a public company. They must justify and evaluate their activities on a return on investment basis. In the public or not-for-profit sectors, HR specialists have to adopt an equally business-like approach. In any sector, they have to demonstrate their efficiency as administrators as well as their effectiveness in an enabling role.
- Get involved - they get involved in the business and with the people who run the business. They must know what is going on. Perhaps the most practical of all HR techniques is HRMBWA: HRM by walking about. Adopting this approach means that they can find out what people as well as the business need and want. Using their antennae, they can spot symptoms and, using their diagnostic skills (an important attribute), they can identify causes and solutions. If they want to get anything done, they know that managers must 'own' both the problem and its solution. Close involvement means that HR people can become adept at transferring ownership.
- Are good at networking - they form alliances and identify 'champions of change'.
- Are careful to test their ideas before moving too quickly in a direction that will fail to interest their line management colleagues or even provoke their hostility.
- Recognize that 'nothing succeeds like success'. In other words, if they want to innovate, they may, if there is no urgent requirement for general action, start in one part of the organization (where there is support for the idea) and, having proved that it works well, point out the benefits to managers elsewhere in the organization. It can then be extended progressively. An incremental approach to change on the basis of successful accomplishment can be more effective than a 'big bang'.
- Intervene effectively - HR specialists have to use their awareness of business needs to select the right place and time to intervene.
- Are persuasive - they present the proposals and recommendations emerging from their interventions persuasively.
- Are realistic - they recognize the law of the situation - the logic of facts and events. This means that ideas for improvement or innovation are thoroughly tested against an analysis of the characteristics and true needs of the organization.
- Sell ideas to management on the basis of the practical and, wherever possible, measurable benefits that will result from their implementation (it is not the idea itself that is saleable but the result it can achieve). The proposals are presented with great care to managers so that they demonstrate that they will provide direct help to them in running the business or their department more effectively than before.
- Provide unobtrusive assistance, guidance and encouragement in implementing new processes and systems - not from the stance of a would-be professional who knows it all, but from the point of view of a colleague who can give practical help in achieving something worthwhile.

Competence In HR Management

The requirements for effective HR management set out above can be summed up by the use of the language of competences. This may be done by developing a 'competence map' as set out in Table 2.1. This defines seven competence areas for an HR director and gives

instances of competent behaviour in each of those areas. A map of this nature can be used for the development of HR specialists.

Table 2.1

HR competence map

Strategic capability	Seeks involvement in strategy formulation and contributes to the development of business strategy.	Has a clear strategic vision of how HR can support the achievement of the business strategy.	Understands the critical success factors of the business and the implications for HR strategy.	Develops and implements integrated and coherent HR strategies.
Business and cultural awareness	Understands the business' environment and the competitive pressures it faces.	Understands the key activities and processes of the business and how these affect HR strategies.	Understands the culture (values and norms) of the business as the basis for developing culture change strategies.	Adapts HR strategies to fit business and cultural imperatives.
Organizational effectiveness	Understands key factors which contribute to organizational effectiveness and ads accordingly.	Contributes to planning transformational change programmes and managing change.	Helps to develop a high-quality, skilled, committed and flexible workforce.	Facilitates team building
Internal consultancy	Analyses and diagnoses people issues and suggests practical solutions.	Adapts intervention style to lit Internal client needs: acts as catalyst, facilitator or expert as required.	Uses process consultancy approaches to help resolve people problems and issues.	Coaches clients to deal with own problems; transfers skills.
Service delivery	Anticipates requirements and sets up services to meet them.	Responds promptly and efficiently to requests for help and advice.	Empowers line managers to make HR decisions but provides guidance as required.	Provides cost-effective services in each HR area.
Quality	Contributes to the develop of a total quality approach throughout the organization.	Identifies Internal customer requirements for HR services and responds to their needs.	Demonstrates a concern for total quality and continuous improvement in own work.	Promotes total quality and continuous improvement In HR function.
Continuous professional development	Continually develops professional knowledge and skills.	Benchmarks best HR practice and keeps in touch with new HR developments.	Demonstrates understanding of relevant HR practices.	Promotes awareness in own function.

Lecture 3 Human resource planning

1. *An organizational framework*
2. *Linking organizational strategy*
3. *Human resource information systems*
4. *Job analysis methods*

1. An Organizational Framework

Human resource planning – process of determining an organization's human resource needs.

The strategic planning process in an organization is both long and continuous. At the beginning of the process, the organization's main emphasis is to determine what business it is in. This is commonly referred to as developing the mission statement. Defining the organization's mission forces key decision makers to identify the scope of its products or services carefully. For example, *Fast Company,* a business magazine, established its mission and set its sights "to chronicle the epic changes sweeping across business and to equip readers with the ideas, tool, and tactics that they need to thrive."

Why is the mission statement important? It's the foundation on which every decision in the organization should be made. Take, for instance, a part of Home Depot's mission statement—to be the world's largest home improvement retailer. The mission statement does clarifies for all organizational members what exactly the company is about. For example, Home Depot's decision to expand into Canada and Mexico, to build stores that average 100,000 square feet, as well as to stock upwards of 50,000 products are decisions within the boundaries set by the mission. However, these same managers would know that any effort to expand the company's product lines to include food products is inconsistent with the mission. This discussion is not meant to say that mission statements are written in stone; at any time, after careful study and deliberation, they can be changed.

After reaching agreement on what business the company is in and who its consumers are, senior management then begins to set strategic goals. During this phase, these managers define objectives for the company for the next 5 to 20 years. These objectives are broad statements that establish targets the organization will achieve. After these goals are set, the next step in the strategic planning process begins—the corporate assessment. During this phase, a company begins to analyze its goals, its current strategies, its external environment, its strengths and weaknesses, and its opportunities and threats, in terms of whether they can be achieved with the current organizational resources. Commonly referred to as a "gap or SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis," the company begins to look at what skills, knowledge and abilities are available internally, and where shortages in terms of people skills or equipment may exist.

This analysis forces management to recognize that every organization, no matter how large and powerful, is constrained in some "way by the resources and skills it has available. An automobile manufacturer such as Ferrari cannot start making minivans simply because its management sees opportunities in that market. Ferrari does not have the resources to successfully compete against the likes of DaimlerChrysler, Ford, Toyota, and Nissan. On the other hand, Renault and a Peugeot Fiat partnership can, and they may begin expanding their European markets by selling minivans in North America.

The SWOT analysis should lead to a clear assessment of the organization's internal resources—such as capital, worker skills, patents, and the like. It should also indicate organizational departmental abilities such as training and development, marketing, accounting, human resources, research and development, and management information systems. An organization's best attributes and abilities are called its strengths. And any of those strengths that represent unique skills or resources that can determine the organization's competitive edge are called its core competency. On the other hand, those resources an organization lacks or activities the firm does poorly are its weaknesses. This SWOT analysis phase of the strategic planning process cannot be overstated; it serves as the link between the

organization's goals and ensuring that the company can meet its objectives—that is, establishes the direction of the company through strategic planning.

The company must determine what jobs need to be done and how many and what types of workers will be required. In management terminology, we call this *organizing.* Thus, establishing the structure of the organization assists in determining the skills, knowledge, and abilities required of jobholders. Only at this point do we begin to look at people to meet these criteria. And that's where human resource management comes in to play an integral role. To determine what skills are needed, HRM conducts a job analysis. Figure 3.1 is a graphic representation of this process. The key message in Figure 3.1 is that all jobs in the organization ultimately must be tied to the company's mission and strategic direction. Unless jobs can be linked to the organization's strategic goals, these goals become a moving target. It's no wonder, then, that employment planning has become more critical in organizations. Let's look at how human resource planning operates within the strategic planning process.

2. LINKING ORGANIZATIONAL STRATEGY

To ensure that appropriate personnel are available to meet the requirements set during the strategic planning process, human resource managers engage in employment planning. The purpose of this planning effort is to determine what HRM requirements exist for current and future supplies and demands for workers. For example, if a company has set as one of its goals to expand its production capabilities over the next five years, such action will require that skilled employees be available to handle the jobs. After this assessment, employment planning matches the supplies and demands for labor, supporting the people component.

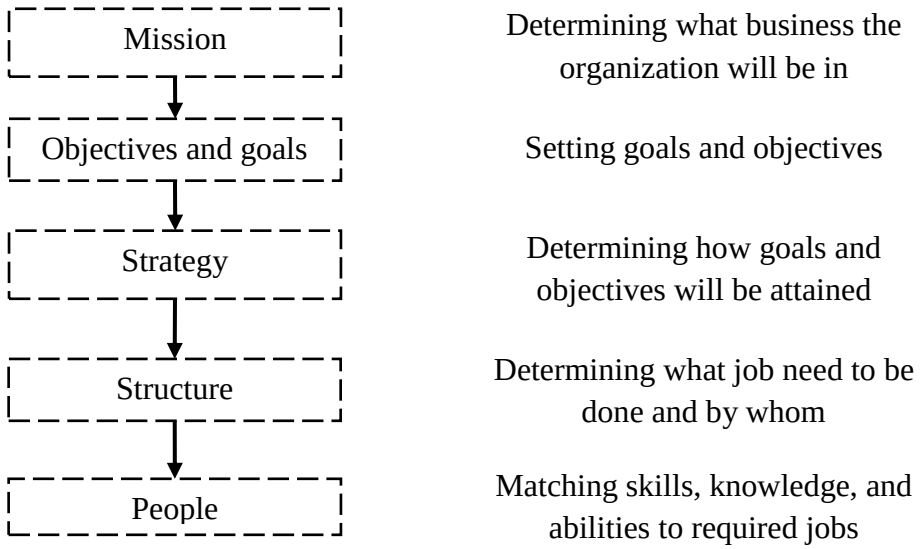


Figure 3.1 – Linking Organizational Strategy to Human Resource Planning

Assessing Current Human Resources

Assessing current human resources begins by developing a profile of the organization's current employees. This internal analysis includes information about the workers and the skills they currently possess. In an era of sophisticated computer systems, it is not too difficult for most organizations to generate an effective and detailed human resources inventory report. The input to this report would be derived from forms completed by employees and checked by supervisors. Such reports would include a complete list of all

employees by name, education, training, prior employment, current position, performance ratings, salary level, languages spoken, capabilities, and specialized skills. For example, if internal translators were needed for suppliers, customers, or employee assistance, a contact list could be developed.

From a planning viewpoint, this input is valuable in determining what skills are currently available in the organization. The inventory serves as a guide for supporting new organizational pursuits or in altering the organization's strategic direction. This report also has value in other HRM activities, such as selecting individuals for training and development, promotion, and transfers. The completed profile of the human resources inventory can also provide crucial information for identifying current or future threats to the organization's ability to successfully meets its goals. For example, the organization can use the information from the inventory to identify specific variables that may have a particular relationship to training needs, productivity improvements, and succession planning. A characteristic like technical obsolescence, or workers not trained to function with new computer requirements, can, if it begins to permeate the entire organization, adversely affect the organization's performance.

Identifying these employees and their skills is important, but one must also recognize that keeping them in the organization is crucial. With less employee loyalty in existence in today's organizations, HRM must find ways to ensure that employees are retained. Frequently called employee retention, HRM must lead the way to help managers understand that they play a critical role in retaining workers, that their actions can go a long way to either stimulate or reduce employee turnover. That's because it's estimated that about three-fourths of the reasons employees quit their jobs and leave organizations are within the control of managers, such as being honest with employees, giving them challenging work, and recognizing them for their performance.

3. Human Resource Information Systems.

To assist in the HR inventory, organizations have implemented a **human resource information system (HRIS).**

The HRIS (sometimes referred to as a human resource management system [HRMS]) is designed to quickly fulfill the human resource management informational needs of the organization. The HRIS is a database system that keeps important information about employees in a central and accessible location— even information on the global workforce. When such information is required, the data can be retrieved and used to facilitate employment planning decisions. Its technical potential permits the organization to track most information about employees and jobs and to retrieve that information when needed. In many cases, this information can help an organization gain a competitive advantage. An HRIS may also be used to help track EEO data. Exhibit 3.1 is a listing of typical information tracked on an HRIS.

Group 1 Basic Nonconfidential Information
Employee name
Organization name
Work location
Work phone number
Group 2 General Nonconfidential Information
Information in the previous category, plus:
Social Security number
Other organization information (code, effective date)
Position-related information (code, title, effective date)

Group 3 General Information With Salary
Information in the previous category, plus:
Current salary, effective date, amount of last change, type of last change, and reason of last change
Group 4 Confidential Information With Salary
Information in the previous category, plus:
Other position information (EEO code, position ranking, and FLSA)
Education data
Group 5 Extended Confidential Information With Salary
Information in the previous category, plus:
Bonus information
Project salary increase information
Performance evaluation information

Exhibit 3.1 – Listing of typical information tracked on an HRIS

HRISs have grown significantly in popularity in the past two decades. This is essentially due to the recognition that management needs timely information on its people; moreover, new technological breakthroughs have significantly cut the cost of these systems. Additionally, HRISs are now more "user-friendly" and provide quick and responsive reports—especially when linked to the organization's management information system. Moreover, systems today can streamline certain HRM processes, such as having employees select their employee benefits on-line during a period called open enrollment.

At a time when quick analysis of an organization's human resources is critical, the HRIS is filling a void in the human resource planning process. With information readily available, organizations are in a better position to quickly move forward in achieving their organizational goals. Additionally, the HRIS is useful in other aspects of human resource management, providing data support for compensation and benefits programs, as well as providing a necessary link to corporate payroll.

Succession Planning. In addition to the computerized HRIS system, some organizations also generate a separate management inventory report. This report, typically called a replacement chart, covers individuals in middle to upper-level management positions. In an effort to facilitate succession planning—ensuring that another individual is ready to move into a position of higher responsibility— the replacement chart highlights those positions that may become vacant in the near future due to retirements, promotions, transfers, resignations, or death of the incumbent. Not only is this useful for planning purposes, research suggests that in organizations where succession planning efforts occur, employee morale is increased by 25 percent.

Against this list of positions is placed the individual manager's skills inventory to determine if there is sufficient managerial talent to cover potential future vacancies. This "readiness" chart gives management an indication of time frames for succession, as well as helping to spot any skill shortages. Should skill shortages exist, human resource management can either recruit new employees or intensify employee development efforts. At Intel, for example, succession starts shortly after an individual is hired. Employees marked for promotions are coached on management activities and are extensively trained to assume positions of greater responsibility.

Replacement charts look similar to traditional organizational charts. With the incumbents listed in their positions, those individuals targeted for replacement are listed

beneath with the expected time in which they will be prepared to take on the needed responsibility. We have provided a sample replacement chart in Exhibit 3.2.

Determining the Demand for Labor

Once an assessment of the organization's current human resources situation has been made and the future direction of the organization has been considered, it's time to develop a projection of future human resource needs. This means performing a year-by-year analysis for every significant job level and type. In effect, the result is a human resource inventory covering specified years into the future. These pro-forma inventories obviously must be comprehensive and therefore complex. Organizations usually require a diverse mix of people. That's because employees are not perfectly

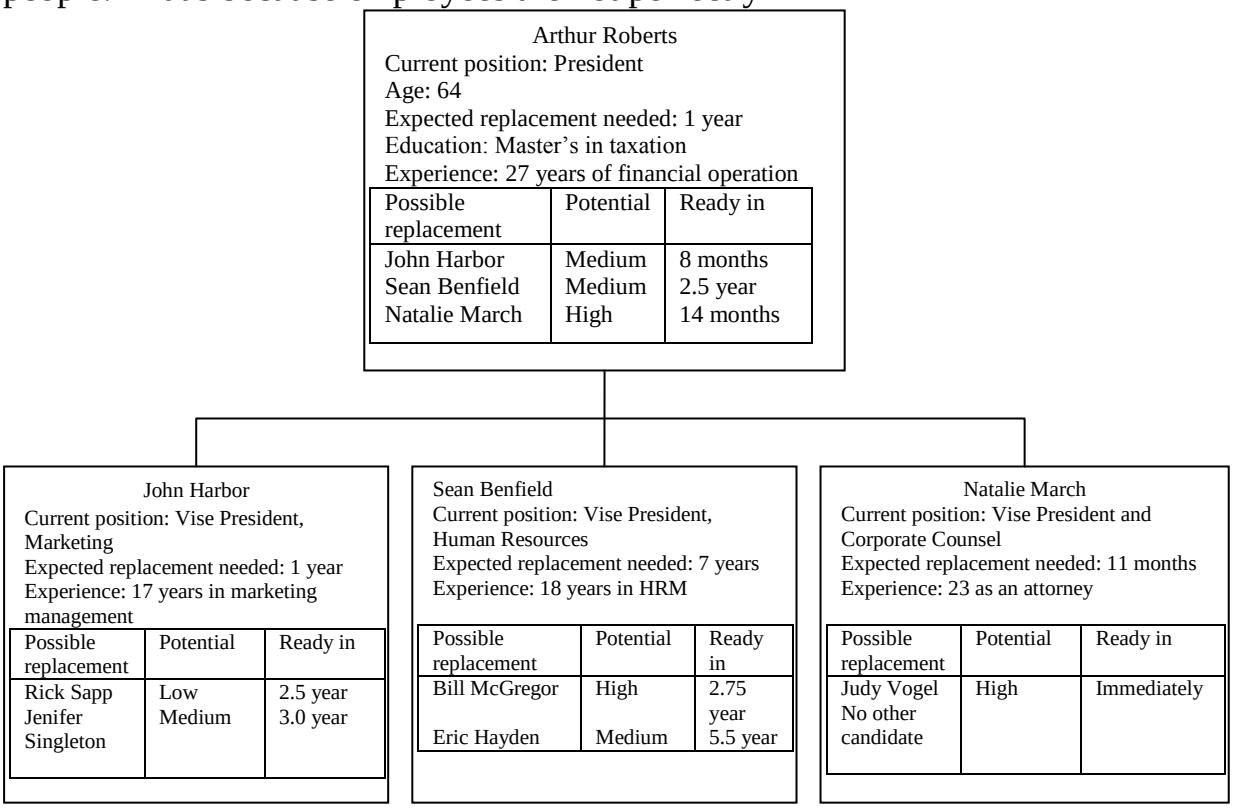


Exhibit 3.2. – A sample replacement chart

substitutable for one another within an organization. For example, a shortage of actuaries in an insurance company cannot be offset by transferring employees from the purchasing area where there is an oversupply. Accurate estimates of future demands in both qualitative and quantitative terms require more information than to determine that, for example, in the next 24 months, we will have to hire another 85 individuals. Instead, it is necessary to know what types of employees, in terms of skills, knowledge, and abilities, are required. Remember, these skills, knowledge, and abilities are determined based on the jobs required to meet the strategic direction of the organization. Accordingly, our forecasting methods must allow for the recognition of specific job needs as well as the total number of vacancies.

Predicting the Future Labor Supply

Estimating changes in internal supply requires HRM to look at those factors that can either increase or decrease its employee base. As previously noted in the discussion on estimating demand, forecasting of supply must also concern itself with the micro, or unit, level. For example, if one individual in Department X is transferred to a position in Department Y, and an individual in Department Y is transferred to a position in Department X, the net effect on the organization is zero. However, if only one individual is initially

involved—say, promoted and sent to another location in the company—only through effective human resource planning can a competent replacement will be available to fill the position vacated by the departing employee. An increase in the supply of any unit's human resources can come from a combination of four sources: new hires, contingent workers, transfers-in, or individuals returning from leaves. The task of predicting these new inputs can range from simple to complex.

Decreases in the internal supply can come about through retirements, dismissals, transfers-out of the unit, layoffs, voluntary quits, sabbaticals, prolonged illnesses, or deaths. Some of these occurrences are obviously easier to predict than others. The easiest to forecast are retirements, assuming that employees typically retire after a certain length of service, and the fact that most organizations require some advance notice of one's retirement intent. Given a history of the organization, HRM can predict with some accuracy how many retirements will occur over a given time period. Remember, however, that retirement, for the most part, is voluntary. Under the Age Discrimination in Employment Act, an organization cannot force most employees to retire.

At the other extreme, voluntary quits, prolonged illnesses, and deaths are difficult to predict—if not impossible. Deaths of employees are the most difficult to forecast because they are often unexpected. Although Southwest Airlines or Nissan Motors can use probability statistics to estimate the number of deaths that will occur among its employee population, such techniques are useless for forecasting in small organizations or estimating the exact positions that will be affected in large ones. Voluntary quits can also be predicted by utilizing probabilities when the population size is large. In a company like Microsoft, managers can estimate the approximate number of voluntary quits during any given year. In a department consisting of two or three workers, however, probability estimation is essentially meaningless. Weak predictive ability in small units is unfortunate, too, because voluntary quits typically have the greatest impact on such units.

In between the extremes—transfers, layoffs, sabbaticals, and dismissals— forecasts within reasonable limits of accuracy can be made. All four of these types of action are controllable by management—that is, they are either initiated by management or are within management's veto prerogative—and so each type can be reasonably predicted. Of the four, transfers out of a unit, such as lateral moves, demotions, or promotions, are the most difficult to predict because they depend on openings in other units. Layoffs are more controllable and anticipated by management, especially in the short run. Sabbaticals, too, are reasonably easy to forecast, since most organizations' sabbatical policies require a reasonable lead time between request and initiation of the leave.

Dismissals based on inadequate job performance can usually be forecasted with the same method as voluntary quits, using probabilities where large numbers of employees are involved. Additionally, performance evaluation reports are usually a reliable source for isolating the number of individuals whose employment might have to be terminated at a particular point in time due to unsatisfactory work performance.

Where Will We Find Workers?

The previous discussion on supply considered internal factors. We will now review those factors outside the organization that influence the supply of available workers. Recent graduates from schools and colleges expand the supply of available human resources. This market is vast and includes high-school and college graduates, as well as those who received highly specialized training through an alternative supplier of job skills training. Entrants to the workforce from sources other than schools may also include men and women seeking

full or part-time work, students seeking work to pay for their education or support themselves while in school, employees returning from military service, job seekers who have been recently laid off, and so on. Migration into a community may also increase the number of individuals seeking employment opportunities and accordingly represent another source for the organization to consider as potential additions to its labor supply.

It should be noted that consideration of only these previously identified supply sources tends to understate the potential labor supply because many people can be retrained through formal or on-the-job training. Therefore, the potential supply can differ from what one might conclude by looking only at the obvious sources of supply. For example, with a minimal amount of training, a journalist can become qualified to perform the tasks of a book editor; thus, an organization having difficulty securing individuals with skills and experience in book editing should consider those candidates who have had recent journalism or similar experience and are interested in being editors. In similar fashion, the potential supply for many other jobs can be expanded.

Matching Labor Demand and Supply

The objective of employment planning is to bring together the forecasts of future demand for workers and the supply for human resources, both current and future. The result of this effort is to pinpoint shortages both in number and in kind; to highlight areas where overstaffing may exist (now or in the near future); and to keep abreast of the opportunities existing in the labor market to hire qualified employees—either to satisfy current needs or to stockpile potential candidates for the future.

Special attention must be paid to determining shortages. Should an organization find that the demand for human resources will increase in the future, it must hire or contract with additional staff or transfer people within the organization, or both, to balance the numbers, skills, mix, and quality of its human resources. An often-overlooked action, but one that may be necessary because of inadequate availability of human resources, is to change the organization's objectives. Just as inadequate financial resources can restrict the growth and opportunities available to an organization, the unavailability of the right types of employees can also act as such a constraint, even leading to changing the organization's objectives.

When dealing with employment planning, another outcome is also likely: the existence of an oversupply. When this happens, human resource management must undertake some difficult steps to sever these people from the organization—a process referred to as *recruitment.*

Corporate strategic and employment planning are two critically linked processes; one cannot survive without the other. Accordingly, to perform both properly requires a blending of activities. We have portrayed these linkages in Exhibit 3.3.

Burke and Associates, a strategic management services company, has a client with a 65 percent turnover of sales professionals over the past 18 months. An analysis of the resignations indicated that the average length of stay has been only nine months. Perplexed by this dilemma and the resulting loss to productivity and revenue, consultants from Burke recommended an investigation to find out why such high turnover levels exist.

The complex investigation partly involved contacting most of the individuals who resigned to ask them why they quit. Responses indicated that what they were hired to do often differed from what they were required to do. The actual work required different skills and aptitudes. Feeling frustrated and bored, and not wanting to jeopardize their career records, they quit. Unfortunately, the company's training costs these past three years had run approximately 300 percent over budget. When one senior manager was asked what made it

so difficult to properly match the job requirements with people skills, she had no answer. No one in the organization had taken the time to find out what the jobs were all about. In other words, the job analysis process was lacking.

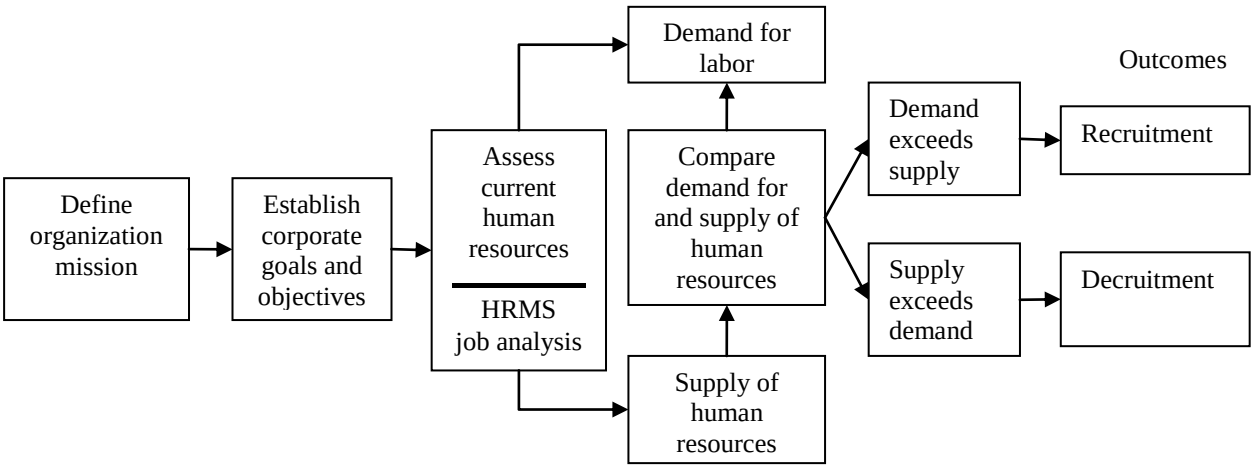


Exhibit 3.3. – *Employment Planning and the Strategic Planning Process*

A job analysis is a systematic exploration of the activities within a job. It is a technical procedure used to define a job's duties, responsibilities, and accountabilities. This analysis "involves the identification and description of what is happening on the job . . . accurately and precisely identifying the required tasks, the knowledge, and the skills necessary for performing them, and the conditions under which they must be performed." Let's explore how this can be achieved.

4. Job Analysis Methods

The basic methods by which HRM can determine job elements and the essential knowledge, skills, and abilities for successful performance include the following:

Observation Method. Using the observation method, a job analyst watches employees directly or reviews films of workers on the job. Although the observation method provides firsthand information, workers rarely function most efficiently when they are being watched, and thus distortions in the job analysis can occur. This method also requires that the entire range of activities be observable, which is possible with some jobs, but impossible for many—for example, most managerial jobs.

Individual Interview Method. The individual interview method assembles a team of job incumbents for extensive individual interviews. The results of these interviews are combined into a single job analysis. This method is effective for assessing what a job entails. Involving employees in the job analysis is essential.

Group Interview Method. The group interview method is similar to the individual interview method except that job incumbents are interviewed simultaneously. Accuracy is increased in assessing jobs, but group dynamics may hinder its effectiveness.

Structured Questionnaire Method. The structured questionnaire method gives workers a specifically designed questionnaire on which they check or rate items they perform in their job from a long list of possible task items. This technique is excellent for gathering information about jobs. However, exceptions to a job may be overlooked, and opportunity may be lacking to ask follow-up questions or to clarify the information received.

Technical Conference Method The technical conference method uses supervisors with extensive knowledge of the job. Here, specific job characteristics are obtained from the

"experts." Although a good data-gathering method, it often overlooks the incumbent workers' perceptions about what they do on their job.

Diary Method. The diary method requires job incumbents to record their daily activities. This is the most time consuming of the job analysis methods and may extend over long periods of time—all adding to its cost.

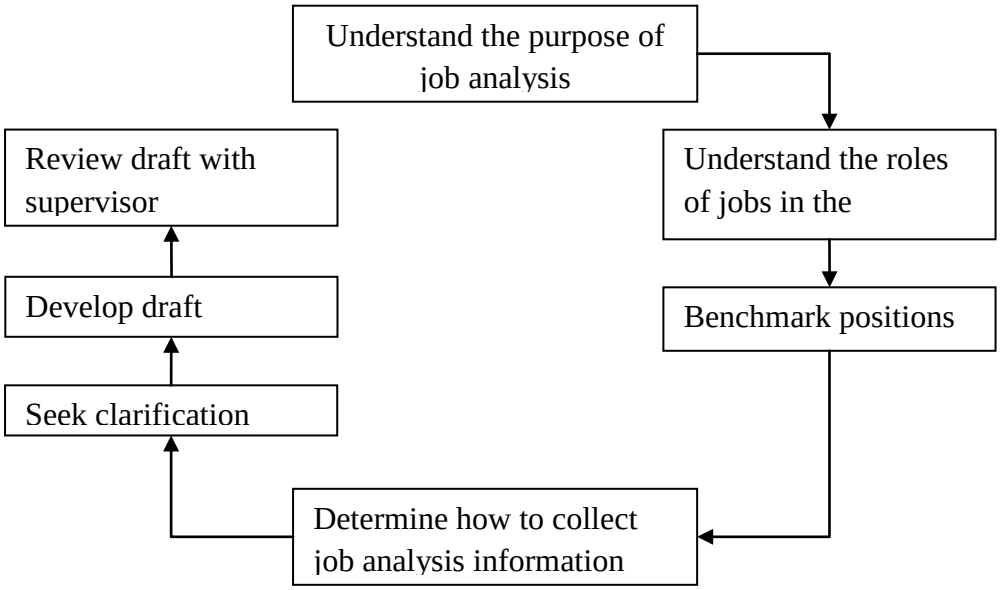


Exhibit 3.4. – Steps in a Job Analysis

These six methods are not mutually exclusive; nor is one method universally superior. Even obtaining job information from incumbents can create a problem, especially if these individuals describe what they think they should be doing rather than what they actually do. The best results, then, are usually achieved with some combination of methods—with information provided by individual employees, their immediate supervisors, a professional analyst, or an unobtrusive source such as filmed observations.

There are several steps involved in conducting the job analysis. We'll listed them in Exhibit 3.4.

Purpose of Job Analysis

No matter what method you use to gather data, the information amassed and written down from the conceptual, analytical job analysis process generates three tangible outcomes: job descriptions, job specifications, and job evaluation. Let's look at them more closely.

Job Descriptions. A job description is a written statement of what the jobholder does, how it is done, under what conditions, and why. It should accurately portray job content, environment, and conditions of employment. A common format for a job description includes the job title, the duties to be performed, the distinguishing characteristics of the job, environmental conditions, and the authority and responsibilities of the jobholder.

When we discuss employee recruitment, selection, and performance appraisal we will find that the job description acts as an important resource for (1) describing the job to potential candidates (either verbally by recruiters and interviewers or in written advertisements), (2) guiding newly hired employees in what they are specifically expected to do, and (3) providing a point of comparison in appraising whether the actual activities of a job incumbent align with the stated duties. Furthermore, under the Americans with

Disabilities Act, job descriptions have taken on an added emphasis in identifying essential job functions.

Job Specifications. The job specification states the minimum acceptable qualifications that the incumbent must possess to perform the job successfully. Based on information acquired through job analysis, the job specification identifies pertinent knowledge, skills, education, experience, certification, and abilities. Individuals possessing the personal characteristics identified in the job specification should perform the job more effectively than those lacking these personal characteristics. The job specification, therefore, is an important tool for keeping the selector's attention on the list of necessary qualifications and assisting in determining whether candidates are essentially qualified.

Job Evaluations. In addition to providing data for job descriptions and specifications, job analysis also provides valuable information for making job comparisons. If an organization is to have an equitable compensation program, jobs that have similar demands in terms of skills, knowledge, and abilities should be placed in common compensation groups. Job evaluation contributes by specifying the relative value of each job in the organization, which makes it an important part of compensation administration. In the meantime, keep in mind that job evaluation relies on data generated from job analysis.

The Multifaceted Nature of Job Analysis

One of the overriding questions about job analysis is whether or not it is conducted properly, if at all. The answer to this question varies, depending on the organization. Generally, most organizations do conduct some type of job analysis. This job analysis, however, extends beyond meeting the federal equal employment opportunity requirement. Almost everything that HRM does relates directly to the job analysis process (see Exhibit 3.5). Organizations frequently cite recruiting, selection, compensation, and performance appraisal as activities directly affected by the job analysis, among others. The job analysis process assists employee training and career development by identifying necessary skills, knowledge, and abilities. Where deficiencies exist, training and development efforts can help. Job analysis also aids in determining safety and health requirements and labor relations processes. Accordingly, the often-lengthy and complex job analysis process cannot be overlooked.

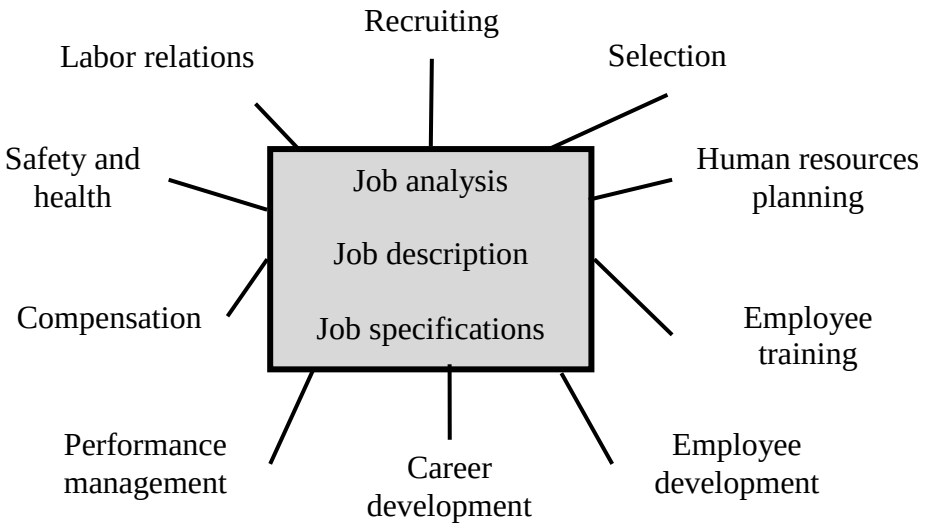


Exhibit 3.5 – The Multifaceted Nature of Job Analysis

Lecture 4 Recruiting

Introduction

1. *Recruiting goals*
2. *Recruiting: A global perspective*
3. *Recruiting Sources*
4. *Meeting the organization*

Introduction

Recruiting - the process of seeking sources for job candidates.

Successful employment planning is designed to identify an organization's human resource needs. Once these needs are known, an organization will want to meet them. The next step in staffing, then—assuming, of course, that demand for certain skills, knowledge, and abilities is greater than the current supply—is recruiting. The company must acquire the people necessary to ensure the continued operation of the organization. Recruiting is the process of discovering potential candidates for actual or anticipated organizational vacancies. Or, from another perspective, it is a linking activity that brings together those with jobs to fill and those seeking jobs.

In this chapter, we'll explore the activities surrounding looking for employees. We'll look at the fundamental activities surrounding the recruiting process and provide insight and guidance in preparing a resume and cover letter that may enhance your own chances of making it through this first step of the hiring process.

1. Recruiting Goals

An effective recruiting process requires a significant pool of candidates to choose from—and the more diversity within that group the better. Achieving a satisfactory pool of candidates, however, may not be easy, especially in a tight labor market. The first goal of recruiting, then, is to communicate the position in such a way that job seekers respond. Why? The more applications received, the better the recruiter's chances for finding an individual who is best suited to the job requirements.

Simultaneously, however, the recruiter must provide enough information about the job that unqualified applicants can select themselves out of job candidacy. For instance, when Ben & Jerry's was searching for a new CEO several years ago, someone with a conservative political view and a classical, bureaucratic perspective on management would not have wanted to apply because that individual wouldn't fit the company's renowned countercultural ways. Why is having potential applicants remove themselves from the applicant pool important to human resource management? Typically, the company acknowledges applications received. That acknowledgment costs time and money. Then there are the application reviews and a second letter to send, this time rejecting failed applications. Again, this incurs some costs. A-good recruiting program should attract the qualified and discourage the unqualified. Meeting this dual objective will minimize the cost of processing unqualified candidates.

Factors That Affect Recruiting Efforts

Although all organizations will, at one time or another, engage in recruiting activities, some do so more than others. Obviously, size is one factor; an organization with 100,000

employees must recruit continually. So, too, must fast-food firms, smaller service organizations, and firms that pay lower wages. Certain other variables will also influence the extent of recruiting. Employment conditions in the local community influence how much recruiting takes place. The effectiveness of past recruiting efforts will show itself in the organization's historical ability to locate and keep people who perform well. Working conditions and salary and benefit packages also influence turnover and, therefore, the need for future recruiting. Organizations not growing, or those actually declining, may find little need to recruit. On the other hand, growing organizations such as Home Depot, Pfizer, or FedEx will find recruitment a major human resource activity.

The more applications received, the better the recruiter's chances of finding an individual best suited to the job requirements.

Recruitment efforts are a challenge, even in these growing companies. Quality workers are becoming harder to locate. Unemployment in the new millennium, although fluctuating, is still relatively low. Therefore, HRM must develop new strategies to locate and hire individuals possessing the skills the company needs.

Constraints on Recruiting Effort

The ideal recruitment effort might bring in a satisfactory number of qualified applicants who want the job, but certain realities cannot be ignored. For example, a pool of qualified applicants may not include the "best" candidates, or the "best" candidate may not want to work for the organization. These and other constraints on recruiting efforts limit human resource recruiters' freedom to recruit and select a candidate of their choice. However, let us narrow our focus to five specific constraints.

Constraints on recruiting – efforts factors that can limit recruiting outcomes.

Organization Image. We noted that a prospective candidate may not be interested in pursuing job opportunities in the particular organization. The image of the organization, therefore, can be a potential constraint. A poor image may limit its attraction to applicants. Many college graduates know, for example, that those in the top spots at Disney earn excellent salaries, receive excellent benefits, and are greatly respected in their communities. Among most college graduates, Disney has a positive image. The hope of having a shot at one of its top jobs, being in the spotlight, and having a position of power means Disney has little trouble in attracting college graduates into entry-level positions. Microsoft, too, enjoys a positive image. But some graduates have negative or, more specifically, pessimistic views of some organizations. In certain communities, local firms have a reputation for being in a declining industry; engaging in practices that result in a polluted environment, poor-quality products, and unsafe working conditions; or being indifferent to employees' needs. Such reputations can and do reduce these organizations' abilities to attract the best personnel available.

Job Attractiveness. If the position to be filled is an unattractive job, recruiting a large and qualified pool of applicants will be difficult. In recent years, for instance, many employers have been complainer about the difficulty of finding suitably qualified individuals for manual labor position?? In a job market where unemployment rates are low, and where a wide range of opportunities creates competition for these workers, a shortage results. Moreover, jobs viewed as boring, hazardous, anxiety creating, low paying, or lacking in promotion potential seldom attract a qualified pool of applicants. Even during economic slumps, people have refused to take many of these jobs.

Internal Organizational. Policies Internal organizational policies, such as "promote from within wherever possible," may give priority to individuals inside the organization.

Such policies, when followed, typically ensure that all positions, other than the lowest-level entry positions, will be filled from within the ranks. Although this looks good once one is hired, it may reduce the number of applications.

Government Influence. The government's influence in the recruiting process should not be overlooked. An employer can no longer seek out preferred individuals based on non-job-related factors such as physical appearance, sex, or religious background. An airline that wants to hire only attractive females for flight attendant positions will find itself breaking the law if comparably qualified male candidates are rejected on the basis of gender—or female candidates are rejected on the basis of age.

Recruiting Costs. The last constraint, but certainly not lowest in priority, centers on recruiting costs. Recruiting efforts are expensive—costing as much as $10,500 per position being filled. Sometimes budget restrictions put a time limit on searches. Accordingly, when an organization considers various recruiting sources, it considers effectiveness, like maximizing its recruiting travel budget by first interviewing employees using conference calls or through videoconferencing.

2. Recruiting: A global perspective

The first step in recruiting for overseas positions, as always, is to define the relevant labor market. For international positions, however, that market is the whole world. Organizations must decide if they want to send an American overseas, recruit in the host country, or ignore nationality and do a global search for the best person available. It's important to make a proper choice; the cost of failure in an international assignment can run several hundred thousands of dollars.

This basic decision depends partly on the type of occupation and its requirements, as well as the stage of national and cultural development of the overseas operations. Although production, office, and clerical occupations are rarely filled beyond a local labor market, executive and sometimes scientific, engineering, or professional managerial candidates may be sought in national or international markets. If the organization is searching for someone with extensive company experience to launch a technical product in a new target country, it will probably want a home-country national. This approach often serves when a new foreign subsidiary is being established and headquarters wants to control all strategic decisions, but the plan requires technical expertise and experience. It is also appropriate where there is a lack of qualified host-country nationals in the workforce.

Other situations might benefit more from hiring a host-country national (HCN), assuming this is a choice. For an uncomplicated consumer product, wise corporate strategy may let each foreign subsidiary acquire its own distinct national identity. Clothing has different styles of merchandising, and an HCN may have a better feel for the best way to market the sweaters or jeans of an international manufacturer.

Sometimes the choice may not be entirely left to the corporation. In some countries, including most African nations, local laws control how many expatriates a corporation can send. The law may establish ratios, such as that 20 host-country nationals must be employed for every American granted working papers. Using HCNs eliminates language problems and avoids problems of expatriate adjustment and the high cost of training and relocating an expatriate with a family. It also minimizes one of the chief reasons international assignments fail—the family's inability to adjust to their new surroundings. Even if companies pay premiums to lure the best local applicants away from other companies, employee-related costs are significantly lower than with sending an American overseas. In countries with tense

political environments, an HCN is less visible and can somewhat insulate the U.S. corporation from hostilities and possible terrorism.

The third option, recruiting regardless of nationality, develops an international executive cadre with a truly global perspective. On a large scale, this type of recruiting may reduce managers' national identification with particular organizational units. For example, automobile manufacturers may develop a Taiwanese parts plant, Mexican assembly operations, and a U.S. marketing team, creating internal status difficulties through its different treatment of each country's employees.

3. Recruiting Sources

Recruiting is more likely to achieve its objectives if recruiting sources reflect the type of position to be filled. For example, an ad in the 'business employment section of the Wall Street Journal is more likely to be read by a manager seeking an executive position in the $150,000- to $225,000-a-year bracket than by an automobile assembly-line worker seeking employment. Similarly, an interviewer trying to fill a management-training position who visits a two-year vocational school in search of a college graduate with undergraduate courses in engineering and a master's degree in business administration is looking for the right person in the wrong place. Moreover, the Internet is rewriting all the rules. Jobs at all levels can be advertised on the Internet and potentially reach literally millions of people.

Certain recruiting sources are more effective than others for filling certain types of jobs. As we review each source in the following sections, we will emphasize their strengths and weaknesses in attempting to attract lower-level and managerial-level personnel.

Host-country national (HCN) – a citizen of the host country hired by an organization based in another country.

Expatriate - an individual who lives and works in a country of which he or she is not a citizen.

The Internal Search

Internal Search - a promotion-from-within concept.

Many large organizations attempt to develop their own low-level employees for higher positions. These promotions can occur through an internal search of current employees who have bid for the job, been identified through the organization's human resource management system, or even been referred by a fellow employee. The promote-from-within-wherever-possible policy has advantages:

It is good public relations.

It builds morale.

It encourages good individuals who are ambitious.

It improves the probability of a good selection, because information on the individual's performance is readily available.

It is less costly than going outside to recruit.

Those chosen internally already know the organization.

When carefully planned, promoting from within can also act as a training device for developing middle- and top-level managers.

There can be distinct disadvantages, however, to using internal sources. They could be dysfunctional if the organization uses less-qualified internal sources only because they are there, when excellent candidates are available on the outside. However, an individual from the outside, in contrast with someone already employed in the organization, may appear more attractive because the recruiter is unaware of the outsider's faults. Internal searches also

may generate infighting among rival candidates for promotion and decrease morale levels of those not selected.

The organization should also avoid excessive inbreeding. Occasional new blood can broaden current ideas, knowledge, and enthusiasm, and productively question the "we've-always-done-it-that-way" mentality. The organization's HRM files should provide information as to which employees might be considered for positions opening up within the organization. Most organizations can generate lists from computer databases of individuals who have the desirable characteristics to potentially fill the vacant position.

Employee referrals are an excellent means of locating potential employees for bard-to-fill positions.

In many organizations, it is standard procedure to post any new job openings and to allow any current employee to apply for the position. This action, too, receives favorable marks from the EEOC. The posting notification can be communicated on a central "positions open" bulletin board in the plants or offices, in the weekly or monthly organization newsletter, or, in some cases, in a specially prepared posting sheet from human resources outlining those positions currently available. Even if current employees are not interested in the position, they can pass these notices on to other individuals who may seek employment within the organization—the employee referral.

Employee Referrals and Recommendations

One of the better sources for individuals who will perform effectively on the job is a recommendation from a current employee. Why? Because employees rarely recommend someone unless they believe the individual can perform adequately. Such a recommendation reflects on the recommender, and when someone's reputation is at stake, we can expect the recommendation to reflect considered judgment.

Employee referrals - a recommendation from a current employee regarding a job applicant.

Employee referrals also may receive more accurate information about their potential jobs. The recommender often gives the applicant more realistic information about the job than could be conveyed through employment agencies or newspaper advertisements. This information reduces unrealistic expectations and increases job survival. As a result of these preselection factors, employee referrals tend to be more acceptable applicants, to be more likely to accept an offer, and, once employed, to have a higher job survival rate. Additionally, employee referrals are an excellent means of locating potential employees in those hard-to-fill positions. For example, difficulty in finding certain IT professionals, computer programmers, engineers, or nurses with specific skills has prompted some organizations to turn to their employees for assistance. Many of these organizations include a reward if an employee referral candidate is hired for these specifically identified hard-to-fill positions. Referral bonuses of $10,000 or more are not unusual in these fields. In doing so, both the organization and the employee benefit; the employee receives a monetary reward and the organization receives a qualified candidate without the major expense of an extensive recruiting search.

There are, of course, some potentially negative features of employee referral. For one, recommenders may confuse friendship with job performance competence. Individuals often like to have their friends join them at their place of employment for social and even economic reasons; for example, they may be able to share rides to and from work. As a result, a current employee may recommend a friend for a position without unbiased consideration to the friend's job-related competence. Employee referrals may also lead to

nepotism, that is, hiring individuals related to persons already employed by the organization. Although such actions may not necessarily align with the objective of hiring the most qualified applicant, interest in the organization and loyalty to it may be long-term advantages. Finally, employee referrals may also minimize an organization's desire to add diversity to the workplace.

Employee referrals do, however, appear to have universal application. Lower- level and managerial-level positions can be, and often are, filled by the recommendation of a current employee. Higher-level positions, however, are more likely to be referred by a professional acquaintance rather than a close friend. Jobs that require specialized expertise and where employees participate in professional organizations often produce acquaintances between current employees and individuals they think would make an excellent contribution to the organization.

External Searches

In addition to looking internally for candidates, organizations often open up recruiting efforts to the external community. These efforts include advertisements (including Internet postings), employment agencies, schools, colleges and universities, professional organizations, and unsolicited applicants.

Advertisements Sign outside a construction location: "Now Hiring—Framers." Newspaper advertisement: "Telemarketing Sales. We are looking for someone who wants to assume responsibility and wishes to become part of the fast-growing cellular telephone business. No previous sales experience required. Salary to $35,000. For appointment, call Mrs. Benson: 1-800-555-0075." More sophisticated Internet job search engines can provide us with a richness of data about the job and the company and link us to several other web sites that provide additional information.

Most of us have seen these kinds of advertisements. When an organization wishes to tell the public it has a vacancy, advertisement is one of the most popular methods used. The type of job often determines where the advertisement is placed. Although it is not uncommon to see blue-collar jobs listed on placards outside the plant gates, we would be surprised to find a vice presidency listed similarly. The higher the position in the organization, the more specialized the skills, or the shorter the supply of that resource in the labor force, the more widely dispersed the advertisement is likely to be. The search for a top executive might include advertisements in national publications—perhaps the Wall Street Journal or the New York Times—or be posted on executive-search firm web sites.13 On the other hand, advertisements of lower-level jobs usually appear in local daily newspapers, regional trade journals, or on broad-based Internet job sites.

Three important variables influence the response rate to advertisements: identification of the organization, labor market conditions, and the degree to which the advertisement includes specific requirements. Some organizations place a blind-box ad one that includes no specific identification of the organization.

A blind-box ad - an advertisement that does not identify the advertising organization.

Respondents are asked to reply to a post office box number or to an employment firm acting as an agent between the applicant and the organization. Large organizations with a national reputation seldom use blind advertisements to fill lower-level positions; however, when the organization does not wish to publicize the fact that it is seeking to fill an internal position, or when it seeks to recruit for a position where there is a soon-to-be-removed incumbent, a blind-box advertisement may be appropriate.

Although blind ads can assist HRM in finding qualified applicants, many individuals may be reluctant to answer them. Obviously, there is the fear, sometimes justified, that the advertisement has been placed by the organization in which the individual is currently employed. Also, the organization itself is frequently a key determinant of whether the individual is interested; therefore, potential candidates may be reluctant to reply. Such advertisements also have a bad reputation because some organizations place ads when no position exists in order to test the supply of workers in the community, to build a backlog of applicants, or to identify those current employees who are interested in finding a new position. Others place ads to satisfy affirmative action requirements when the final decision, for the greater part, has already been made.

The job analysis process is the basic source for ad information. The ad can focus on descriptive elements of the job (job description) or on the applicant (job specification), a choice that often affects the number of replies received. If, for example, you are willing to sift through 1,000 or more responses, you might place a national ad in the Los Angeles Times, the Chicago Tribune, a regional newspaper's employment section, or on a web site like Monster.com (see Exhibit 4.1). However, an advertisement in these locations that looks like Exhibit 4.2 might attract less than a dozen replies.

As you can see, Exhibit 6-1 uses more applicant-centered criteria to describe the successful candidate. Most individuals perceive themselves as having confidence and seeking high income. More important, how can an employer measure these qualities? The response rate should therefore be high. In contrast, Exhibit 4.2 calls for precise abilities and experience. The requirement of at least "2+ years research experience in speech/language technology" is certain to limit the respondent pool.

Exhibit 4.1

Advertisement with General Information

US-LA-New Orleans-Investment Representative Be in business for yourself, but not by yourself!

Be your own boss—you are the office manager.

Control your own future.

Determine your own income.

As an Edward Jones Investment Representative, you have that opportunity. You build a business and run it from your branch office in a location of your choice. You build relationships with clients and help them reach their financial goals by recommending appropriate investments and services.

Requirements: Edward Jones, an equal opportunity employer, is looking for candidates who have a strong desire to succeed and the ability to work in a self-sufficient manner. Confidence, persistence and excellent communication skills are necessary. The candidate must also believe that customer satisfaction is No. 1. Although sales experience and a business degree are preferred, they are not required. Training and marketing materials are provided.

To learn more about details and apply directly online, please visit our website at http://www.jonesopportunity.com/us or contact us at recrecruit@edwardjones.com. Don't hesitate, apply today for your opportunity with the 7th Best Company in America to Work For (as rated by Fortune Magazine). You could be opening the next Edward Jones office. If you are an accountant, teacher or lawyer, visit our website to find out why this might be the alternative career opportunity for you.

Exhibit 4.2

Advertisement with Specific Information

US-MA-Boston-Computational Linguist-Speech Synthesis

You will be working with the industry leading Speechify TTS system—based on AT&T's speech synthesis technology—to improve the quality, robustness and performance of the text processing engine. You will develop the engine to support a range of additional languages and develop additional features and functionality to enhance performance of the TTS engine and related products in future applications.

Responsibilities:

Architectural design of a multilingual, highly configurable, and robust text processing engine.

Robust morphology and syntax for TTS

Prosody generation

Working as part of a team of speech technology experts Requirements:

2+ years research experience in speech/language technology

Desire and ability to work as part of a team

Familiarity with XML authoring and tools

Strong C/C++ programming skills

Fluency in UNIX or NT (ideally both)

Excellent oral and written communications skills in English—additional languages are a bonus

MSCS or MA (or equivalent experience)

® Be able to work with a minimum amount of direct supervision 8 Instill confidence in your abilities

Identify functionality versus schedule tradeoffs under pressure

Work well with other technical experts in speech technology and application development.

Employment Agencies. We will describe three forms of employment agencies: public or state agencies, private employment agencies, and management consulting firms. The major difference between them is the type of clientele served. All states provide a public employment service. The main function of these agencies is closely tied to unemployment benefits because some states supply benefits only to individuals registered with their state employment agency. Accordingly, most public agencies tend to attract and list individuals who are unskilled or have had minimum training. This, of course, does not reflect on the agency's competence, but rather reflects on the image of public agencies. Prospective applicants tend to think state agencies have few high-skilled jobs, and employers tend to see such agencies as having few high-skilled applicants. The result is a self-fulfilling prophecy; that is, few high-skilled individuals place their names with public agencies, and, similarly, few employers seeking individuals with high skills list their vacancies or inquire about applicants at state agencies.

Yet this image may not always be the case. For example, a nationwide computer network at the Employment Security Commission acts as a clearinghouse for professional-level jobs. In this case, a public agency may be a good source for such applicants.

How do private employment agencies, which charge for their services, compete with state agencies that give their services away? They must do something different, or at least

given that impression. The major difference between public and private employment agencies is their image; that is, private agencies are believed to offer positions and applicants of a higher caliber. Private agencies may also provide a more complete line of services. They may advertise the position, screen applicants against the criteria specified by the employer, and provide a guarantee covering six months or a year as protection to the employer should the applicant not perform satisfactorily. The private employment agency's fee can be totally absorbed by either the employer or the employee, or it can be split. The alternative chosen usually depends on demand and supply in the community involved.

Executive search firm - private employment agency specializing in middle- and top-management placements.

The third agency source consists of management consulting, executive search, or "headhunter" firms. Agencies of this type—such as Korn/Ferry International in New York, Heidrick & Struggles in Chicago, and international Ray & Berndtson— are actually specialized private employment agencies. They specialize in middle- level and top-level executive placement, as well as hard-to-fill positions such as actuaries or IT specialists. For example, Hewlett Packard has partnered with Recruitsoft to assist the organization in "increasing the quality of global hires, and increase retention rates."14 In addition to the level at which they recruit, the features that distinguish executive search agencies from most private employment agencies are their fees, their nationwide contacts, and the thoroughness of their investigations. In searching for an individual of vice-president caliber, whose compensation package may far exceed $250,000 a year, the potential employer may be willing to pay a high fee to locate exactly the right individual to fill the vacancy: up to 35 percent of the executive's first-year salary is not unusual as a charge for finding and recruiting the individual.

Executive search firms canvass their contacts and do preliminary screening. They seek out highly effective executives who have the right skills, can adjust to the organization, and most important, are willing to consider new challenges and opportunities. Possibly such individuals are frustrated by their inability to move up quickly in their current organization, or they recently may have been bypassed for a major promotion. The executive search firm can act as a buffer for screening candidates and, at the same time, keep the prospective employer anonymous. In the final stages, senior executives in the prospective firm can move into the negotiations and determine the degree of mutual interest.

Schools, Colleges, and Universities Educational institutions at all levels offer opportunities for recruiting recent graduates. Most educational institutions operate placement services where prospective employers can review credentials and interview graduates. Most also allow employers to see a prospective employee's performance through cooperative arrangements and internships. Whether the job requires a high-school diploma, specific vocational training, or a bachelor's, master's, or doctoral degree, educational institutions are an excellent source of potential employees.

High schools or vocational-technical schools can provide lower-level applicants, business or secretarial schools can provide administrative staff personnel, and two- and four-year colleges and graduate schools can provide professional and managerial-level personnel. Although educational institutions are usually viewed as sources for inexperienced entrants to the workforce, it is not uncommon to find individuals with considerable work experience using an educational institution's placement service. They may be workers who have recently

returned to school to upgrade their skills or former graduates interested in pursuing other opportunities.

Professional Organizations Many professional organizations, including labor unions, operate placement services for the benefit of their members. Professional organizations serving such varied occupations as industrial engineering, psychology, accounting, legal, and academics publish rosters of job vacancies and distribute these lists to members. It is also common practice to provide placement facilities at regional and national meetings where individuals looking for employment and companies looking for employees can find each other—building a network of employment opportunities.

Professional organizations, however, can also apply sanctions to control the labor supply in their discipline. For example, although the law stipulates that unions cannot require employers to hire only union members, the mechanisms for ensuring that unions do not break this law are poorly enforced. As a result, it is not unusual for labor unions to control supply through their apprenticeship programs and through their labor agreements with employers. Of course, this tactic is not limited merely to blue-collar trade unions. In professional organizations where the organization placement service is the focal point for locating prospective employers, and where certain qualifications are necessary to become a member (such as special educational attainment or professional certification or license), the professional organization can significantly influence and control the supply of prospective applicants.

Unsolicited Applicants Unsolicited applications, whether they reach the employer by letter, e-mail, telephone, or in person, constitute a source of prospective applicants. Although the number of unsolicited applicants depends on economic conditions, the organization's image, and the job seeker's perception of the types of jobs that might be available, this source does provide an excellent supply of stockpiled applicants. Even if the company has no current openings, the application can be kept on file for later needs. Unsolicited applications made by unemployed individuals, however, generally have a short life. Those individuals who have adequate skills and who would be prime candidates for a position in the organization if a position were currently available usually find employment with some other organization that does have an opening. However, in times of economic stagnation, excellent prospects are often unable to locate the type of job they desire and may stay actively looking in the job market for many months.

Cyberspace Recruiting

Newspaper advertisements and employment agencies may be on their way to extinction as primary sources for conveying information about job openings and finding job candidates, thanks to Internet recruiting. Nearly four out of five companies currently use the Internet to recruit new employees by adding a recruitment section to their web site. Large organizations or those planning to do a lot of Internet recruiting often develop dedicated sites specifically designed for recruitment. They have the typical information you might find in an employment advertisement, qualifications sought, experience required, benefits provided, but they also showcase the organization's products, services, corporate philosophy, and mission statement. This information increases the quality of applicants, as those whose values don't mesh with the organization tend to self-select themselves out. The best designed of those web sites include an on-line response form, so applicants need not send a separate resume by mail, e-mail, or fax. Applicants fill in a resume page and hit the "submit" button. Cisco Systems, Inc., for example, receives more than 80 percent of its resumes electronically.

Facilitating the growth of Internet recruitment are commercial job-posting services that provide essentially electronic classified ads.

Websumes – web pages that are used as resumes.

Leased employees – individuals hired by one firm and sent to work in another for a specific time.

Aggressive job candidates are also using the Internet. They set up their own web pages—frequently called websumes—to "sell" their job candidacy. When they learn of a possible job opening, they encourage potential employers to "check me out at my web site." There, applicants have standard resume information, supporting documentation, and sometimes a video where they introduce themselves to potential employers. These same websumes are also frequently searched by recruiting firms that scan the Internet in search of viable job candidates.

Internet recruiting provides a low-cost means for most businesses to gain unprecedented access to potential employees worldwide.18 For example, a job posted on-line for the San Francisco-based Joie de Vivre Hospitality organization cost $50. Had company officials used the more traditional local paper advertisement, the same ad would have cost $2,000. It's also a way to increase diversity and find people with unique talents. For example, job-posting services create subgroup categories for employers looking to find bilingual workers, female attorneys, or African-American engineers.

Finally, Internet recruiting won't be merely the choice of those looking to fill high-tech jobs. As computer prices fall, access costs to the Internet decrease, and the majority of working people become comfortable with the Internet, on-line recruiting will be used for all kinds of nontechnical jobs—from those paying thousands of dollars a week to those paying $7 an hour.

Recruitment Alternatives

Much of the previous discussion on recruiting sources implies that these efforts are designed to locate and hire full-time, permanent employees. However, economic realities, coupled with management trends such as rightsizing, have created a slightly different focus. More companies today are hiring temporary help (including retirees), leasing employees, and using independent contractors.

Temporary Help Services Organizations such as Kelly Services and Accoun - temps supply temporary employees. Temporary employees are particularly valuable in meeting short-term fluctuations in HRM needs. Although traditionally developed in office administration, temporary staffing services have expanded to a broad range of skills. It is now possible, for example, to hire temporary nurses, computer programmers, accountants, librarians, drafting technicians, administrative assistants; even CEOs.

In addition to specific temporary help services, another quality source of temporary workers is older workers, those who have already retired or have been displaced by rightsizing in many companies. An aging workforce and some individuals' desire to retire earlier have created skill deficiencies in some disciplines. Older workers bring those skills back to the job. The reasons older workers continue to work vary, but they bring several advantages: flexibility in scheduling, low absenteeism, high motivation, and mentoring abilities for younger workers."

Employee Leasing Whereas temporary employees come into an organization for a specific short-term project, leased employees typically remain with an organization for longer times. Under a leasing arrangement, individuals work for the leasing firm. When an

organization needs specific employee skills, it contracts with the leasing firm to provide trained employees. For example, consider Robert Half International. As a leasing firm, Robert Half has on its staff fully trained accountants ready to meet an organization's accounting needs. If tax season requires additional tax accountants, Robert Half can supply them; the same holds true for other accounting areas. One reason for leasing's popularity is cost. The acquiring organization pays a flat fee for the employees. The company is not directly responsible for the benefit or other costs, such Social Security payments, it would incur for a full-time employee. Furthermore, when the project is over, employees return to the leasing company, thus eliminating any cost associated with layoffs or discharge.

Leased employees are also well trained. They are screened by the leasing firm, trained appropriately, and often go to organizations with an unconditional guarantee. Thus, if an individual doesn't work out, the company receives a new employee or makes arrangements to have its fee returned. There are also benefits from the employee's point of view. Some of today's workers prefer more flexibility in their lives. Working with a leasing company and being sent out at various times allow these workers to work when they want, for the length of time they desire.

Independent Contractors Another means of recruiting is the use of independent contractors. Often referred to as consultants, independent contractors are taking on a new meaning. Companies may hire independent contractors to do specific work at a location on or off the company's premises. For instance, claims processing or medical and legal transcription activities can easily be done at home and routinely forwarded to the employer. The continuing growth of personal computers, fax machines, and voice mail ensures that home work is timely.

Independent contractor arrangements benefit both the organization and the individual. Because the worker is not an employee, the company saves costs associated with full- or part-time personnel, such as Social Security taxes and workers' compensation premiums. Additionally, such opportunity is also a means of keeping good individuals associated with your company. Suppose an employee wants to work but also to be at home when the kids are home. Allowing the individual to work at home, on his or her time, can be a win-win solution to the problem.

4. Meeting the organization

So far in this chapter we've introduced you to organizational recruiting activities. When recruiters decide to hire employees, they often announce the job in some format. Seeing that announcement, and recognizing a potential match between what you can offer and what the organization wants, you need to throw your hat into the "hiring ring."

Applying for a job is one of the more stressful situations you will face. Generally, you have no specific guidelines to follow to guarantee you success. However, several tips may increase your chances of finding employment. Even though obtaining a job interview should be one of your major goals in the hiring process, being offered an interview opportunity requires hard work. Your current job is, in fact, obtaining a job.

Competition for most good jobs is fierce—even in times of low unemployment. You can't afford to wait until the last minute; your job hunt must start well in advance of when you plan to start work. So, for college seniors who plan to graduate in May, starting in the fall has two advantages. First, it shows that you are taking an interest in your career and that you are planning. Not waiting until the last minute to begin reflects favorably on you. Second, starting in the fall coincides with many companies' recruiting cycles. If you wait

until March to begin the process, some job openings are likely to already have been filled. For specific information regarding the company recruiting cycles in your area, visit your college's career development center.

Preparing Your Resume

All job applicants need to circulate information that reflects positively on their strengths and to send that information to prospective employers in a format that is understandable and consistent with the organization's hiring practices. In most instances, this requires a resume (see Technology Corner).

No matter who you are or where you are in your career, you should have a current resume. Your resume is typically a recruiter's primary information source in determining whether or not to grant you an interview. Therefore, your resume must be a sales tool; it must give key information that supports your candidacy, highlights your strengths, and differentiates you from other job applicants. Include anything positive that distinguishes you from other applicants. It's important to pinpoint a few key themes regarding resumes that may seem like common sense but are frequently ignored. First, if you are making a paper copy of your resume, it must be printed on a quality printer. The font style should be easy to read (for example, Courier or Times New Roman type fonts). Avoid any style that may be hard on the eyes, such as a script or italic font. A recruiter who must review 100 or more resumes a day will look more favorably at resumes that make the job easier.

It is also important to note that many companies today rely on computer software for making the first pass through resumes. Each resume is scanned for specific information such as key job elements, experience, work history, education, or technical expertise. This has created two important aspects for resume writing to remember. First, the computer matches key words in a job description. Thus, in creating a resume, use standard job description phraseology. Second, use a font the scanner can easily read. If it can't, your resume may be put in the rejection file. Copy your resume on good-quality white or off-white paper (no off-the-wall colors). This suggestion may be inappropriate for certain types of jobs—such as a creative artist position—but these are exceptions. You can't go wrong using a 20-pound bond paper with about 20 percent cotton content. By all means, don't send standard duplicating paper—it may look as if you are mass-mailing resumes (even if you are).

Some Final Remarks

Much of what we stated in the last few paragraphs also holds true if you are producing an electronic resume. Ads and Internet recruiting sites usually specify whether or not an electronic resume is required. In spite of all the technology improvements that come about, do not forget about a tried and true means of gaining access into an organization—networking. It still ranks as one of the best means of learning about jobs.

Finally, regardless of whether your resume is on paper or electronic, make sure it is carefully proofread. The resume is your only representation to the recruiter, and a sloppy resume can be deadly. If it contains misspelled words or is grammatically incorrect, your chances for an interview will be significantly reduced. Proofread your resume several times, and if possible, let others proofread it.

Lecture 5 Foundation Of Selection

1. The Selection Process

Introruction

A recent international business graduate went on her first interview in a organization with significant operations on four continents. Not knowing what to expect, she prepared as best she could. She was exquisitely dressed in a new navy pinstriped suit and carried her new black leather Tumi briefcase. As she entered the human resource management office, she encountered two doors. On the first door was "International Business Majors." On the second was "All Other Majors." She entered door one, which opened up to two more doors. On door one was "3.55 or Better GPA"; door two, "All Other GPAs." Having a 3.78 GPA, she once again entered door one, and found herself facing yet two more choices. Door one stated, "Fluent in three languages," and door two, "Fluent in two or fewer languages." Because her education did not require language proficiency and she was fluent in only one language, she went through door two. Upon opening the door, she found a box with preprinted letters saying, "Your qualifications did not meet the expectations of the job. Thanks for considering our organization. Please exit to the right."

Of course no selection activity is this clear cut. Successful selection activities entail a lot of careful planning and careful thought. The selection process is composed of steps, each of which provides decision makers with information that will help them predict whether an applicant will be a successful job performer. One way to conceptualize this is to think of each step as a higher hurdle in a race. The applicant able to clear all the hurdles wins the race and the job offer.

1. The Selection Process

Selection activities follow a standard pattern, beginning with an initial screening interview and concluding with the final employment decision. The selection process typically consists of eight steps: (1) initial screening interview, (2) completing the application form, (3) employment tests, (4) comprehensive interview, (5) background investigation, (6) conditional job offer, (7) medical or physical examination, and (8) permanent job offer. Each step represents a decision point requiring some affirmative feedback for the process to continue. Each step in the process seeks to expand the organization's knowledge about the applicant's background, abilities, and motivation, and it increases the information decision makers use to make their predictions and final choice. However, some steps may be

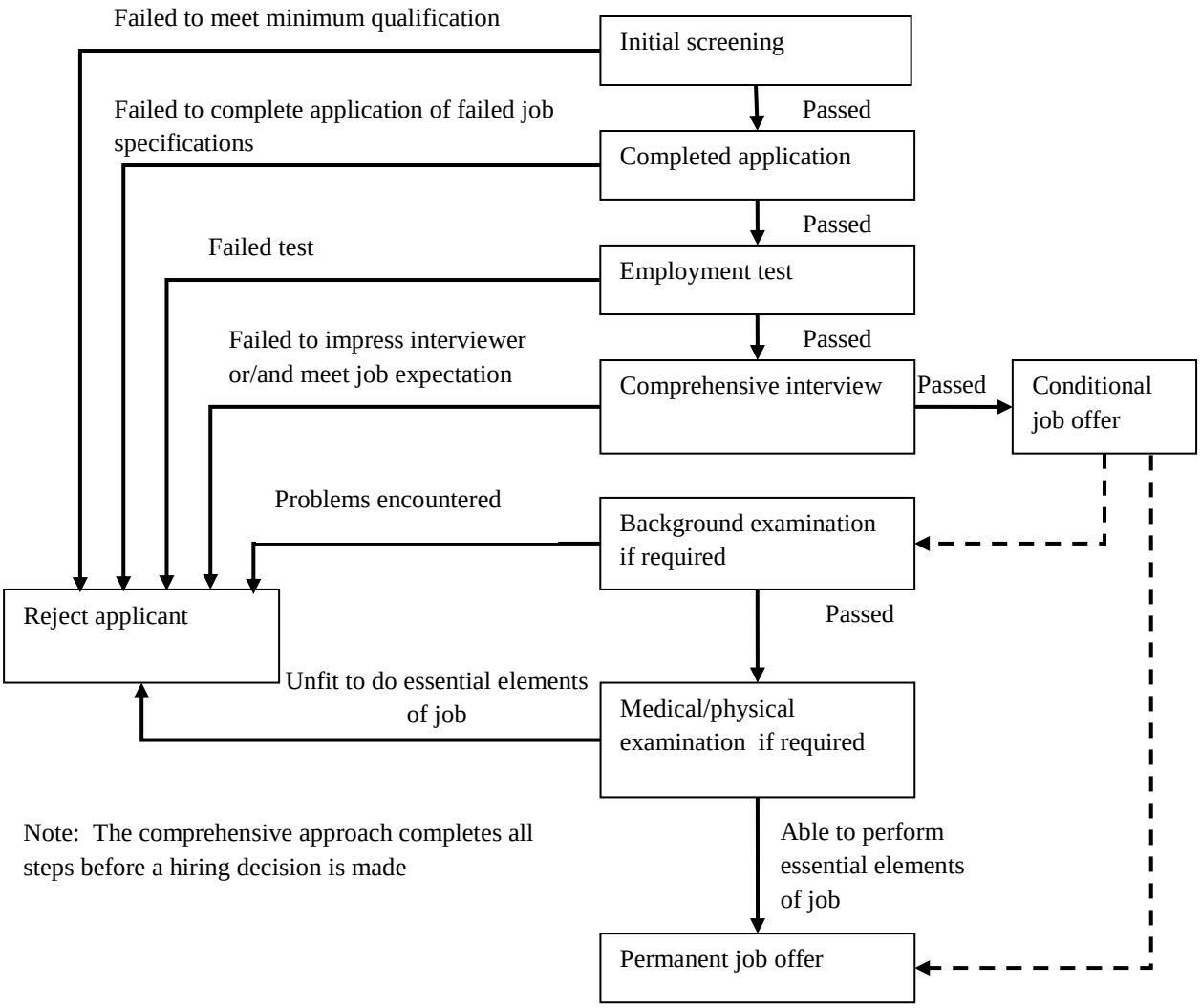


Exhibit 5.1 – The Selection Process

omitted if they do not yield useful data, or if the cost of the step is unwarranted. Applicants should also be advised of any specific screening, such as credit checks, reference checking, and drug tests. The flow of these activities is depicted in Exhibit 5.1. Let's take a closer look at each.

Initial Screening

Initial screening – the first step in the selection process whereby job inquiries are sorted.

As a culmination of our recruiting efforts, we initiate a preliminary review of potentially acceptable candidates. This initial screening is, in effect, a two-step procedure: (1) screening inquiries and (2) screening interviews.

If our recruiting effort has been successful, we will have a pool of potential applicants. We can eliminate some of these respondents based on the job description and job specification. Perhaps candidates lack adequate or appropriate experience, or adequate or appropriate education. Other "red flags" include gaps in the applicant's job history, many brief jobs, or numerous courses and seminars instead of appropriate education.

The screening interview is also an excellent opportunity for HRM to describe the job in enough detail so the candidates can consider if they are really serious about applying. Sharing job description information frequently encourages the unqualified or marginally

qualified to voluntarily withdraw from candidacy with a minimum of cost to the applicant or the organization. Conference call interviews or videoconferencing can help minimize costs during screening interviews.

Another important point during the initial screening phase is to identify a salary range. Most workers are concerned about their salaries, and even if a job opening sounds exciting, a low salary may drive away excellent talent. During this phase, if proper HRM activities have been conducted, you should not need to mask salary data.

Completing the Application Form

Once the initial screening is completed, applicants are asked to complete the organization's application form. This may require only the applicant's name, address, and telephone number. Some organizations, on the other hand, may want a more comprehensive employment profile. In general terms, the application form gives a job-performance-related synopsis of applicants' adult life, their skills, and their accomplishments (see Diversity Issues in HRM).

Applications obtain information the company wants. Completing the application also serves as another hurdle; that is, if the job requires following directions and the individual fails to do so on the application, that is a job-related reason for rejection. Lastly, applications require a signature attesting to the truthfulness of the information given and giving permission to check references. If, at a later point, the company finds out the information is false, it can justify immediate dismissal.

Application form - company-specific employment form used to generate specific information the company wants.

Table 5.1

Employer's Guide to Application Forms and Interviews

Inquiries Before Hiring	Okay	Don't Ask
1. Address	Okay to ask about current and previous addresses in Canada and how long applicant stayed there.	Don't ask about foreign addresses which would indicate national origin.
2. Birthplace, nationality, ancestry, place of origin	After hiring, may ask for birth certificate.	Don't make any inquiry about place of birth or national origin. That includes asking about the national origin of relatives or asking for a birth certificate or baptismal certificate.
3. Photographs	After hiring, okay to ask for photos if needed.	Before hiring, don't ask for photo.
4. Religion	After hiring, may ask about religion to determine when leave-of-absence may be required for the observance of religious holidays.	Before hiring, don't ask anything that would identify religious affiliation. That includes asking for a pastor's recommendation or reference.
5. Citizenship	May ask if applicant is legally entitled to work in Canada.	Don't ask about applicant's citizenship status—it could reveal applicant's nationality, ancestry or place of origin. That includes questions about proof of citizenship or the date citizenship was received.
6. Education	Okay to ask about schools where education was obtained and about foreign language skills.	Don't ask about the religious or racial affiliation of educational institutions.

7. Relatives	After hiring, may ask for a contact name in case of emergency.	Before hiring, don't ask questions that would require someone to reveal their marital or family status.
8. Organization	Okay to ask about clubs and organizations that would reveal a person's affiliation based on race, disability, sexual orientation, etc., as long as applicants are told, "You may decline to list organizations which would indicate your religion, race, etc."	
9. Work schedule	May ask applicants whether they are able to work the required schedule. If applicants are not able to work the required schedule because of religious practices or family needs, the employer must determine if accommodation is possible.	
10. Sex		On the application form don't ask about the sex of the applicant.
11. Age	Okay to ask if the applicant is younger than the minimum age or older than the maximum age required by employment law.	Before hiring, don't ask for any record (like a birth certificate) or other information that would reveal the applicant's age.
12. Marital status	Although you can't ask about an applicant's marital status, if the job requires it, you can ask if the applicant is willing to travel or be transferred.	Don't ask if applicant is single, married, remarried, engaged, divorced, separated, widowed, living common-law. Don't ask a woman for her birth name.
13. Family status	May ask if applicant is able to work the required schedule. If she can't because of family needs, the employer must try to accommodate her.	Don't ask about the number of children or other dependents. Don't ask about child- care arrangements. Don't ask applicant whether she is breastfeeding, using birth control, or plans to have children.
14. Disability	The following questions should be asked: Do you have a disability which will affect your ability to perform any of the functions of the job for which you have applied? If the answer to the above is yes then ask: what functions can you not perform and what accommodations could be made which would allow you to do the work adequately?	Don't ask about disabilities or health problems except as set out in the adjacent column. Don't ask if applicant has ever had previous work injuries or made a claim for Workers' Compensation
15. Height and weight		Don't ask unless it can be shown they are essential to the performance of the job.
16. Sexual orientation		Don't ask about applicant's sexual orientation.

17. Receipt or public assistance		Don't ask if applicant is receiving assistance under The Saskatchewan Assistance Act (welfare) or The Saskatchewan Income Plan Act

Weighted Application Forms

Weighted application forms – a special type of application form that uses relevant applicant information to determine the likelihood of job success.

Weighted application forms offer excellent potential in helping recruiters to differentiate between potentially successful and unsuccessful job performers. To create such an instrument, individual form items, such as years of schooling, months on last job, salary data for all previous jobs, and military experience, are validated against performance and turnover measures and given appropriate weights. Let's assume, for example, that HRM is interested in developing a weighted application form that would predict which applicants for the job of accountant, if hired, would stay with the company. They would select from their files the application forms from each of two groups of previously hired accountants—a group that had short tenure with the organization (adjusters who stayed, say, less than one year), and a group with long tenure (say, five years or more). These old application forms would be screened item by item to determine how employees in each group responded. In this way, management would discover items that differentiate the groups weight them relative to how well they differentiate applicants. If, for example, 80 percent of the long-tenure group had a college degree, possession of a college degree might have a weight of 4. But if 30 percent of the long-tenure group had prior experience in a major accounting firm, compared to percent of the short-tenured, this item might have a weight of only 1. Note, of course, that this procedure would have to be done for every job in the organization and balanced against the factors of those that do not fall into the majority category; that is, although 80 percent of the long-tenure individuals had a college degree, we would need to factor into our weighting scheme those who had a college degree and were successful on the job, but had only short tenure with the company.

Items that predict long tenure for an accountant might be totally different from items that, predict long tenure for an engineer or even an financial analyst. However, improvements in sophisticated computer software may make the task of developing applications for each job more manageable.

Successful Applications The application form, as noted earlier, has had wide success in selection for diverse jobs. For instance, the hotel industry has found application form analysis valuable. In one study, seven items on the application were highly predictive of successful performance as measured by job tenure.6 Evidence that the application form provides relevant information for predicting job success is well supported across a broad range of jobs. Care must be taken to ensure that application items are validated for each job. Also, since their predictive ability may change over time, the items must be continuously reviewed and updated. Finally, management should be aware of the possibility that the application information given is erroneous. A background investigation can verify most data.

Employment Tests

Organizations historically relied to a considerable extent on intelligence, aptitude, ability, and interest tests to provide major input to the selection process. Even handwriting analysis (graphology) and honesty tests have been used in attempts to learn more about the candidate—information that supposedly leads to more effective selection.

In the 1970s and early 1980s, reliance on traditional written tests for selection purposes decreased significantly. This was attributed to legal rulings that required employers to justify as job-related any test they used. Given the historical difficulty and costs in substantiating this relationship, some organizations merely eliminated employment testing as a selection device.

Since the mid-1980s, however, that trend has reversed. It is estimated that more than 60 percent of all organizations use some type of employment test today. These organizations recognized that scrapping employment tests was equivalent to throwing the baby out with the bath water. They realized that some tests are quite helpful in predicting who will be successful on the job. Literally hundreds of tests can serve as selection tools. They can measure intellect, spatial ability, perception skills, mechanical comprehension, motor ability, or personality traits. It is not the purpose of this text to review each of these test categories; that is generally the province of books in applied industrial psychology. However, a basic understanding of a few test types can be beneficial for HRM practitioners.

Performance Simulation Tests To avoid criticism and potential liability from using psychological, aptitude, and other types of written tests, interest has been increasing in performance simulation tests. The single identifying characteristic of these tests is that they require the applicant to engage in specific behaviors necessary for doing the job successfully. As a result, performance simulation tests should more easily meet the requirement of job-relatedness because they are made up of actual job behaviors rather than surrogates.

Performance simulation tests – work sampling and assessment centers evaluation abilities in actual job activities.

Sampling Work sampling creates a miniature replica of a job. Applicants demonstrate that they possess the necessary talents by actually doing the tasks. Carefully devised work samples based on job analysis data determine the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed for each job. Then, each work sample element is matched with a corresponding job performance element. For example, a work sample for a customer service representative at First Union Bank may involve keyboard computation: the applicant makes computations during a customer transaction. At Lowes, a potential check-out clerk is screened for. a job to scan the prices of your purchases quickly and accurately. Most go through a similar work- sampling session where supervisors demonstrate how to scan accurately, ensuring that the product did indeed ring up. Then the candidate is given an opportunity to show that he or she can handle the job. Work sampling, then, reflects hands- on experience.

The advantages of work sampling over traditional pencil-and-paper tests should be obvious. Because work samples are essentially identical to job content, work sampling should be a better predictor of short-term performance and should minimize discrimination. Additionally, the nature of their content and the methods used to determine content help well-constructed work sample tests easily meet EEOC "job-related" requirements. The main disadvantage is the difficulty in developing good work samples for each job. Furthermore, work sampling is not applicable to all levels of the organization. Its difficulty in use for managerial jobs lies in creating a work sample test that can address the full range of managerial activities.

Work sampling – a selection device requiring the job applicant to actually perform a small segment of the job.

Assessment center – a facility where performance simulation tests are administered. These include a series of exercises used for selection, development, and performance appraisals.

Comprehensive Interview – a selection device used to obtain in-depth information about a candidate.

Assessment Centers A more elaborate set of performance simulation tests, specifically designed to evaluate a candidate's managerial potential, is administered in assessment centers. Assessment centers use procedures that incorporate group and individual exercises. Applicants go through a series of these exercises and are appraised by line executives, practicing supervisors, and/or trained psychologists as to how well they perform. As with work sampling, these exercises are designed to simulate the work of managers and so tend to be accurate predictors of later job performance. In some cases, however, the assessment center also includes traditional personality and aptitude tests.

Arena Many of the standard selection techniques described in this text do not easily transfer to international situations. When recruiting and employing host-country nationals, typical American testing works in some countries but not in others. For example, handwriting or graphology tests, sometimes used in the United States, are frequently used in France. In Great Britain, most psychological tests such as graphology, polygraph, and honesty tests are rarely used in employment. Accordingly, whenever American corporations prepare to do business abroad, their practices must adapt to the cultures and regulations of the country in which they will operate.

Comprehensive Interviews

Applicants who pass the initial screening, application form, and required tests typically receive a comprehensive interview. The applicant may be interviewed by HRM interviewers, senior managers within the organization, a potential supervisory potential colleagues, or some or all of these. In fact, in a company like Disney, applicants are interviewed by numerous individuals.

The comprehensive interview is designed to probe areas not easily addressed by the application form or tests, such as assessing one's motivation, values, ability to work under pressure, and ability to "fit in" with the organization. Fit cannot be overstated. Ironically, in many cases, employees are typically hired based on their competencies and how likely they are to be successful performers. The majority that fail do so because they cannot fit within the organization's culture. Accordingly, skills and aptitudes may get candidates in the door, how well they adapt to the organization frequently determines how long they'll stay.

Interview 'Effectiveness A common question arises whenever we discuss interviews: Are interviews effective for gathering accurate information from which selection decisions can be made? The interview has proven an almost universal selection tool—one that can take numerous forms.16 It can be a one-on-one encounter between the interviewer and the applicant (the traditional interview) or involve several individuals who interview an applicant at once (the panel interview). Interviews can follow a predetermined pattern that identifies both questions and expected responses (a situational interview). The interview can also be designed to create a difficult environment in which the applicant is "put to the test" to assess his or her confidence levels. This is frequently referred to as the stress interview (see Ethical Issues in HRM).

Interviews may vary, but few people secure jobs without one or more. This is extremely interesting, given that the interview's validity as a selection tool has been subject to considerable debate. Let's look at research findings regarding interviews.

Unfortunately for recruiters, interview situations are rarely cut and dried. Many factors enter into the deliberation in determining if a candidate is a good fit for the organization. Although interviews are typically part of every job search, summaries of research on interviewing have concluded that the interview is expensive, inefficient, and often not job related. These conclusions generated over the past few decades, still hold today. Let's elaborate on a few of them.

Seeing the candidate's resume, application form, possible test scores, or appraisals of other interviewers may introduce interviewer bias. In such cases, the interviewer no longer relies on data gained in the interview alone. Data received prior to the interview creates an image of the applicant. Much of the early part of the interview, then, becomes an exercise wherein the interviewer compares the actual applicant with the image formed earlier. In addition to interviewer bias, and directly related to the applicant's actions, is impression management. Impression management refers to one's attempt to project an image that will result in a favorable outcome. Thus, if an applicant can say or do something the interviewer approves of, that person may be viewed more favorably for the position. For example, suppose you find out that the interviewer values workers who can work seven days a week, twelve-plus hours a day, if needed. Accordingly, you make statements of being a workaholic, which conform to this interviewer's values and may create a positive impression.

Impression management – influencing performance evaluations by portraying an image desired by the appraiser.

Interviewers often have remarkably short and inaccurate memories. In one study of an interview simulation, a 20-minute videotape of a selection interview was played for a group of 40 interviewers. Following this, the interviewers were given a 20-question test. Although the questions were straightforward and factual, the average number of wrong answers was 10. The researchers concluded that, even in a short interview, the average interviewer remembers only half of the information. However, taking notes during an interview has been shown to reduce memory loss. Note-taking—albeit possibly disconcerting for the interviewee—helps retain accurate information and develop a clearer understanding of the applicant's fit by allowing follow-up questions.

It is also believed that the interview offers the greatest value as a selection device in determining an applicant's organizational fit, level of motivation, and interpersonal skills. This is particularly true of senior management positions. Accordingly, candidates for these positions often go through many extensive interviews with executive recruiters, company executives, and even board members before a final decision is made. Similarly, where teams hire their own members, often each team member interviews the applicant. One final issue about interviews revolves around when the interviewer actually makes the decision. Early studies indicated that interviewers made their choice to hire or not hire a candidate within the first few minutes of the interview. That belief was widely held, but subsequent research does not support these findings. In fact, initial impressions may have little effect, unless that is the only information available for an interviewer to use.

What Sense can we make of these issues raised about interviews? And where might interviews be most appropriate? If interviews will continue to have a place in the selection decision, they appear to be more appropriate for high-turnover jobs and less-routine ones like middle- and upper-level managerial positions. In nonroutine activities, especially senior managerial positions, failure (as measured by voluntary terminations) is more frequently caused by a poor fit between the individual and the organization than by lack of competence

on the part of the individual. Interviewing can be useful, therefore, when it emphasizes the candidate's ability to fit into the organization rather than specific technical skills.

Behavioral Interviews One last modification to interviews becoming popular behavioral interview in contemporary organizations is the behavioral, or situation interview. In this type of interview, candidates are observed, not only for what they say, but for how they behave. Candidates are presented with situations—oftentimes complex problems involving role playing—and asked to "deal" with the situation. This type of interview allows interviewers to see how a potential employee will behave and how they react under stress. Proponents of behavioral interviewing indicate such a process is much more indicative of a candidate's performance than simply having the candidate tell the interviewer what he or she has done. In fact, research in this area indicates that behavioral interviews are nearly eight times more effective for predicting successful job performance.

Behavioral Interviews – observing job candidates not only but for how they behave.

Realistic Job Previews The primary purpose of any selection device is to identify individuals who will be effective performers. But it is also in an interviewer's best interest to find good prospects, hire them, and have them stay in the organization. Therefore, part of selection should be concerned with reducing voluntary turnover and its associated costs. One device to achieve that goal is the realistic job preview (RJP). A realistic job preview may include brochures, films, plant tours, work sampling, or merely a short script made up of realistic statements that accurately portray the job. The key element in RJP is that unfavorable as well as favorable information about the job is shared. Although the RJP is not normally treated as a selection device, it should take place during the interview. Also, because it has demonstrated effectiveness as a method for increasing job survival among new employees, we've included it here.

Every applicant acquires during the selection process a set of expectations about the organization and about the specific job the applicant is hoping to be offered. It is not unusual for these expectations to be excessively inflated as a result of receiving almost uniformly positive information about the organization and job during recruitment and selection activities. Evidence suggests, however, that interviewers may be erring by giving applicants only favorable information. More specifically, research leads us to conclude that applicants who receive a realistic job preview (as well as a realistic preview of the organization) hold lower and more realistic expectations about the job they will be doing and are better prepared for coping with the job and its frustrating elements. Realistic job previews also appear to work best for jobs that are more attractive to the individual, resulting in lower turnover rates. Most studies demonstrate that giving candidates a realistic job preview before offering them the job reduces turnover without lowering acceptance rates. Of course, exposing an applicant to RJP may also result in the hiring of a more committed individual.

Realistic job preview (RJP) – a selection device that allows job candidates to learn negative as well as positive information about the job and organization.

Background Investigation

The next step in the process is to undertake a background investigation of applicants who appear to offer potential as employees. Background investigations, or reference checks, are intended to verify that information on the application form is correct and accurate information. This can include contacting former employers to confirm the candidate's work record and to obtain their appraisal of his or her performance, contacting other job-related

and personal references, verifying educational accomplishments, verifying an individual's legal status to work in the United States , checking credit references and criminal records, and even using third-party investigators to do the background check. Why do this? Documentation supports the premise that a good predictor of an individual's future behavior is his or her past behavior, as well as that many—in some studies nearly half—of all applicants exaggerate their backgrounds or experiences. Although behavior indicators are important, organizations need to be aware of negligent hiring liability.

Negligent hiring occurs when an employer has failed to properly investigate an employee's background and that employee is later involved in wrongful conduct. Negligent hiring assumes that a proper background check would have uncovered information about the candidate and the candidate would not have been hired. For instance, any individual who works with children—in a school or day care, for instance—must not have been accused or convicted of abusing children. An organization that fails to check if a candidate has a record and hires the individual, opens itself up to a negligent-hiring lawsuit. If the employee is ever involved in some wrongful conduct involving children, the organization can be held liable for its failure to properly hire.

Background investigation – the process of verifying information job candidates provide.

Common sense dictates that HRM find out as much as possible about its applicants before the final hiring decision is made. Failure to do so can have a detrimental effect on the organization, both in cost and morale. Obtaining needed information may be difficult, especially when there may be a question about invading privacy. In the past, many organizational policies stated that any request for information about a past employee be sent to HRM. Then, HRM typically verified only employment dates and positions held. Why? Companies that wanted to stay away from being sued by a previous employee simply verified "the facts."Some of that has changed.

Exhibit 5.2 Employment Eligibility Verification

U.S. Department of Justice
Immigration and Naturalization Service

OMB No. 1115-0136

Employment Eligibility Verification

Please read instructions carefully before completing this form. The instructions must be available during completion of this form. ANTI-DISCRIMINATION NOTICE: It is illegal to discriminate against work eligible individuals. Employers CANNOT specify which document(s) they will accept from an employee. The refusal to hire an individual because of a future expiration date may also constitute illegal discrimination.

Section 1. Employee Information and Verification. To be completed and signed by employee at the time employment begins.

Print Name: Last	First	Middle Initial	Maiden Name
Address *(Street Name and Number)*		Apt. #	Date of Birth *(month/day/year)*
City	State	Zip Code	Social Security #

I am aware that federal law provides for imprisonment and/or fines for false statements or use of false documents in connection with the completion of this form.

I attest, under penalty of perjury, that I am (check one of the following):
- ☐ A citizen or national of the United States
- ☐ A Lawful Permanent Resident (Alien # A_____)
- ☐ An alien authorized to work until ___/___/___ (Alien # or Admission #)_____

Employee's Signature | Date *(month/day/year)*

Preparer and/or Translator Certification. *(To be completed and signed if Section 1 is prepared by a person other than the employee.) I attest, under penalty of perjury, that I have assisted in the completion of this form and that to the best of my knowledge the information is true and correct.*

Preparer's/Translator's Signature | Print Name

Address *(Street Name and Number, City, State, Zip Code)* | Date *(month/day/year)*

Section 2. Employer Review and Verification. **To be completed and signed by employer. Examine one document from List A OR examine one document from List B and one from List C, as listed on the reverse of this form, and record the title, number and expiration date, if any, of the document(s)**

List A	OR	List B	AND	List C
Document title:_____		_____		_____
Issuing authority:_____		_____		_____
Document #: _____		_____		_____
Expiration Date *(if any)*: ___/___/___		___/___/___		___/___/___
Document #: _____				
Expiration Date *(if any)*: ___/___/___				

CERTIFICATION – I attest, under penalty of perjury, that I have examined the document(s) presented by the above-named employee, that the above-listed document(s) appear to be genuine and to relate to the employee named, that the employee began employment on *(month/day/year)*___/___/___ **and that to the best of my knowledge the employee is eligible to work in the United States. (State employment agencies may omit the date the employee began employment.)**

Signature of Employer or Authorized Representative | Print Name | Title

Business or Organization Name | Address *(Street Name and Number, City, State, Zip Code)* | Date *(month/day/year)*

Section 3. Updating and Reverification. To be completed and signed by employer.

A. New Name *(If applicable)* | B. Date of rehire *(month/day/year) (If applicable)*

C. If employee's previous grant of work authorization has expired, provide the information below for the document that establishes current employment eligibility.

Document Title:_____ Document #:_____ Expiration Date (If any):___/___/___

I attest, under penalty of perjury, that to the best of my knowledge, this employee is eligible to work in the United States, and if the employee presented document(s), the document(s) I have examined appear to be genuine and to relate to the individual.

Signature of Employer or Authorized Representative | Date *(month/day/year)*

Based on a concept of qualified privilege, some courts have ruled that employers must be able to talk to one another about employees. Additionally, about half of the states have laws that protect employers from "good-faith references." Accordingly, these discussions may be legal and may not invade one's right to privacy so long as the discussion is a legitimate

concern for the business—and in some cases if the applicant has authorized the background investigation. For example, had a midwest hospital learned that one of its anesthesiologist applicants lost his license in three states for substance abuse, it clearly would not have hired him. The information given, however, cannot be discriminatory, retaliate against a former employee, or "disclose confidential facts that constitute an invasion of privacy."

Two methods apply to background investigations: internal and external investigations. In the internal investigation, HRM undertakes the task of questioning former employers, personal references, and possibly credit sources. Although this is a viable, well-used option, unless the investigation process is handled thoroughly, little useful information may be found. On the other hand, the external investigation typically involves using a reference-checking firm. Despite the greater cost associated with this investigation, such firms have a better track record of gathering pertinent

information, as well as being better informed on privacy rights issues. However it is done, documentation is the important element. Should an employer be called upon to justify what has or has not been found, supporting documentation is invaluable.

Qualified privilege – the ability for organizations to speak candidly to one another about employees.

Conditional Job Offers

If a job applicant has passed each step of the selection process so far, a conditional job offer is usually made. Conditional job offers typically come from an HRM representative (we'll revisit this momentarily). In essencer, the conditional job offer implies that if everything checks out—such as passing a certain medical, physical, or substance abuse test—the conditional nature of the job offer will be removed and the offer will be permanent.

Conditional job offer – a tentative job offer that becomes permanent after certain conditions are met.

Medical/Physical Examination

The next-to-last step in the selection process may consist of having the applicant take a medical/physical examination. Physical exams can only be used as a selection device to screen out individuals who are unable to physically comply with the requirements of a job. For example, firefighters must perform activities that require a certain physical condition. Whether it is climbing a ladder, lugging a water-filled four-inch hose, or carrying an injured victim, these individuals must demonstrate that they are fit for the job. Jobs that require certain physical characteristics, then, may entail a job-related physical examination. However, this includes a small proportion of jobs today. A company must show that any required medical clearance is job-related. Failure to do so may result in the physical examination creating an adverse impact. Thus, even a valid physical examination may be required only after a conditional job offer. Having a physical disability may not be enough to exclude an individual from the job; companies, may be required to make reasonable accommodations for these individuals. Remember, however, that in doing so a company must show that the reasoning behind this exclusion is job related.

Aside from its use as a screening tool, the physical exam may also show that minimum standards of health exist to enroll in company health and life insurance programs. Additionally, a company may use this exam to provide base data in case of an employee's future claim of injury on the job. This occurs, however, after one has been hired. In both cases, the exam is paid for by the employer.

Medical/physical examination – an examination to determine an applicant's physical fitness for essential job performance.

One last event fits appropriately under medical examination: the drug test. Many companies require applicants to submit to a drug test. Where in this process that test occurs is somewhat immaterial; the fact remains that failing an employment drug test may be grounds for rejecting an applicant.

Job Offers

Individuals who perform successfully in the preceding steps are now considered eligible to receive the employment offer. Who makes the final employment depends on several factors. For administrative purposes (processing salary forms, maintaining EEO statistics, ensuring a statement exists that asserts that employment is not guaranteed, etc.), the offer typically is made by an HRM representative. But that individual's role should be only administrative. The actual hiring decision should be made by the manager in the department where the vacancy exists. First, the applicant will eventually work for this manager, which necessitates a good fit between boss and employee. Second, if the decision is faulty, the hiring manager has no one else to blame. Remember finalists not hired deserve the courtesy of prompt notification.

Comprehensive selection – applying all steps in the selection process before rendering a decision about a job candidate.

The Comprehensive Approach

We have presented the general selection process as being comprised of multiple hurdles—beginning with a screening interview and culminating with a final selection decision. This discrete selection process is designed so that tripping over any hurdle puts one out of the race. This approach, however, may not be the most effective selection procedure for every job. If, for example, the application form shows that the candidate has only two years of relevant experience, but the job specification requires five, the candidate is rejected. Yet, in many jobs, positive factors can counterbalance negative factors. Poor performance on a written test, for example, may be offset by several years of relevant job experience. This suggests that sometimes it may be advantageous to do comprehensive rather than discrete selection. In comprehensive selection, all applicants complete every step of the selection process, and the final decision is based on a comprehensive evaluation of the results from all stages.

The comprehensive approach overcomes the major disadvantage of the discrete method (eliminating potentially good employees simply because they receive an acceptable but low evaluation at one selection step). The comprehensive method is more realistic. It recognizes that most applicants have weaknesses as well as strengths. But it is also more costly because all applicants must go through all the screening hurdles. Additionally, the method consumes more of management's time and can demoralize many applicants by building up hope. Yet in those instances where job success relies on many qualities, and where finding candidates who are strong on all qualities is unlikely, the comprehensive approach is probably preferable to the typical discrete method.

No matter which approach you use or which steps you take, one critical aspect must be present: the devices used must measure job-related factors. That is, these devices must indicate how one would perform on the job. That's critical for business success, and it's necessary to defend and respond to an allegation that the hiring practices are discriminatory (see Workplace Issues).

AVOIDING HIRING MISTAKES

As an owner or manager, it may seem like your rights to hire, interview, retain, and terminate employees are diminishing. Learning too little too late is a continuing frustration and challenge as managers and entrepreneurs seek to work within legal limitations to obtain information about possible candidates. For example, a manager recently hired a seemingly outstanding applicant only to have the newly hired department head resign one week later after realizing his inability to fulfill the job's expectations. Upon closer investigation, it seemed the candidate had projected the right experience and credentials on paper—not falsifying, but embellishing in the name of a competitive job market.

In fact, the resume and cover letter were the best the manager had seen, thanks to the candidate's outside professional assistance. Resume writers may help to project images on paper to secure employment, but it takes more than illusions to keep a job. Implying or exaggerating accomplishments is not only poor judgment; it's bad business.

As managers and entrepreneurs, we make hiring mistakes. We may not detect some situations, such as an exaggerated resume, but we can prevent others by knowing our rights as employers—not only what we cannot do, but what we can do. Here are some suggestions.

- *Prior to interviewing applicants, update and prepare a list of job requirements, duties, and responsibilities so that you and the applicant will understand the expectations of the position. After all, the longer a position is open and the more desperate you are to fill it, the more likely you are to make the position fit the candidate— any candidate.*
- *Don't panic. Hire a temporary, contract or subcontract out some of the work, or ask others to assist during the transition rather than hiring the wrong person.*
- *Ask appropriate questions: What are your long- and short-range goals? Why are you interested in this position? What do you consider your greatest strengths and weaknesses? Why should I hire you? In what specific ways do you think you can make a contribution to the company? Do you have plans for continuing education?*
- *Before you extend an offer, check references, including several supervisors or managers, even with an exemplary interview and seemingly perfect matched background. Although many companies allow only human resources to provide information about former employees and you can gain little information, check references, including education references. The answer to the question, "Would you rehire this individual?" may not provide all you need to know, but it's a start.*
- *Obtain applicants' permission to check references with a signed release form saying that they agree to your calling their references to ask about their background and work performance. Ask for former supervisors or managers, and if the applicant cannot provide them as references, ask why not.*
- *Don't depend on letters that provide only partial information. Call and talk with someone, ask open-ended questions, and listen for content as well as hesitation and inflections. If you do not feel adept, ask your personnel or human resources manager to check references or hire a consultant or reference-checking service.*
- *Sample questions to ask those you wish to check references with include one or more of the following: Why didn't you persuade him or her to stay? How well did he or she take criticism or suggestions given in his or her last performance appraisal process? Go over the part of the resume that relates to the reference and ask for comments.*

- *Avoid questions that indirectly or directly identify age; physical characteristics, such as height, weight, hair or eye color; religious affiliation; marital and family status; medical history; work absenteeism due to illness or physical limitations; or child- or adult-care obligations.*

The process may take time, effort, and patience to match the right person to the right job, but consider the alternative: the dismissal process

Now It's Up to the Candidate

If the organization selection process has been effective in differentiating between those individuals who will make successful employees and those who will not, the selection decision is now in the hands of the applicant. What can management do at this stage to increase the probability that the individual will accept an offer? Assuming that the organization has not lost sight of the process of selection's dual objective—evaluation and a good fit—we can expect that the potential employee has a solid understanding of the job being offered and what it would be like to work for the organization. Yet it might be of interest at this point to review what we know about how people choose a job. This subject—job choice—represents selection from the perspective of the potential employee rather than the organization.

Research indicates that people gravitate toward jobs compatible with their personal orientation. Individuals appear to move toward matching their work with their personality. Social individuals lean toward jobs in clinical psychology, foreign service, social work, and the like. Investigative individuals are compatible with jobs in biology, mathematics, and oceanography. Careers in management, law, and public relations appeal to enterprising individuals. This approach to matching people and jobs suggests that management can expect a greater proportion of acceptances if it has properly matched the candidate's personality to the job and to the organization, making the good fit.

Not surprisingly, most job choice studies indicate that an individual's perception of the company's attractiveness is important.[36] People want to work where their expectations are positive and where they believe their goals can be achieved. This, coupled with conclusions from previous research, should encourage management to ensure that those to whom they make offers can see the job's compatibility with their personality and goals.

Before we leave this last step in the selection process, what about those applicants to whom we did not make an offer? We believe that those involved in the selection process should carefully consider how they treat rejected candidates. What we communicate and how we communicate will have a central bearing on the image rejected candidates have of our organization. And that image may be carried for a lifetime. The young college graduate rejected for a position by a major computer manufacturer may a decade later be the influential decision maker for his or her current employer's computer purchases. The image formed many years earlier may play a key part in the decision.

Lecture 6 Foundation Of Selection (continue)

2. *Selection for self-management teams*
3. *Key elements for successful predictor*

4. *Selection from a global perspective*
5. *Final thoughts: excelling of the interview*

1. Selection for self-management teams

Much of the discussion about selection devices thus far has assumed that HRM has responsibility for the selection process. Today, however, that may not always be the case. Companies such as Perdue Farms (the chicken company of Frank Perdue), General Mills, Corning, Motherwear, Toyota, and Federal Express are more team oriented, and they empower their employees to take responsibility for the day-to-day functions in their areas. Accordingly, these employees may now work without direct supervision and take on the administrative responsibilities once performed by their supervisor. One aspect of this change has been a more active role in hiring their coworkers.

Consider a time when you took a course that required a group project. How was your team formed? Did the professor assign you to a group, or were you permitted to form the group yourself? If you selected your own group, what did you look for in a potential group member? Other students who shared your values in finishing work on time and of high quality? Those who you knew would pull their own weight and not let one or two in the group do all of the work? Well, that's the same premise behind self-managed work-team selection. In any organization, a critical link to success is how well employees perform their jobs. It is also understood that when those jobs require the interaction of several individuals, or a team, coming together as a unified unit takes time. The length of that time, however, is a function of how the team views its goals and priorities and how open and trusting group members are. A good way to begin this team-building is to have the "personalities" involved actually making the hiring decision.

Workers empowered to hire their coworkers bring to the selection process varied experiences and backgrounds. This better enables them to assess applicants' skills in their field of expertise. They want to hire people they can count on to perform their duties and not let the others down. This means that they focus their attention on the job duties required and on the special skills and qualifications necessary for success. Although a more objective evaluation may result, that's not to say that self-managed work teams are without problems. If these workers are unfamiliar with proper interviewing techniques or the legal ramifications of their hiring decisions, they too, could experience many of the difficulties often associated with interviews.

2. Key elements for successful predictor

We are concerned with selection activities that can help us predict which applicants will perform satisfactorily on the job. In this section we explore the concepts of reliability, validity, and cut scores. For illustration purposes, we will emphasize these elements as they relate to employment tests, but they are relevant to any selection device.

Reliability

For any predictor to be useful, the scores it generates must possess an acceptable level of reliability or consistency of measurement. This means that the applicant's performance on any given selection device should produce consistent scores each time the device is used. For example, measuring your height every day with a wooden yardstick would yield highly reliable results, but using an elastic tape measure would probably produce considerable

disparity between measurements. Your height does not change; the variability reflects the unreliable measuring device.

Similarly, if an organization uses tests to provide input to the selection decision, the tests must give consistent results. If the test is reliable, any single individual's scores should remain fairly stable over time, assuming that the characteristic it is measuring remains stable. An individual's intelligence, for example, is generally a stable characteristic, and if we give applicants an IQ test, we should expect that someone who scores 110 in March would score close to 110 if tested again in July. If, in July, the same applicant scored 85, the reliability of the test would be highly questionable. On the other hand, if we were measuring an attitude or a mood, we would expect different scores on the measure, because attitudes and moods change.

Reliability – a selection device's consistency of measurement.

Validity

High reliability may mean little if the selection device has low validity, that is, if the measures obtained do not relate to a relevant criterion such as job performance. For example, just because a test score is consistent is no indication that it is measuring important characteristics related to job behavior. It must also differentiate between satisfactory and unsatisfactory performance on the job. We should be aware of three specific types of validity: content, construct, and criterion related.

Content Validity Content validity is the degree to which test content or questions about job tasks, as a sample, represent situations on the job. All candidates for that job receive the same test or questions so applicants can be properly compared. A simple example of a content-valid test is a typing test for a word- processing position. Such a test can approximate the work; the applicant can be given a typical sample of typing, on which his or her performance can be evaluated. Assuming that the tasks on the test, or the questions about tasks, constitute an accurate sample of the tasks on the job (ordinarily a dubious assumption at best), the test is content valid.

Validity - the proven relationship of a selection device to relevant criterion.

Content validity - the degree to which test content, as a sample, represents all situations that could have been included, such as a typing test for a clerk typist.

Construct validity - the degree to which a particular trait relates to successful job performance, as in IQ tests.

Construct Validity Construct validity is the degree to which a test measures a particular trait related to successful performance on the job. These traits are usually abstract in nature, such as the measure of intelligence, and are called *constructs.* Construct validity is complex and difficult. In fact, it is the most difficult type of validity to prove because you are dealing with abstract measures

Criterion-related validity - the degree to which a particular selection device accurately predicts the important elements of work behavior, as in the relationship between a test score and job performance.

Predictive validity – validating tests by using prospective applicants as the study group.

Concurrent validity – validating tests by using current employees as the study group.

Cut score – a scoring point below which applicants are rejected.

Criterion-Related Validity Criterion-related validity is the degree to which a particular selection device accurately predicts the level of performance or important elements of work behavior. This validation strategy shows the relationship between some predictor (test score,

for example) and a criterion, job performance (say, production output or managerial effectiveness). To establish criterion-related validity, either of two approaches can be used: predictive validity or concurrent validity.

To give a test *predictive validity*, an organization would administer the test (with an unknown validity) to all prospective applicants. The test scores would not be used at this time; rather, applicants would be hired as a result of successfully completing the entire selection process. At some prescribed date, usually at least a year after being hired, the applicants' job performance would be evaluated by their supervisors. The evaluation ratings would then be compared with the initial test scores, which have been stored in a file over the period. At that time, an analysis would assess any relationship between test scores (the predictors) and performance evaluation (the measure of success on the job, or the criterion). If no clear relationship exists, the test may have to be revised. However, if the organization found statistically that employees who scored below some predetermined score, called a cut score (determined in the analysis), were unsuccessful performers, management could appropriately state that any future applicants scoring below the cut score would be ineligible for employment. Unsuccessful performers would be handled like any other employee who has experienced poor evaluations: training, transfer, discipline, or discharge.

The *concurrent validity* method validates tests using current employees as subjects. These employees take a proposed selection test experimentally. Their scores are immediately analyzed, revealing a relationship between their test scores and existing performance appraisal data. Again, if a relationship appears between test scores and performance, a valid test has been found.

Predictive validity is the preferred choice. Its advantage over concurrent validity is that it is demonstrated by using actual job applicants, whereas concurrent validity focuses on current employees. These validation strategies are similar, with the exception of who they test and the time that elapses between gathering of predictor and criterion information (see Exhibit 6.3.).

Although the costs associated with each method are drastically different, predictive validation strategies should be used if possible. Concurrent validity, although better than no validity at all, leaves many questions to be answered. Its usefulness has been challenged on the premise that current employees know the jobs already and that a learning process takes place. Thus, similarity may be lessened between the current employee and the applicant.

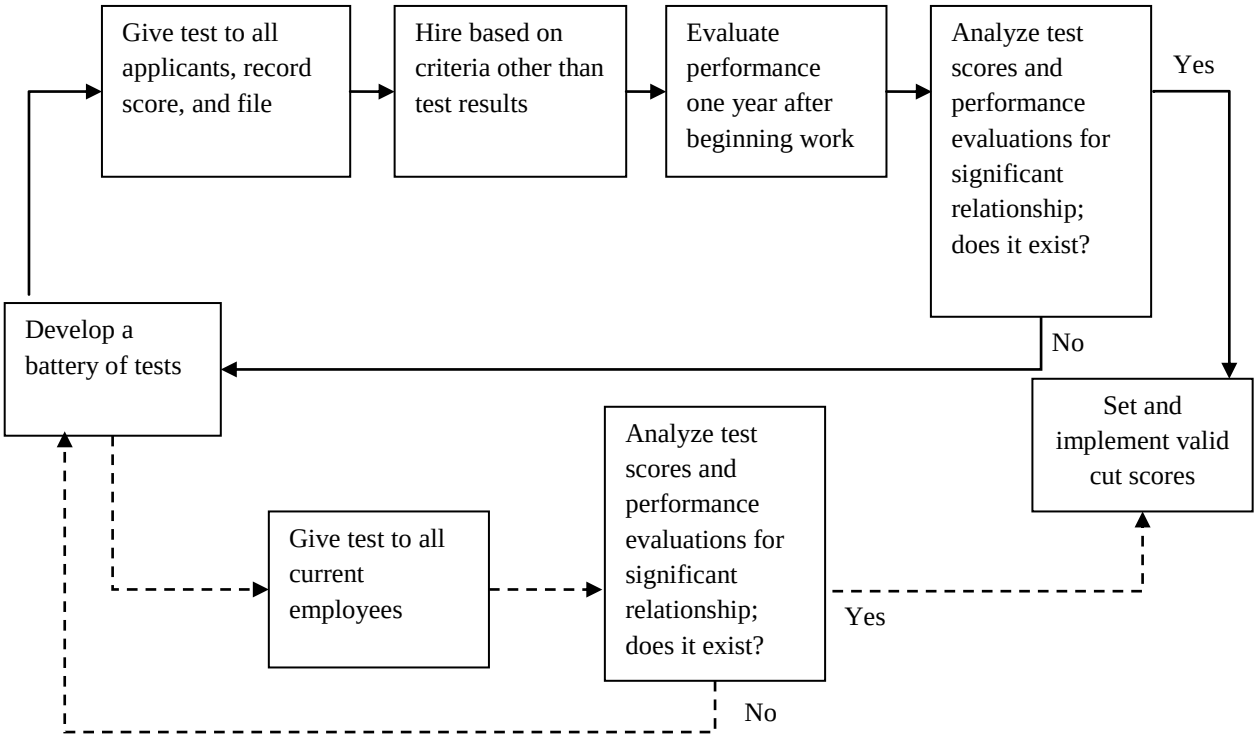


Exhibit 6.3 – Predictive vs. Concurrent Validation

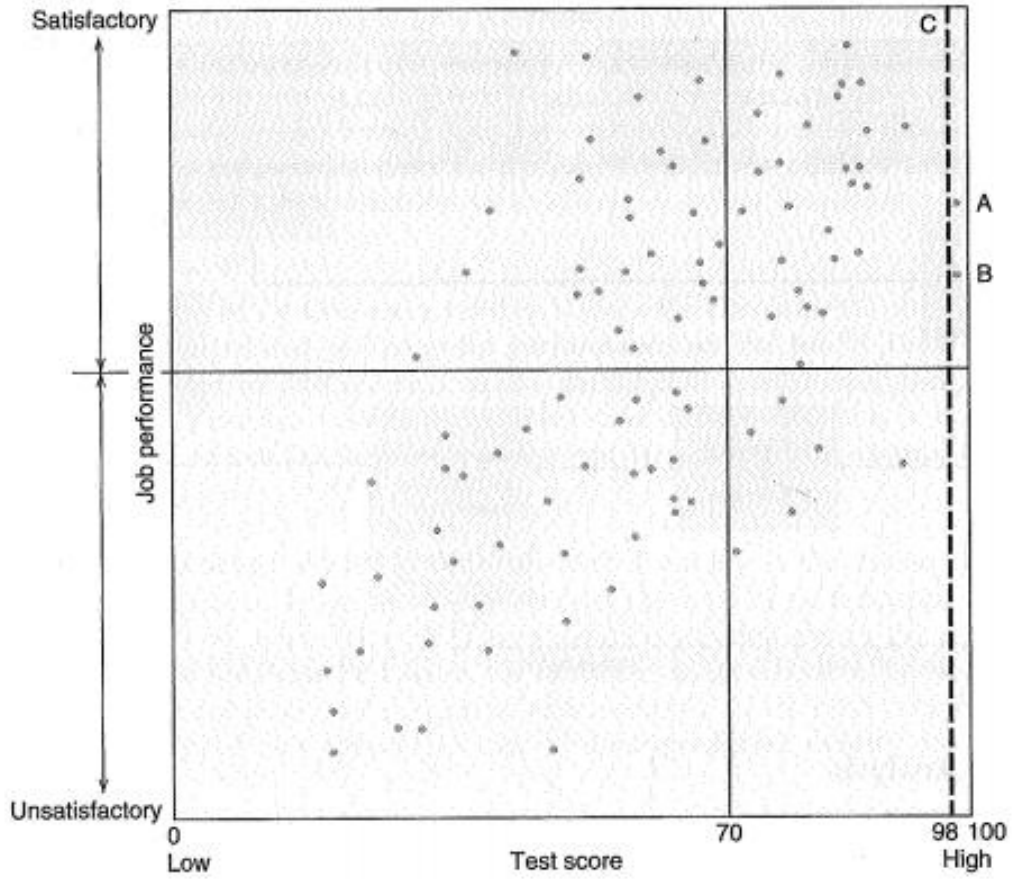
Validity Analysis

Correlation coefficients used to demonstrate the statistical relationships existing between an individual's test score and his or her job performance are called *validity coefficients.* The correlation analysis procedure can result in a coefficient ranging from — 1 to +1 in magnitude. The closer the validity coefficient is to the extreme (1), the more accurate the test; that is, the test is a good predictor of job performance. For instance, individuals who score higher on the test have a greater probability of succeeding at their jobs than those who score lower. Based on this relationship, this test appears to be valid. When we have a valid test as determined by our correlation analysis, we may then identify the test score that distinguishes between successful and unsuccessful performers (the cut score).

Cut Scores aid Their Impact on Hiring

In this discussion, we have referred to test scores and their ability to predict successful job performance. By using our statistical analyses, we generate a scoring point, the cut score, below which applicants are rejected. However, existing conditions (such as applicant availability) may cause an organization to change the cut score. If cut scores do change, what impact will this have on hiring applicants who will be successful on the job? Let us review again the positive relationship we found in our validity correlation analysis. We have reproduced the main elements in the graph in Exhibit. Let us assume that after our analysis, we determined that our cut score should be 70. At this cut score, we have shown that the majority of applicants who scored above 70 have a greater probability of being successful performers on the job, the majority scoring below 70, unsuccessful performers. If we change our cut score, however, we alter the number of applicants in these categories. For example, suppose the organization faces a "buyer's market" for particular positions. The many potential applicants permit the organization to be selective. In a situation such as this, the organization may choose to hire only those applicants who meet the most extreme criteria. To achieve this goal, the organization increases its cut score to 98. By increasing the cut

score from 70 to 98, the organization has rejected all but two candidates (areas A and B in Exhibit 6.4). However, many potentially successful job



performers also would be rejected (individuals shown in area C). Here the organization has become more selective and has put more faith in the test than is reasonable. If, out of 100 applicants only two were hired, we could say that the selection ratio (the ratio of number hired to the number of applicants) is 2 percent. A 2 percent selection ratio means that the organization is highly particular about who is hired.

Lowering the cut score also has an effect. Using the same diagram, let us lower our cut score to 50 and see what results. We have graphically portrayed this in Exhibit 6.4. By lowering the cut score from 70 to 50, we increase our number of eligible hires who have a greater probability of being successful on the job (area D). At the same time, however, we have also made eligible more applicants who could be unsuccessful on the job (area E). Although using a hiring process that offers a greater likelihood of engaging unsuccessful performers seems not to make sense, conditions may necessitate the action. Labor market conditions may lead to a low supply of potential applicants who possess particular skills. For example, in some cities, finding a good computer modeler may be difficult. Because the supply is low, coupled with many openings, companies may hire individuals on the spot (more commonly referred to as an *open-house recruiting effort).* In this approach, the organization hires almost all the applicants who appear to have the skills needed (as reflected in a score of 50), puts them on the job, and filters out the unsuccessful employees at a later date. This may not appear effective, but the organization is banking on the addition of individuals in area D of Exhibit 6.4.

Validity Generalization

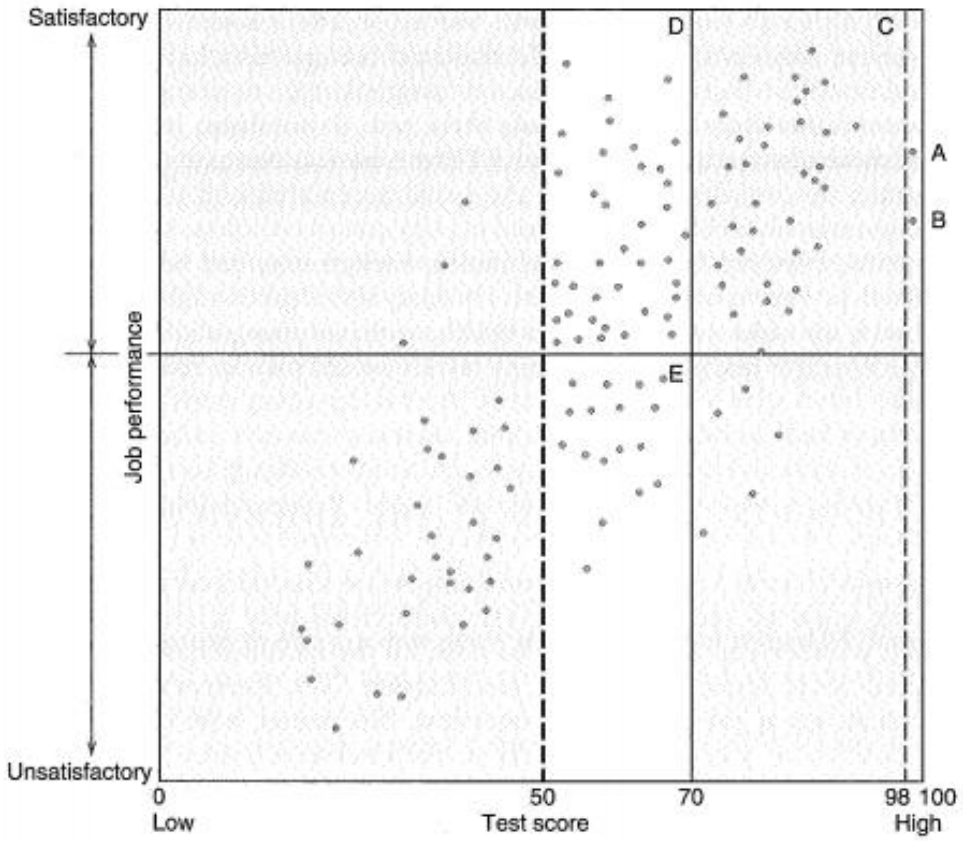
In the late 1970s, two researchers published a model that supported a phenomenon called *validity generalization,* Validity generalization refers to a test valid for screening applicants for a variety of jobs and performance factors across many occupations. For example, the Department of Labor's General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) was shown to be valid for 500 jobs studied in terms of the test's ability to predict job performance and training success irrespective of race. What distinguishes validity generalization is its use of a statistical technique called *metaanalysis*. Through meta-analysis, researchers can determine correlations that may exist among numerous variables, and correct or adjust for any variances that may exist in predictor-criterion relationships.

3. Selection from a global perspective

The selection criteria for international assignments are broader in scope than those for domestic selection. To illustrate the point, in addition to such factors as technical expertise and leadership ability, an international assignment requires greater attention to personality and especially to flexibility in the design. The individual must have an interest in working overseas and a talent for relating well to all types of people. The ability to relate to different cultures and environments, a sensitivity to different management styles, and a supportive family are often selection requirements.

Not surprisingly, many corporations consider personal factors of maturity and age, as well as the "family situation factor," far more important in their international assignments than in domestic placements. Although not all expatriates are married, many human resource managers believe that marital stability reduces a person's likelihood of returning home early and in many countries enhances the individual's social acceptability.

In addition, personal factors such as health, background, and education may be considered in international placements. In fact, the ideal candidate for many corporations is an older couple in good health, with no young children at home and a long and stable marital history. These factors would play no role in domestic assignments.



4. Final thoughts: excelling of the interview

In the previous chapter we discussed some important elements of making your resume look good to secure an interview. Interviews play a critical role in determining whether you are hired. Up to now, all the recruiter has seen is your well-polished cover letter and resume. Remember, however, few individuals get a job without an interview. No matter how qualified you are for a position, if you perform poorly in the interview, you're not likely to be hired!

Interviews are popular because they help the recruiter determine if you are a "good fit" for the organization, in terms of your level of motivation and interpersonal skills. The following suggestions can help you make your interview experience a successful one.

First, do some homework. Search for the company on the Internet (or visit your library) and find as much information on it as possible. Develop a solid grounding in the company, its history, markets, financial situation—and the industry in which it competes.

The night before the interview, get a good night's rest. As you prepare for the interview, keep in mind that your appearance will make your first impression. Dress appropriately. Incorrect attire can result in a negative impression. Arrive early about 15 minutes ahead of your scheduled interview. It's better for you to wait than to chance having the unexpected, like a traffic jam, make you late. Arriving early also gives you an opportunity to survey the office environment and gather clues about the organization. Pay attention to the waiting room layout, the formality of the receptionist, and anything else that can give you insights into the organization.

As you meet the recruiter, give him or her a firm handshake. Make good eye contact and maintain it throughout the interview. Remember, let your body language augment the

good impression you want an interviewer to pick up. Sit erect and maintain good posture. Although likely nervous, try your best to relax. Recruiters know that you'll be anxious, and a good one will try to put you at ease. Being prepared for an interview can also help build your confidence and reduce the nervousness. You can start building that confidence by reviewing a set of questions most frequently asked by interviewers, usually available at your college career center. Develop rough responses to these questions beforehand. This will lessen the likelihood that you'll be asked a question that catches you off guard. Our best advice, however, is to be yourself. Don't go into an interview with a prepared text and recite it from memory. Have an idea of what you would like to say, but don't rely on verbatim responses. Experienced interviewers will see through this "over-preparedness" and likely downgrade their evaluation of you.

If possible, go through several "practice" interviews. Universities often have career days on campus, when recruiters from companies visit to interview students. Take advantage of them. Even if a job doesn't fit what you want, the practice will help you become more skilled at dealing with interviews. You can also practice with family, friends, career counselors, student groups, or your faculty adviser.

When the interview ends, thank the interviewer for his or her time and for this opportunity to talk about your qualifications, but don't think that "selling" yourself stops there. Send an immediate thank-you letter to the recruiter for taking the time to interview you and giving you the opportunity to discuss your job candidacy. This little act of courtesy has a positive effect—use it to your advantage.

Lecture 7 Socializing, Orientation And Development Employee

1. *The insider-outsider passage*
2. *The purpose of new-employees orientation*
3. *Employee Training*

Introduction

When we talk about socializing, orienting, and developing employees, we refer to a process of helping new employees adapt to their new organizations and work responsibilities. These programs are designed to assist employees to fully understand what working is about in the organization and to help them become fully productive as soon as possible. In essence, it's about learning the ropes! When employees better understand and accept behaviors the organization views as desirable, likelihood increases that each employee will attain his or her goals.

In this chapter, we'll explore the arena of socializing, orienting, and developing employees. We'll first look at the socialization process and what organizations should do when employees first join them. We'll then explore training and later development efforts designed to ensure a supply of highly skilled employees.

1. The insider-outsider passage

Socialization - a process of adaption that takes place as individuals attempt to learn the values and norms of work roles.

When we talk about socialization, we are talking about a process of adaptation. In the context of organizations, the term refers to all passages employees undergo. For instance, when you begin a new job, accept a lateral transfer, or are promoted, you must make adjustments. You adapt to a new environment—different work activities, a new boss, a different and most likely diverse group of coworkers, and probably a different set of standards for what constitutes successful performance. Although we recognize that this socialization will go on throughout people's careers—within an organization as well as between organizations—the most profound adjustment occurs when one makes the first move into an organization: the move from being an outsider to being an insider. The following discussion, therefore, is limited to the outsider-insider passage, or, more appropriately, organization- entry socialization.

Socialization

Think back to your first day in college. What feelings did you experience? Anxiety over new expectations? Uncertainty over what was to come? Excitement at being on your own and experiencing new things? Fear based on everything friends said about how tough college courses were? Stress over what classes to take and with which professors? You probably experienced many of these—and maybe much more. Entry into a job is no different. Organizations can assist in the adjustment process if a few matters are understood. We'll call these the assumptions of employee socialization

Assumptions of Employee **Socialization**

Several assumptions underlie the process of socialization: (1) socialization strongly influences employee performance and organizational stability; (2) new members suffer from anxiety; (3) socialization does not occur in a vacuum; and, (4) individuals adjust to new situations in remarkably similar ways. Let's look a little closer at each of these assumptions.

Socialization Strongly Influences Employee Performance and Organizational Stability

Your work performance depends to a considerable degree on knowing what you should or should not do. Understanding the right way to do a job indicates proper socialization. Furthermore, appraisal of your performance includes how well you fit into the organization. Can you get along with your coworkers? Do you have acceptable work habits? Do you demonstrate the right attitude and present appropriate behaviors? These qualities differ among jobs and organizations. For instance, on some jobs you will be evaluated higher if you are aggressive and outwardly indicate that you are ambitious. On others, or in other organizations, such an approach might be evaluated negatively. As a result, proper socialization becomes a significant factor in influencing both your actual job performance and how others perceive it.

Organizational Stability Also Increases Through Socialization

When, over many years, jobs are filled and vacated with a minimum of disruption, the organization will be more stable. It’s objectives transfer more smoothly between generations. Loyalty and commitment to the organization should be easier to maintain because the organization's philosophy and objectives appear consistent over time. Given that most managers value high employee performance and organizational stability, the proper socialization of employees should be important.

New Members Suffer from Anxiety

The outsider-insider passage produces anxiety. Stress is high because the new member feels a lack of identification—if not with the work itself, certainly with a new superior, new coworkers, a new work location, and new rules and regulations. Loneliness and a feeling of

isolation are not unusual. This anxiety state has at least two implications. First, new employees need special attention to put them at ease. This usually means providing adequate information to reduce uncertainty and ambiguity. Second, tension can be positive in that it often motivates individuals to learn the values and norms of their newly assumed role as quickly as possible. The new member is usually anxious about the new role but motivated to learn the ropes and rapidly become an accepted member of the organization.

Socialization Does Not Occur in a Vacuum

Learning associated with socialization goes beyond comprehending the formal job description and the expectations of human resources people or managers. Socialization is influenced by subtle and less subtle statements and behaviors offered' up by colleagues, management, employees, clients, and other people with whom new members come in contact.

Individuals Adjust to New Situations In Remarkably Similar Ways

This holds true even though the content and type of adjustments may vary. For instance, as pointed out previously, anxiety is high at entry and the new member usually wants to reduce that anxiety quickly. Information obtained during recruitment and selection is always incomplete and usually distorted. New employees, therefore, must alter their understanding of their role to fit more complete information once they are on the job. Adjustments take time—every new member goes through a settling-in period that tends to follow a relatively standard pattern.

The Socialization Process

Socialization can be conceptualized as a process made up of three stages: prearrival, encounter, and metamorphosis. The first stage encompasses learning the new employee has gained before joining the organization. In the second stage, the new employee gains clearer understanding of the organization and deals with the realization that the expectations and reality may differ. The third stage involves lasting change. Here, new employees become fully trained in their jobs, perform successfully, and fit in with the values and norms of coworkers. These three stages ultimately affect new employees' productivity on the job, their commitment to the organization's goals, and their decision to remain with the organization. Exhibit 7.1 is a graphic representation of the socialization process.

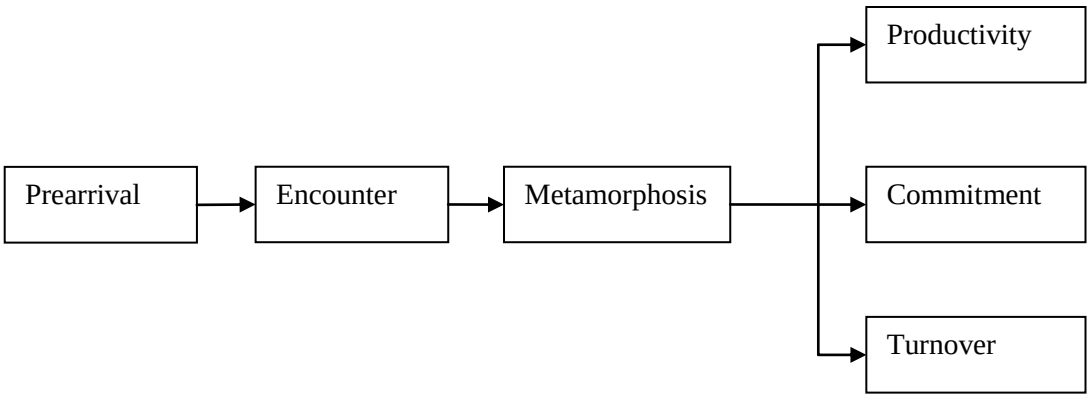


Exhibit 7.1 – A graphic representation of the socialization process

Prearrival stage – this socialization process stage recognizes that individuals arrive in an organization with a set of organizational values, attitudes, and expectations.

Encounter stage – the socialization stage where individuals confront the possible dichotomy between their organizational expectations and reality.

Metamorphosis stage – the socialization stage during which the new employee must work out inconsistencies discovered during the encounter stage.

The prearrival stage explicitly recognizes that each individual arrives with a set of organizational values, attitudes, and expectations. These may cover both the work to be done and the organization. In many jobs, particularly high-skilled and managerial jobs, new members will have considerable prior socialization in training and in school. Part of teaching business students is to socialize them to what business is like, what to expect in a business career, and what kind of attitudes professors believe will lead to successful assimilation in an organization. Prearrival socialization, however, goes beyond the specific job. Most organizations use the selection process to inform prospective employees about the organization as a whole. In addition, of course, selection interviews also help ensure including the "right type" of employee—those who will fit the organization's culture.

Upon entry into the organization, new members enter the encounter stage. Here, individuals confront the possible dichotomy between their expectations about jobs, coworkers, supervisors, and the organization in general and reality. If expectations prove to have been more or less accurate, the encounter state merely reaffirms perceptions generated earlier. However, this is not always the case. Where expectations and reality differ, new employees must be socialized to detach them from their previous assumptions and replace these with the organization's pivotal standards. Socialization, however, cannot solve all expectation differences. At the extreme, some new members may become totally disillusioned with the actualities of their jobs and resign. Proper selection, including realistic job previews, can significantly reduce this.

Finally, the new member must work out any problems discovered during the encounter stage. This may mean going through changes—hence this is called the metamorphosis stage. But what is a desirable metamorphosis? Metamorphosis is complete—as is socialization—when new members become comfortable with the organization and their work teams. They internalize coworker and organization norms, and they understand and accept these norms. New members will feel accepted by their peers as trusted and valued individuals. They will feel competent to complete their jobs successfully. They will understand the organizational system—not only their own tasks but the rules, procedures, and informally accepted practices as well. Finally, they will know how they will be evaluated. That is, they've gained an understanding of what criteria will be used to measure and appraise their work. They'll know what is expected of them and what constitutes a good job. Consequently, as Exhibit 7.1 shows, successful metamorphosis should have a positive effect on new employees' productivity and the employee's commitment to the organization, and should reduce the likelihood that the employee will leave the organization any time soon.

If HRM recognizes that certain assumptions hold for new employees entering an organization and that they typically follow a three-staged socialization process, they can develop a program to begin helping these employees adapt to the organization. Let's turn our attention, then, to this aspect of organizational life—socializing our new employees through the new-employee orientation process.

2. The purpose of new-employees orientation

New-employee **orientation** covers the activities involved in introducing a new employee to the organization and to the individuals in his or her work unit. It expands on

information received during the recruitment and selection stages and helps to reduce the initial anxiety we all feel when beginning a new job. For example, an orientation program should familiarize the new member with the organization's objectives, history, philosophy, procedures, and rules; communicate relevant HRM policies such as work hours, pay procedures, overtime requirements, and company benefits; review the specific duties and responsibilities of the new member's job; provide a tour of the organization's physical facilities; and introduce the employee to his or her manager and coworkers.

Who is responsible for orienting the new employee? This can be done by either the new employee's supervisor, the people in HRM, through computer- based programs, or some combination thereof. In many medium-sized and most large organizations, HRM takes charge of explaining such matters as overall organizational policies and employee benefits. In other medium-sized and most small firms, new employees will receive their entire orientation from their supervisor or be exposed like those at American Family Insurance to an orientation program on the company's intranet. Of course, the new employee's orientation may not be formal at all. For instance, in many small organizations, orientation may mean the new member reports to her supervisor, who then assigns her to another employee who introduces her to her coworkers. This may be followed by a quick tour of the facilities, after which the new employee is shown to her desk and work begins.

We contend that new-employee orientation requires much more. For instance, in today's dynamic organizations, new employees must understand the organization's culture.

Orientation – activities that introduce new employees to the organization and their work units.

Learning the Organization's Culture

We know that every individual has what psychologists have termed personality, a set of relatively permanent and stable traits. When we describe someone as warm, innovative, relaxed, or conservative, we are describing personality traits. An organization, too, has a personality, which we call the organization's culture. What do we specifically mean by organization **culture?** We refer to a system of shared meaning. Just as tribal cultures have totems and taboos that dictate how each member should act toward fellow members and outsiders, organizations have cultures that govern how their members should behave. Every organization, over time, evolves stories, rituals, material symbols, and language. These shared values determine, in large degree, what employees see and how they respond to their world.

An employee who has been properly socialized to the organization's culture, then, has learned how work is done, what matters, and which work-related behaviors and perspectives are or are not acceptable and desirable. In most cases, this involves input from many individuals.

Organization culture – the system of sharing meaning within the organization that determines how employees act.

The CEO's Role in Orientation

Prior to the mid-1980s, new-employee orientation operated, if at all, without input from the company's executive management. That began to change, in part when management consultants advocated making senior management more accessible to employees. Many senior managers have become highly visible in their organizations, meeting and greeting employees and listening to employee concerns. At the same time, managers talk about the company—where it is going and how— in management terminology, *visioning.* As more and

more successful companies have been cited in business literature for their leaders' involvement with the workforce, one question arises. If this connection works well for existing employees, what would it do for employees joining the organization? The answer appears to be a lot.

One of the more stressful aspects of starting a new job is the thought of entering the unknown. Although conditions at a previous organization may have made you leave—like lack of upward mobility—at least you knew what you had. But starting a new job is frightening. You may wonder if you made the right choice. Having the CEO present from day one, addressing new employees, helps to allay those fears. The CEO's first responsibility is to welcome new employees aboard and talk to them about what a good job choice they made. In fact, this segment of new-employee orientation can be likened to a cheerleading pep rally. The CEO is in a position to inspire new employees by talking about what it is like to work for the organization. In addition, the CEO can begin to discuss what really matters in the company—an indoctrination to the organization's culture.

When a CEO is present, the company shows that it truly cares for its employees. Employee satisfaction concepts are sometimes thrown around an organization to such an extent that they become nothing more than lip service to the idea. But this senior company official's presence validates that the company really is concerned—the CEO's commitment to making the first day special is evidenced by his or her presence. When scheduling conflicts arise, some companies use previously prepared videos or other electronic means of carrying the same message.

HRM's Role in Orientation

In our introductory comments we stated that the orientation function can be performed by HRM, line management, or a combination of the two. Despite a preference for a combination strategy, we contend that HRM plays a major coordinating role in new-employee orientation, which ensures that the appropriate components are in place. In addition, HRM also serves as a participant in the program. Consequently, we should recognize what HRM must do. For example, in our discussion of making the job offer, we emphasized that the offer should come from human resources to better coordinate administrative activities surrounding a new hire. The same holds true for new-employee orientation. Depending on the recruiting, a systematic schedule should guide employee entry into a company.

As job offers are made and accepted, HRM should instruct the new employee when to report to work. However, before the employee formally arrives, HRM must be prepared to handle some of the more routine needs of these individuals; for example, new employees typically have a long list of questions about benefits. More proactive organizations, such as AT&T, prepare a package for new employees. This package generally focuses on important decisions a new employee must make— choice of health insurance, institutions for direct deposit of paychecks, and tax- withholding information. When HRM provides this information a few weeks before new hires start work, they have ample time to make a proper choice—quite possibly one affected by a working spouse's options. Furthermore, forms often require information that few employees keep with them—for example, Social Security numbers of family members and medical histories. Accordingly, having that information before the new-employee orientation session saves time.

HRM's second concern involves its role as a participant in the process. Most new employees' exposure to the organization thus far has been with HRM, but after the hiring

process is over, HRM quickly drops out of the picture unless there is a problem. Therefore, HRM must spend some orientation time addressing what assistance it can offer to employees in the future. This point cannot be minimized. If HRM provides an array of services such as career guidance, benefit administration, or employee training, HRM cannot become complacent. They must let these new employees know what else HRM can do for them in the future, particularly if many HRM services may be contracted out by departments thereby lessening HRM's effect in the organization.

3. Employee Training

Every organization needs well-adjusted, trained, and experienced people to perform its activities. As jobs in today's dynamic organizations have become more complex, the importance of employee education has increased. On the whole, for example, planes don't cause airline accidents, people do. Nearly three quarters of collisions, crashes, and other airline mishaps result from pilot or air traffic controller errors or inadequate maintenance. Weather and structural failures typically account for the remaining accidents. We cite these statistics to illustrate the importance of training in the airline industry. These maintenance and human errors could be prevented or significantly reduced by better employee training.

Employee training is a learning experience: it seeks a relatively permanent change in employees that their improves job performance. Thus, training involves changing skills, knowledge, attitudes, or behavior. This may mean changing what employees know, how they work, or their attitudes toward their jobs, coworkers, managers, and the organization. It has been estimated, for instance, that U.S. business firms alone spend billions of dollars each a year on formal courses and training programs to develop workers' skills. Managers, possibly with HRM assistance, decide when employees need training and what form that training should take (see Diversity Issues in HRM).

Diversity Issues in HRM

Training and EEO

Much of our previous discussions of equal employment opportunity (EEO) have centered on the selection process. Undoubtedly, equal employment opportunities are most prevalent in the hiring process, but EEO's application to training cannot be overlooked. Remember that our definition of adverse impact includes any HRM activity that adversely affects protected group members in hiring, firing, and promoting. So how does training fall into the EEO realms? Let's take a brief look.

Training programs may be required for promotions, job bidding (especially in unionized jobs), or salary increases. Regarding any of these, the organization must ensure that training selection criteria relate to the job. Furthermore, equal training opportunities must exist for all employees. Failure at something as simple as informing all employees of the schedule of training programs could raise suspicions regarding how fair the training programs are.

Organizations should also pay close attention to training-completion rates. If more protected group members fail to pass training programs than "majority group" members, this might indicate dissimilarities in the training offered. Once again, organizations should monitor these activities and perform periodic audits to ensure full compliance with EEO regulations.

Employee training – present-oriented training that focuses on individuals' current jobs.

Employee development – future-oriented training that focuses on employee personal growth

For our purposes, we will differentiate between **employee training** and **employee development** for one particular reason: Although both are similar in learning methods, their time frames differ. Training is more present-day oriented; it focuses on individuals' current jobs, enhancing those specific skills and abilities to immediately perform their jobs. For example, suppose you enter the job market during your senior year of college, pursuing a job as a marketing representative. Despite your degree in marketing, you will need some training. Specifically, you'll need to learn the company's policies and practices, product information, and other pertinent selling practices. This, by definition, is job-specific training, or training designed to make you more effective in your current job.

Employee development, on the other hand, generally focuses on future jobs in the organization. As your job and career progress, you'll need new skills and abilities. For example, if you become a sales territory manager, the skills you need to perform that job may be quite different from those you used to sell products. Now you must supervise sales representatives and develop a broad-based knowledge of marketing and specific management competencies in communication skills, evaluating employee performance, and disciplining problem individuals. As you are groomed for positions of greater responsibility, employee development efforts can help prepare you for that day.

Determining Training Needs

Determining training needs typically involves generating answers to several questions (see Exhibit 7.2). These types of questions demonstrate the close link between employment planning and determining training needs. Based on our determination of the organization's needs, the work to be done, and the skills necessary to complete this work, our training programs should follow naturally. Once we identify where deficiencies lie, we have a grasp of the extent and nature of our training needs.

The leading questions in Exhibit 7.2 suggest the kinds of signals that can warn a manager when training may be necessary. The more obvious ones relate directly to productivity. Indications that job performance is declining may include production decreases, lower quality, more accidents, and higher scrap or rejection rates. Any of these outcomes might suggest that worker skills need to be fine tuned. Of course, we are assuming that the employee's performance decline is in no way related to- lack of effort. Managers, too, must also recognize that a constantly evolving workplace may require training. Changes imposed on employees as a result of job redesign or a technological breakthrough also require training.

A word of caution on training, however: If deficiencies in performance occur, it doesn't necessarily follow that the manager should take corrective action. It is important to put training into perspective. Training may be costly, and it should not

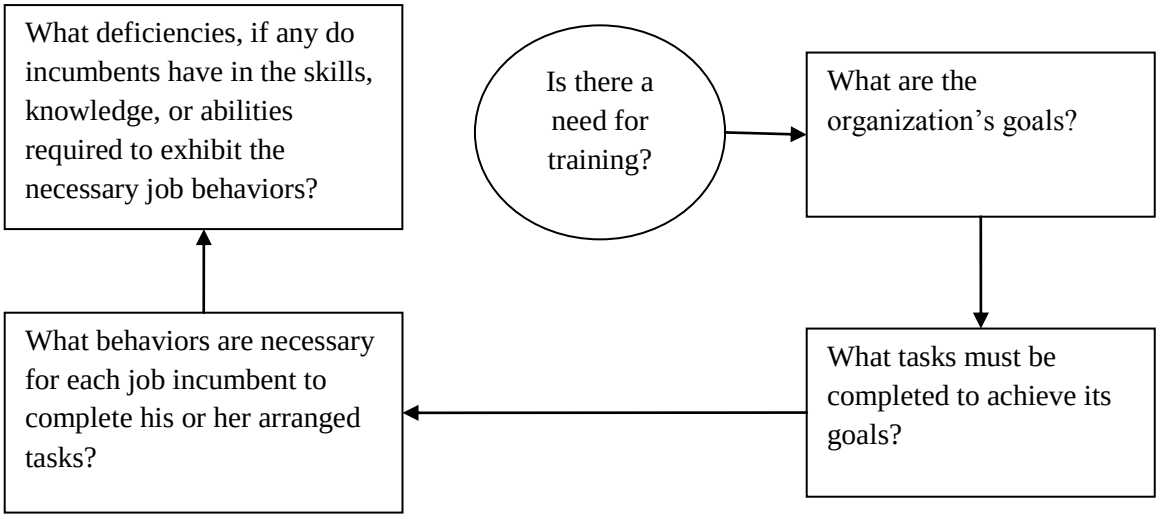


Exhibit 7.2 – Determining training needs

be viewed as a cure-all for what ails the organization. Rather, judge training by its contribution to performance, where performance is a function of skills, abilities, motivation, and the opportunity to perform. Managers must also compare the value received from performance increases attributable to training with the costs that training incurred.

Once it has been determined that training is necessary, training goals must be established. Management should explicitly state its desired results for each employee. It is not adequate to say we want change in employee knowledge, skills, attitudes, or behavior, we must clarify what is to change and by how much. These goals should be tangible, verifiable, timely, and measurable. They should be clear to both the supervisor and the employee. For instance, a firefighter might be expected to jump from a moving fire truck traveling at 15 miles per hour, successfully hook up a four-inch hose to a hydrant, and turn on the hydrant, all in less than 40 seconds. Such explicit goals ensure that both the supervisor and the employee know what is expected from the training effort.

Training Methods

Many different types of training methods are available. For the most part, how-ever, we can classify them as on-the-job or off-the-job training. We have summarized the more popular training methods in Exhibit 7.3

Exhibit 7.3

Typical training methods

On-the-Job Training Methods	
Job rotation	Lateral transfers allow employees to work at different jobs. Provides good exposure to a variety of tasks.
Understudy assignments	Working with a seasoned veteran, coach, or mentor provides support and encouragement from an experienced worked. In the trades industry, this may also be an apprenticeship.
Off-the-Job Training Methods	
Classroom Lectures	Lectures convey specific technical, interpersonal, or problemsolving skills.
Films and videos	Media productions explicitly

	demonstrate technical skills not easily presented by other training methods.
Simulation exercises	Learning a job by actually performing the work (or its simulation). May include case analyses, experiential exercises, role playing, and group interaction.
Vestibule training	Learning tasks on the same equipment that one actually will use on the job but in a simulated work environment.

Lecture 8 Socializing, Orientation And Development Employee (continue)

4. *Employee Development*
5. *Organization development*
6. *Evaluating Training and Development effectiveness*
7. *International training and development issues*

4. Employee Development

Employee development, as mentioned earlier, is more future oriented and more concerned with education than employee job-specific training. By education we mean that employee development activities attempt to instill sound reasoning processes—to enhance one's ability to understand and interpret knowledge—rather than imparting a body of facts or teaching a specific set of motor skills. Development, therefore, focuses more on the employee's personal growth. Successful employees prepared for positions of greater responsibility have analytical, human, conceptual, and specialized skills. They think and understand. Training, per se, cannot overcome an individual's inability to understand cause-and-effect relationships, to synthesize from experience, to visualize relationships, or to think logically. As a result, we suggest that employee development be predominantly an education process rather than a training process.

Consider one critical component of employee development: all employees, regardless of level, can be developed. Historically, development was reserved for potential management personnel. Although it is critical for individuals to be trained in specific skills related to managing—planning, organizing, leading, controlling, and decision making—time has taught us that nonmanagerial employees need these skills as well. The use of work teams, reductions in supervisory roles, allowing workers to participate in setting job goals, and a greater emphasis on quality and customers have changed the way we view employee development. Accordingly, organizations now require new employee skills, knowledge, and abilities. Thus, as we go through the next few pages, note that the methods used to develop employees in general are the same as those used to develop future management talent.

Employee Development Methods

Some development of an individual's abilities can take place on the job (see Workplace Issues). We will review several methods, three popular on-the-job techniques (job rotation, assistant-to positions, and committee assignments) and three off-the-job methods (lecture courses and seminars, simulation exercises, and outdoor training).

Job rotation - moving employees horizontally or vertically to expand their skills, knowledge, or abilities.

Job Rotation Job rotation involves moving employees to various positions in the organization in an effort to expand their skills, knowledge, and abilities. Job rotation can be either horizontal or vertical. Vertical rotation is nothing more than promoting a worker into a new position. In this chapter, we will emphasize the horizontal dimension of job rotation, also known as a short-term lateral transfer.

Job rotation represents an excellent method for broadening an individual's exposure to company operations and for turning a specialist into a generalist. In addition to increasing the individual's experience and allowing him or her to absorb new information, it can reduce boredom and stimulate the development of new ideas. It can also provide opportunities for a more comprehensive and reliable evaluation of the employee by his or her supervisors.

Assistant-To Positions Employees with demonstrated potential sometimes work under a seasoned and successful manager, often in different areas of the organization. Working as staff assistants or, in some cases, serving on special boards, these individuals perform many duties under the watchful eye of a supportive coach (see Workplace Issues). In doing so, these employees experience a wide variety of management activities and are groomed for assuming the duties of the next higher level.

Committee Assignment Committee assignments can allow the employee to share in decision making, to learn by watching others, and to investigate specific organizational problems. Temporary committees often act as a taskforce to delve into a particular problem, ascertain alternative solutions, and recommend a solution. These temporary assignments can be both interesting and rewarding to the employee's growth. Appointment to permanent committees increases the employee's exposure to other members of the organization, broadens his or her understanding, and provides an opportunity to grow and make recommendations under the scrutiny of other committee members.

In addition to the above on-the-job techniques, employees benefit from off- the-job development. We will briefly discuss three of the more popular means: lecture courses and seminars, simulations, and outdoor training.

Lecture Courses and Seminars Traditional forms of instruction revolve around formal lecture courses and seminars. These help individuals acquire knowledge and develop their conceptual and analytical abilities. Many organizations offer these in-house, through outside vendors, or both.

Technology however, is allowing for significant improvements in the training field. A growing trend at companies is to provide lecture courses and seminars through "distance learning." Digitized computer technology, allows a facilitator to give a lecture in one location that is simultaneously transmitted over fiber-optic cables to several other locations.

Over the past few years, we've witnessed an expansion of lecture courses and seminars for organizational members. Some have returned to college classes, either for credit toward a degree, others have taken "continuing education" courses. Either way, employees are taking the responsibility to advance their skills, knowledge, and abilities in an effort to enhance their value-addedness to their current or future employer.

Simulations

Simulations, as cited in Exhibit 7.3, are a training technique. While critical in training employees on actual work experiences, simulations are probably even more popular for employee development. The more widely used simulation exercises include case studies, decision games, and role plays.

Employee development through case-study analysis was popularized at the Harvard Graduate School of Business. Taken from the actual experiences of organizations, these cases represent attempts to describe, as accurately as possible, real problems that managers have faced. Trainees study the cases to determine problems, analyze causes, develop alternative solutions, select what they believe to be the best solution, and implement it. Case studies can provide stimulating discussions among participants, as well as excellent opportunities for individuals to defend their analytical and judgmental abilities. It appears to be a rather effective method for improving decision-making abilities within the constraints of limited information.

Simulated decision games and role-playing exercises put individuals in the role of acting out supervisory problems. Simulations, frequently played on a computer program, provide opportunities for individuals to make decisions and to witness the implications of their decisions for- other segments of the organization. Airlines, for instance, find that simulations are a such more cost-effective means of training pilots—especially in potentially dangerous situations. And poor decisions typically have no worse effects on the learner than the need to explain why the choice was not a good one. Role playing allows participants to act out problems and to deal with real people. Participants are assigned roles and are asked to react to one another as they would have to do in their managerial jobs.

The advantages of simulation exercises are the opportunities to attempt to "create an environment" similar to real situations managers face, without high costs for poor outcomes. Of course, the disadvantages are the reverse of this: it is difficult to duplicate the pressures and realities of actual decision making on the job, and individuals often act differently in real-life situations than they do in a simulated exercise.

Simulation – any artificial environment that attempts to closely mirror an actual condition.

Outdoor Training

A trend in employee development has been the use of outdoor (sometimes referred to as wilderness or survival) training. The primary focus of such training is to teach trainees the importance of working together, of jelling as a team. Outdoor training typically involves some major emotional and physical challenge. This could be white-water rafting, mountain climbing, paintball games, or surviving a week in the "jungle." The purpose of such training is to see how employees react to the difficulties that nature presents to them. Do they face these dangers alone? Do they "freak"? Or are they controlled and successful in achieving their goal? The reality is that today's business environment does not permit employees to stand alone. This has reinforced the importance of working closely with one another, building trusting relationships, and succeeding as a member of a group. Companies such as Asea Brown Boveri and DaimlerChrysler spend millions each year in their outdoor training efforts.

5. Organization development

Organization development - the part of HRM that addresses system wide change in the organization.

change agent - individual responsible for fostering the change effort and assisting employees in adapting to changes.

Although our discussion so far has related to the people side of business, it is important to recognize that organizations change from time to time. Changes with respect to

continuous improvements, diversity, and work process engineering require the organization to move forward through a process we call organization development (OD). OD has taken on a renewed importance today. Brought about by continuous-improvement goals, many organizations have drastically changed the way they do business.

No matter what role OD takes in an organization, it requires facilitation by an individual well versed in organization dynamics. In HRM terms, we call this person a change agent. Change agents are responsible for fostering the environment in which change can occur, working with the affected employees to help them adapt to the change. Change agents may be either internal employees, often associated with the training and development function of HRM, or external consultants (see Technology Corner). Before we discuss specific aspects of organization development, let's look at this phenomenon we call change.

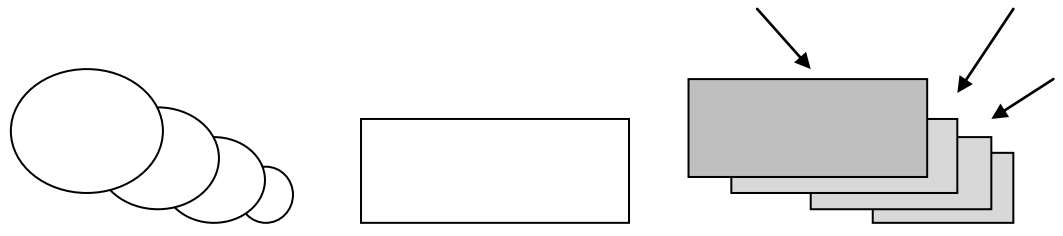
What Is Change?

Change usually affects four areas: the organization's systems, its technology, its processes, and its people. No matter what the change, or how minor it may appear, understanding its effect is paramount for it to be supported and lasting.[36] OD comes into play with efforts designed to support the business's strategic direction. For instance, if work processes change, people need to learn new production methods and procedures and maybe new skills. OD becomes instrumental in bringing about the change. How so? The effects of change become organizational culture issues. Accordingly, OD efforts help ensure that all organizational members support the new culture and assist in bringing the new culture to fruition.

We often use two metaphors to clarify the change process. The *calm waters metaphor* envisions the organization as a large ship crossing a calm sea. The ship's captain and crew know exactly where they are going because they have made the trip many times before. Change surfaces as the occasional storm, a brief distraction in an otherwise calm and predictable trip. The *white-water rapids metaphor* pictures the organization as a small raft navigating a raging river with uninterrupted white-water rapids. Aboard the raft are a half dozen people who have never worked together before, who are totally unfamiliar with the river, who are unsure of their eventual destination, and who, as if things weren't bad enough, are traveling in the pitch-dark night. In the white-water rapids metaphor, change is a natural state and managing change is a continual process.

These two metaphors present widely differing approaches to understanding and responding to change. Let's take a closer look at each one.

The Calm Waters Metaphor Until recently, the calm waters metaphor dominated the thinking of practicing managers and academics. The prevailing model for handling change in calm waters is best illustrated in Kurt Lewin's three-step description of the change process (see Exhibit 8.1).



Unfreeze Freeze Refreeze

Exhibit 8.1 – The Lewin's change process

According to Lewin, successful change requires unfreezing the status quo, changing to a new state, and refreezing the new change to make it permanent. The status quo can be considered an equilibrium state. Unfreezing, necessary to move from this equilibrium, is achieved in one of three ways:

- The driving forces, which direct behavior away from the status quo, can be increased.
- The restraining forces, which hinder movement from the existing equilibrium, can be decreased.
- The two approaches can be combined.

After unfreezing, the change itself can be implemented. However, the mere introduction of change does not ensure that it will take hold. The new situation, therefore, needs to be refrozen so that it can be sustained over time. Without this last step, the change will likely be short lived and employees will revert to the previous equilibrium state. The objective of refreezing, then, is to stabilize the new situation by balancing the driving and restraining forces.

Note how Lewin's three-step process treats change as a break in the organization's equilibrium state. The status quo has been disturbed, and change is necessary to establish a new equilibrium state. This view might have been appropriate to the relatively calm environment that most organizations faced in the 1950s, 1960s, and early 1970s, but the calm waters metaphor is an increasingly obsolete description of the kind of seas managers now navigate.

The White-water Rapids Metaphor This metaphor takes into consideration the fact that environments are both uncertain and dynamic. To understand what managing change while negotiating uninterrupted rapids might be like, imagine attending a college in which courses vary in length. When you sign up, you don't know whether a course will last for 2 weeks or 30 weeks. Furthermore, the instructor can end a course at any time, with no prior warning. If that isn't bad enough, the length of the class session changes each time—sometimes 20 minutes, other times 3 hours—and the time of the next class meeting is set by the instructor during the previous class. Oh, yes: The exams are unannounced; you must be ready for a test at any time. To succeed in this college, you would have to be incredibly flexible and able to respond quickly to every changing condition. Students too structured or slow on their feet would not survive.

A growing number of organizational members are accepting that their job is much like what a student would face in such a college. The stability and predictability of calm waters do not exist. Disruptions in the status quo are not occasional and temporary, followed by a return to calm waters. Many of today's employees never get out of the rapids. They face constant change, bordering on chaos. These individuals must play a game they have never played before, governed by rules created as the game progresses.

Is the white-water rapids metaphor merely an overstatement? No! Take the case of General Motors. In the intensely competitive automotive manufacturing business, a company must be prepared for any possibility. Cars are being surpassed by sport utility vehicles. Gasoline engines are still the fury of environmentalists who desire a more environment-friendly source of power for vehicles. Government regulators demand ever-increasing gasoline mileage. Customers want new and unique styles more frequently. Competition in the industry is fierce. While GM focus on "big" competitors, new entrants into the

marketplace—such as Hyundai and Kia—pick away at market share. GM, to succeed, must change and continuously improve and revamp everything that they do! As one of GM's Advanced Portfolio Exploration Group (APEX) members stated, "Change takes guts. It takes imagination. It takes commitment." All necessary ingredients for dealing with the chaotic world of business!

0D Methods

We know that most organizational change that employees experience happens not by chance, but often by a concerted effort to alter some aspect of the organization. Whatever happens—in terms of structure or technology—however, ultimately affects organizational members. Organization development assists organizational members with planned change.

Organization Development *Organization development* facilitates long-term organization-wide changes. Its focus is to constructively change attitudes and values among organizational members so that they can more readily adapt to and be more effective in achieving the new directions of the organization. When they I plan OD efforts, organization leaders, in essence, attempt to change the organization's culture. However, one fundamental issue of organization development is its reliance on employee participation to foster an environment of open communication and trust. Persons involved in OD efforts acknowledge that change can j create stress for employees. Therefore, OD attempts to involve organizational members in changes that will affect their jobs and seeks their input about how the innovation is affecting them.

OD Techniques Any organizational activity that assists with implementing planned change can be viewed as an OD technique (see Ethical Issues in HRM). However, the more popular OD efforts in organizations rely heavily on group interactions and cooperation. These include survey feedback, process consultation, team building, and intergroup development.

ETHICAL ISSUES IN HRM

Organization development interventions often produce positive change results. Interventions that rely on participation of organizational members can create openness and trust among coworkers and respect for others. Interventions can also help employees understand that the organization wants to promote risk taking and empowerment. "Living" these characteristics can lead to better organizational performance.

However, change agent involved in an OD effort imposes his or her value system on those involved in the intervention, especially when the intervention addresses coworker mistrust. The change agent may deal with this problem by bringing all affected parties together to openly discuss their perceptions of the dilemma.

Although many change agents are well versed in OD practices, sometimes they walk a fine line between success and failure. To resolve personal problems in the workplace, participants must disclose private, and often sensitive information. An individual can refuse to divulge such information, but doing so may carry negative ramifications. For example, it could lead to lower performance appraisals, fewer pay increases, or the perception that the employee is not a team player.

On the other hand, active participation can cause employees to speak their minds, which also carries risks. For instance, imagine that an employee questions a manager's competence. This employee fully believes the manager's behavior is detrimental to the work unit, but his or her reward for being open and honest could be retaliation from the boss. Although, at the time, the manager might appear receptive to the feedback, he or she may retaliate later. In either case—participation or not—employees could be hurt. Even though

the intent was to help overcome worker mistrust, the result may be more back stabbing, more hurt feelings, and more mistrust.

Do you think that coworkers can be too open and honest under this type of OD intervention? What do you think a change agent can do to ensure that employees' rights will be protected?

Survey feedback efforts assess employee attitudes about and perceptions of the change they are encountering. Employees generally respond to a set of specific questions regarding how they view organizational aspects such as decision making, leadership, communication effectiveness, and satisfaction with their jobs, coworkers, and management. The data the change agent obtains help clarify problems that employees may be facing. The change agent can consider actions to remedy the problems.

In *process consultation,* outside consultants help organizational members to perceive, understand, and act upon process events. These might include, for example, workflow, informal relationships among unit members, and formal communications channels. It is important to recognize that consultants give organizational members insight into what is going on, but they are not there to solve problems. Rather, they coach managers in diagnosing interpersonal processes that need improvement. If organizational members, with consultants' help, cannot solve the problem, consultants will often help organizational members locate experts who do have the requisite knowledge (see Workplace Issues).

Survey feedback – assessment of employees' perceptions and attitudes regarding their jobs and organization.

Organizations are made up of individuals working together to achieve some goals. Because organizational members frequently must interact with peers, a primary function of OD is to help them become a team. Team building helps work groups set goals, develop positive interpersonal relationships, and clarify the role and responsibilities of each team member. There may be no need to address each area because the group may be in agreement and understand what is expected of it. Team building's primary focus is to increase each member's trust and openness toward one another.

Intergroup development - helping members of various groups become a cohesive team.

Whereas team building focuses on helping a work group to become more cohesive, intergroup development attempts to achieve cohesion among different work groups. That is, intergroup development attempts to change attitudes, stereotypes, and perceptions that one group may have toward another group. Doing so can build better coordination among the various groups.

Playing Coach

Increasingly, managers must assume the role of coach. In fact, some organizations officially have changed the title from manager to coach. Changing titles doesn't change abilities, but with training and practice, managers—by whatever name—can learn to coach and counsel their employees more effectively.

Change toward teamwork, empowerment, and managing by influence makes acquiring such skills imperative for the success of both corporations and their employees. Coaching and counseling improves efficiency and productivity and prevents situations from escalating,

while enhancing job satisfaction and confidence when attitude or performance problems occur. Some managers suffer from the ostrich syndrome—hiding their heads in the sand in hopes that the problem or employee will go away. Too pressed for time, afraid that they may give the wrong advice and be blamed for it, or just not having any solutions for a particular situation, managers may avoid counseling or coaching.

But as managers, we must accept coaching and counseling as a part of our jobs, however uncomfortable we may be. We must provide employees with regular feedback about their performances, not just at appraisal time. We must provide appropriate ongoing training, support, and encouragement; view them as partners in the process; give credit when deserved; and provide information about the company and its goals, as well as their role, responsibilities, and expectations in meeting them.

If your employees feel blocked from career opportunities or dissatisfied with their jobs, need help setting priorities, or are stressed, burned out, and insecure, your counseling skills will be tested. Employees may not tell you initially that they have a problem, but they will give you an assortment of clues such as missed deadlines, absenteeism, and decreased quality and productivity. They may show less initiative or interest or become irritable or withdrawn. Your job is to find out why their attitude or performance is waning; could it be that they were not recognized for some work or they are frustrated because of a lack of time, training, or feedback? After all, most employees believe that their managers either can or should read minds.

Maybe it's time to reassess what's happening. For example, have you as a manager taken time to explain expectations, directions, and priorities? Have you removed obstacles and reinforced performance? When it's time to practice your new coaching/counseling insights, carefully plan what you will say in advance, then allow enough time without distractions or interruptions to discuss how the situation affects performance, to listen without becoming defensive, and to obtain enough information to develop an action plan of improvement. Invite the employee to propose solutions or alternatives. Be prepared to have a follow-up session to review progress and to reinforce improvements.

Sometimes even the best coaches and counselors must cut their losses if performance continues to decline, which may call for more severe measures such as probation, demotion, transfer, termination, or disciplinary action if alternatives such as transfer, retraining, or job restructuring are impossible. On the optimistic side, however, if the coaching or counseling session is effective, everybody wins—the company, employee, and manager. Attitude or performance improves, communication lines up, and both managers and employees can build on the situation.

You should consider the alternatives—not saying anything, not taking action—but not too long. The .problem may persist, even if the opportunity to fill the job doesn't.

A Special OD Case: The Learning Organization

Learning organization – an organization that values continued learning and believes a competitive advantage can be derived from it.

The concept of a learning organization describes a significant organizational mind-set or philosophy. A learning organization has the capacity to continuously adapt and change because all members take an active role in identifying and resolving work-related issues. In a learning organization, employees practice knowledge management by continually acquiring and sharing new knowledge and willingly apply that knowledge in making decisions or performing their work.

In a learning organization, it's critical for members to share information and collaborate on work activities throughout the entire organization—across different functional specialties and even at different organizational levels. Employees are free to work together and collaborate in doing the organization's work the best way they can and to learn from each other. This need to collaborate also tends to make teams an important feature of a learning organization. Employees work on activities in teams and make decisions about doing their work or resolving issues. Empowered employees and teams have little need for "bosses" to direct and control them. Instead, traditional managers serve as facilitators, supporters, and advocates for employee teams.

Learning can't take place without information. For a learning organization to "learn," information must be shared among members; that is, organizational employees must engage in knowledge management. This means sharing information openly, in a timely manner, and as accurately as possible. The learning organization environment is conducive to open communication and extensive information sharing.

Leadership plays an important role as an organization moves to become a learning organization. One most important leader function is to facilitate creation of a shared vision for the organization's future and keep organizational members working toward that vision. In addition, leaders should support and encourage the collaborative environment critical to learning. Without strong and committed leadership throughout the organization, it would be extremely difficult to be a learning organization.

Finally, the organizational culture is an important aspect of being a learning organization. A learning organization's culture is one in which everyone agrees on a shared vision and everyone recognizes the inherent interrelationships among the organization's processes, activities, functions, and external environment. There is a strong sense of community, caring for each other, and trust. In a learning organization, employees feel free to openly communicate, share, experiment, and learn without fear of criticism or punishment.

If you delve deeply into many of the learning organization's characteristics you may notice something startling. Many of these elements are parts of a fully functioning, effective human resource management system in an organization.

6. Evaluating Training and Development effectiveness

Any training or development implemented in an organization effort must be cost effective. That is, the benefits gained must outweigh the costs of the learning experience. Only analyzing such programs determines «effectiveness. It is not enough to merely assume that any training an organization offers is effective; we must develop substantive data to determine whether our training effort is achieving its goals—that is, if it's correcting the deficiencies in skills, knowledge, or attitudes we assessed as needing attention. Note, too, that training and development programs are expensive—in the billions of dollars annually in the United States alone. The costs incurred alone justify evaluating the effectiveness.

It is easy to generate a new training program, but if the training effort is not evaluated, any employee training efforts can be rationalized. Sadly, research indicates that nearly half of all training programs are not measured against any substantiative outcome such as like employee retention, satisfaction or productivity. It would be nice, however, if all companies could boast the returns on investments in training that Neil Huffman Auto Group executives do; they claim they receive $230 in increased productivity for every dollar spent on training. Such a claim is valueless unless training is properly evaluated.

The following approach for evaluating training programs is probably generalizable across organizations: Several managers, representatives from HRM, and a group of workers who have recently completed a training program are asked for their opinions. If the comments are generally positive, the program may receive a favorable evaluation and it will continue until someone decides, for whatever reason, it should be eliminated or replaced.

The reactions of participants or managers, while easy to acquire, are the least valid; their opinions are heavily influenced by factors that may have little to do with the training's effectiveness: difficulty, entertainment value, or the personality characteristics of the instructor. Trainees' reactions to the training may, in fact, provide feedback on how worthwhile the participants viewed the training. Beyond general reactions, however, training must also be evaluated in terms of how much the participants learned, how well they use their new skills on the job (did their behavior change?) and whether the training program achieved its desired results (reduced turnover, increased customer service, etc.).

Performance-Based Evaluation Measures

We'll explore three popular methods of evaluating training programs. These are the post-training performance method, the pre-post-training performance method, and the pre-post-training performance with control group method.

Post-training performance method - evaluating training programs based on how well employees can perform their jobs after training.

Post-Training Performance Method

The first approach is the post-training performance method. Participants' performance is measured after attending a training program to determine if behavioral changes have been made. For example, assume we provide a week-long seminar for HRM recruiters on structured interviewing techniques. We follow up one month later with each participant to see if, in fact, attendees use the techniques addressed in the program, and how. If changes did occur, we may attribute them to the training, but we cannot emphatically state that the change in behavior related directly to the training. Other factors, like reading a current HRM journal or attending a local Society of Human Resource Management presentation, may have also influenced the change. Accordingly, the post-training performance method may overstate training benefits.

Pre-post-training performance method – evaluating training programs based on the difference in performance before and after training.

Pre- Post-Training Performance Method in the pre-post-training performance method, each participant is evaluated prior to training and rated on actual job performance. After instruction—of which the evaluator has been kept unaware— is completed, the employee is reevaluated. As with the post-training performance method, the increase is assumed to be attributable to the instruction. However, in contrast to the post-training performance method, the pre-post-performance method deals directly with job behavior.

Pre-post-training performance with control group method - evaluating training by comparing pre- and post-training results with individuals.

Pre-Post-Training Performance with Control Group Method

The most sophisticated evaluative approach is the pre-post-training performance with control group method. Two groups are established and evaluated on actual job performance. Members of the control group work on the job but do not undergo instruction, but the experimental group does. At the conclusion of training, the two groups are reevaluated. If the training is really effective, the experimental group's performance will have improved and

will perform substantially better than the control group. This approach attempts to correct for factors, other than the instruction program, that influence job performance.

Despite numerous methods for evaluating training and development programs, these three appear to be the most widely recognized. Furthermore, the latter two methods are preferred because they provide a stronger measure of behavioral change directly attributable to the training effort.

6. International training and development issues

Important components of international human resource management include both cross-cultural training and a clear understanding of the overseas assignment as part of a manager's development.

Cross-Cultural Training

Cross-cultural training is necessary for expatriate managers and their families before, during, and after foreign assignments. It is crucial to remember that when the expatriates arrive, they are the foreigners, not the host population. Before the employee and family relocate to the overseas post, they need to absorb much cultural and practical background. Language training is essential for everyone in the family.

Although English is the dominant business language worldwide, relying on English puts the expatriate at a disadvantage. The expatriate will be unable to read trade journals and newspapers, which contain useful business information, and must rely on translators, which at best only slow down discussions and at worst "lose things" in the process. Even if an expatriate manager is not fluent, a willingness to try communicating in the local language makes a good impression on the business community—unlike the insistence that all conversation be in English. Foreign-language proficiency is also vital for family members to establish a social network and accomplish the everyday tasks of maintaining a household. Americans may be able to go to the produce market and point at what they recognize on display, but if the shop has unfamiliar meats or vegetables, it helps to be able to ask what each item is and it's even better to understand the answers!

Cross-cultural training is, of course, much more than language training. It should provide an appreciation of the new culture, including details of its history and folklore, economy, politics (both internal and its relations with the United States), religion, social climate, and business practices. It is easy to recognize that religion is highly important in daily life in the Middle East, but knowledge of the region's history and an understanding of the specific practices and beliefs is important to avoid inadvertently insulting business associates or social contacts.

All this training can be carried out through a variety of techniques. Language skills are often provided through classes and recordings, whereas cultural training utilizes many different tools. Lectures, reading materials, video recordings, and movies are useful for background information, but cultural sensitivity is more often taught through role playing, simulations, and meetings with former international assignees and natives of the countries now living in the United States.

After the overseas assignment has ended and the employee has returned, more training is required for the entire family. All family members must reacclimate to life in the United States. The family faces changes in the extended family, friends, and local events that have occurred in their absence. Teenagers find reentry particularly difficult, as they are ignorant of the most recent jargon and the latest trends, but often are more sophisticated and mature than their local friends. The employee also must adjust to organizational changes, including the

inevitable promotions, transfers, and resignations that have taken place during his or her absence. Returnees are anxious to know where they fit in, or if they have been gone for so long that they are no longer on a career path.

Development

The current global business environment makes the overseas assignment a vital component in developing top-level executives. However, this is currently truer in Europe and Japan than in the United States. Many American managers return with broader experiences, having been relatively independent of headquarters. Particularly, mid-level managers experience greater responsibilities than others at their level and frequently acquire greater sensitivity and flexibility to alternative ways of doing things. Unfortunately they are often ignored and untapped after their return.

It is vital for the organization to make the overseas assignment part of a career development program. In the absence of such a developmental program, two negative consequences often occur. First, the recently returned manager who is largely ignored or underutilized becomes frustrated and leaves the organization. This is extremely costly, losing the investment in developing this individual and the talent that will likely be recruited by a competitor, either at home or overseas.

Second, when overseas returnees are regularly underutilized or leave out of frustration, other potential expatriates become reluctant to accept overseas posts, inhibiting the organization's staffing ability. When the overseas assignment is completed, the organization has four basic options. First, the expatriate may be assigned to a domestic position, beginning the repatriation process. Hopefully, this new assignment will build on some of the newly acquired skills and perspectives. Second, the return may be temporary, with the goal of preparing for another overseas assignment. This might be the case where a manager has successfully opened a new sales territory and is being asked to repeat that success in another region. Third, the expatriate may seek retirement, either in the United States or in the country in which she or he spent the past few years. Finally, employment may be terminated, either because the organization has no suitable openings or because the individual has found opportunities elsewhere.

All of these options involve substantial expenses or a loss in human investment. A well thought out and organized program of employee development can make overseas assignments a part of the comprehensive international human resource management program.

Lecture *9. Job Evaluation*

1. Aims of job evaluation
2. Analytical job evaluation schemes
3. Paired comparison ranking
4.Market pricing
5.Designing an analytical point-factor job evaluation scheme

Introduction

Decisions about what jobs are worth take place all the time. The decisions may be made informally, based on assumptions about the value of a job in the marketplace or in

comparison with other jobs in the organization. Or it may be a formal approach, either some type of job evaluation, as described in this chapter, or a systematic comparison with market rates.

Evaluating 'worth' leads directly or indirectly to where a job is placed in a level or grade within a hierarchy and can therefore determine how much someone is paid. The performance of individuals also affects their pay, but this is not a matter for job evaluation, which is concerned with valuing the jobs people carry out, not how well they perform their jobs.

This chapter covers a definition of job evaluation, formal and informal approaches, analytical and non-analytical formal schemes, market pricing, computer-aided job evaluation, making the choice between approaches, introducing a new or substantially revised scheme and equal pay considerations.

Job evaluation defined

Job evaluation is a systematic process for defining the relative worth or size of jobs within an organization in order to establish internal relativities.

1. Aims of job evaluation

Establish the relative value or size of jobs (internal relativities) based on fair, sound and consistent judgements.

Produce the information required to design and maintain equitable and defensible grade and pay structures.

Provide as objective as possible a basis for grading jobs within a grade structure, thus enabling consistent decisions to be made about job grading.

Enable sound market comparisons with jobs or roles of equivalent complexity and size.

Be transparent - the basis upon which grades are defined and jobs graded should be clear.

Ensure that the organization meets equal pay for work of equal value obligations.

Approaches

Approaches to establishing the worth of jobs fall broadly into two categories: formal and informal.

Formal job valuation

Formal approaches use standardized methods to evaluate jobs that can be analytical or non- analytical. Such schemes deal with internal relativities and the associated process of establishing and defining job grades or levels in an organization.

An alternative approach is 'extreme market pricing' in which formal pay structures and individual rates of pay are entirely based on systematically collected and analysed information on market rates and no use is made of job evaluation to establish internal relativities. Extreme market pricing should be distinguished from the process of collecting and analysing market rate data used to establish external relativities, having already determined internal relativities through formal job evaluation.

Informal job evaluation

Informal approaches price jobs either on the basis of assumptions about internal and external relativities or simply by reference to going or market rates when recruiting people, unsupported by any systematic analysis. There are, however, degrees of informality. A semi-formal approach might require some firm evidence to support a market pricing decision and the use of role profiles to provide greater accuracy to the matching process.

2. Analytical job evaluation schemes

Analytical job evaluation is based on a process of breaking whole jobs down into a number of defined elements or factors such as responsibility, decisions and the knowledge and skill required. These are assumed to be present in all the jobs to be evaluated. In point-factor and fully analytical matching schemes, jobs are then compared factor by factor either with a graduated scale of points attached to a set of factors or with grade or role profiles analysed under the same factor headings.

The advantages of an analytical approach are that first, evaluators have to consider each of the characteristics of the job separately before forming a conclusion about its relative value, and second, they are provided with defined yardsticks or guidelines that help to increase the objectivity and consistency of judgements. It can also provide a defence in the UK against an equal pay claim. The main analytical schemes as described below are point-factor rating, analytical matching and factor comparison.

Point-factor rating

Point-factor schemes are the most common forms of analytical job evaluation. They were used by 70 percent of the respondents to the e-reward 2007 job evaluation survey who had job evaluation schemes. The basic methodology is to break down jobs into factors. These are the elements in a job such as the level of responsibility, knowledge and skill or decision making that represent the demands made by the job on job holders. For job evaluation purposes it is assumed that each of the factors will contribute to the value of the job and is an aspect of all the jobs to be evaluated but to different degrees.

Each factor is divided into a hierarchy of levels. Definitions of these levels are produced to provide guidance on deciding the degree to which the factor applies in the job to be evaluated. Evaluators consult the role profile or job description, which should ideally analyse the role in terms of the scheme's factors. They then refer to the level definitions for each factor and decide which one best fits the job.

A maximum points score is allocated to each factor. The scores available may vary between different factors in accordance with beliefs about their relative significance. This is termed 'explicit weighting'. If the number of levels varies between factors this means that they are implicitly weighted because the range of scores available will be greater in the factors with more levels.

The total score for a factor is divided between the levels to produce the numerical factor scale. Progression may be arithmetic, e.g. 50, 100, 150, 200 and so on, or geometric, e.g. 50, 100, 175, 275. In the latter case, more scope is given to recognize senior jobs with higher scores.

The complete scheme consists of the factor and level definitions and the scoring system (the total score available for each factor and distributed to the factor levels). This comprises the 'factor plan'.

Jobs are 'scored' (i.e. allocated points) under each factor heading on the basis of the level of the factor in the job. This is done by comparing the features of the job with regard to that factor with the factor level definitions to find out which definition provides the best fit. The separate factor scores are then added together to give a total score that indicates the relative value of each job and can be used to place the jobs in rank order. An unweighted factor plan is illustrated in Table 9.1. In this example, the evaluations are asterisked and the total score would be 400 points.

Table 9.1 A factor plan

Factors	Levels and scores					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Expertise	20	40	60*	80	100	120
Decisions	20	40	60	80*	100	120
Autonomy	20	40	60	80*	100	120
Responsibility	20	40	60	80*	100	120
Interpersonal skills	20	40	60	80	100*	120

A point-factor scheme can be operated manually - a 'paper' scheme - or computers can be used to aid the evaluation process, as described later in this chapter.

Analytical job matching

Like point-factor job evaluation, analytical job matching is based on the analysis of a number of defined factors. There are two forms of analytical matching. One is role profile to grade/ level profile matching; the other is role profile to benchmark role profile.

In role to grade analytical matching, profiles of roles to be evaluated are matched to grade, band or level profiles. Reference is made to a grade structure incorporating the jobs covered by the evaluation scheme. This consists of a sequence or hierarchy of grades, bands or levels that have been defined analytically in terms of a set of factors that may correspond to the job evaluation factors in a point-factor scheme or a selection of them. They may also or alternatively refer to levels of competency and responsibility, especially in job and career family structures. Information on roles is obtained by questionnaires or interviews and role profiles are produced for the jobs to be evaluated under the same headings as the grade or level profiles. The role profiles are then 'matched' with the range of grade or level profiles to establish the best fit and thus grade the job.

In role to role analytical matching, role profiles for jobs to be evaluated are matched analytically with benchmark role profiles. A benchmark job is one that has already been graded as a result of an initial job evaluation exercise. It is used as a point of reference with

which other roles or jobs can be compared and valued. Thus, if role A has been evaluated and placed in grade 3 and there is a good fit between the factor profile of role B and that of role A, then role B will also be placed in grade 3. Roles are analysed against a common set of factors or elements. Generic role profiles, ie those covering a number of like roles, will be used for any class or cluster of roles with essentially the same range of responsibilities such as team leaders or personal assistants. Role to role matching may be combined with role to grade matching.

Analytical matching can be used to grade jobs or place them in levels following the initial evauation of a sufficiently large sample of benchmark jobs, ie representative jobs that can provide a valid basis for comparisons. This can happen in big organizations when it is believed that it is not necessary to go through the whole process of point-factor evaluation for every job, especially where 'generic' roles are concerned. When this follows a large job evaluation exercise such as the NHS, the factors used in analytical matching may be the same as those in the point- factor job evaluation scheme that underpins the analytical matching process and can be invoked to deal with difficult cases or appeals. In some matching schemes the number of factors may be simplified, for example the HERA scheme for higher education institutions clusters related factors together, reducing the number of factors from seven to four. However, analytical matching may not necessarily be underpinned by a point-factor evaluation scheme and this can save a lot of time in the design stage as well as when rolling out the scheme.

Factor comparison

The original factor comparison method compared jobs factor by factor using a scale of money values to provide a direct indication of the rate for the job. It was developed in the United States but is not used in the UK. The Hay Guide Chart Profile method (a 'proprietary brand' of job evaluation) is described by the Hay Group as a factor comparison scheme but, apart from this, the only form of factor comparison now in use is graduated factor comparison, which compares jobs factor by factor with a graduated scale. The scale may have only three value levels - for example lower, equal, higher - and no factor scores are used. This is a method often used by the independent experts engaged by employment tribunals to advise on an equal pay claim. Their job is simply to compare one job with one or two others, not to review internal relativities over the whole spectrum of jobs in order to produce a rank order.

Tailor-made, ready-made and hybrid schemes

Any of the schemes referred to above can be 'tailor-made' or 'home grown' in the sense that they are developed specifically by or for an organization, a group of organizations or a sector, e.g. further education establishments. The 2007 e-reward survey showed that only 20 per cent of the schemes were tailor-made. A number of management consultants offer their own 'ready- made' schemes or 'proprietary brands'. Consultants' schemes tend to be analytical (point-factor, factor comparison or matching) and may be linked to a market rate database. As many as 60 per cent of the respondents to the e-reward survey used these schemes.

Hybrid schemes are consultants' schemes that have been modified to fit the particular needs of an organization - 20 per cent of the e-reward respondents had such schemes. Typically, the modification consists of amendments to the factor plan or, in the case of Hay, to the Hay Guide Chart.

1.Non-analytical schemes

Non-analytical job evaluation schemes enable whole jobs to be compared in order to place them in a grade or a rank order - they are not analysed by reference to their elements or factors. They can stand alone or be used to help in the development of an analytical scheme. For example, the paired comparison technique described later can produce a rank order of jobs that can be used to test the outcomes of an evaluation using an analytical scheme. It is therefore helpful to know how non-analytical schemes function even if they are not used as the main scheme.

Non-analytical schemes operate on a job to job basis in which a job is compared with another job to decide whether it should be valued more, less, or the same (ranking and 'internal benchmarking' processes). Alternatively, they may function on a job to grade basis in which judgements are made by comparing a whole job with a defined hierarchy of job grades (job classification) - this involves matching a job description to a grade description. The e-reward 2007 survey showed that only 14 per cent of respondents' schemes were non-analytical.

Non-analytical schemes are relatively simple but rely more on subjective judgements than analytical schemes. Such judgements will not be guided by a factor plan and do not take account of the complexity of jobs. There is a danger therefore of leaping to conclusions about job values based on a priori assumptions that could be prejudiced.

There are four main types of non-analytical schemes: job classification, job ranking, paired comparison (a statistical version of ranking), and internal benchmarking.

2.Job classification

This approach is based on a definition of the number and characteristics of the levels or grades in a grade and pay structure into which jobs will be placed. The grade definitions may refer to such job characteristics as skill, decision making and responsibility but these are not analysed separately. Evaluation takes place by a process of non-analytical matching or 'job slotting'. This involves comparing a 'whole' job description, ie one not analysed into factors, with the grade definitions to establish the grade with which the job most closely corresponds. The difference between job classification and role to grade analytical matching as described above is that in the latter case, the grade profiles are defined analytically, ie in terms of job evaluation factors, and analytically defined role profiles are matched with them factor by factor. However, the distinction between analytical and non-analytical matching can be blurred when the comparison is made between formal job descriptions or role profiles that have been prepared in a standard format, which includes common headings for such aspects of jobs as levels of responsibility or knowledge and skill requirements. These 'factors' may not be compared specifically but will be taken into account when forming a judgement.

3.Job ranking

Whole-job ranking is the most primitive form of job evaluation. The process involves comparing whole jobs with one another and arranging them in order of their perceived value to the organization. In a sense, all evaluation schemes are ranking exercises because they place jobs in a hierarchy. The difference between simple ranking and analytical methods such as point-factor rating is that job ranking does not attempt to quantify judgements. Instead, whole jobs are compared - they are not broken down into factors or elements although, explicitly or implicitly, the comparison may be based on some generalized concept such as the level of responsibility. Job ranking or paired comparison ranking as described below is sometimes used as a check on the rank order obtained by point-factor rating.

3. Paired comparison ranking

Paired comparison ranking is a statistical technique used to provide a more sophisticated method of whole-job ranking. It is based on the assumption that it is always easier to compare one job with another than to consider a number of jobs and attempt to build up a rank order by multiple comparisons.

The technique requires the comparison of each job as a whole, separately, with every other job. If a job is considered to be of a higher value than the one with which it is being compared it receives two points; if it is thought to be equally important, it receives one point; if it is regarded as less important, no points are awarded. The scores are added for each job and a rank order is obtained.

Paired comparisons can be done factor by factor and in this case can be classified as analytical. A simplified example of a paired comparison ranking is shown in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2 A paired comparison

Job reference	a	b	c	d	e	f	Total score	Ranking
A	—	0	1	0	1	0	2	5=
B	2	-	2	2	2	0	8	2
C	1	0	-	1	1	0	3	4
D	2	0	1	-	2	0	5	3
E	1	0	1	0	-	0	2	5=
F	2	2	2	2	2	-	10	1

The advantage of paired comparison ranking over normal ranking is that it is easier to compare one job with another rather than having to make multiple comparisons. But it cannot overcome the fundamental objections to any form of whole-job ranking - that no defined standards for judging relative worth are provided and it is not an acceptable method of assessing equal value or comparable worth. There is also a limit to the number of jobs that can be compared using this method - to evaluate 50 jobs requires 1,225 comparisons. Paired comparisons are occasionally used analytically to compare jobs on a factor by factor basis.

Internal benchmarking

Internal benchmarking means comparing the job under review with any internal job that is believed to be properly graded and paid (an internal benchmark) and placing the job under consideration into the same grade as that job. It is what people often do intuitively when they are deciding on the value of jobs, although it is not usually dignified in job evaluation circles as a formal method of job evaluation. The comparison is made on a whole-job basis without analysing the jobs factor by factor. It can be classified as a formal method if there are specific procedures for preparing and setting out role profiles and for comparing profiles for the role to be evaluated with standard benchmark role profiles.

4.Market pricing

Market pricing is the process of obtaining information on market rates (market rate analysis) to inform decisions on pay structures and individual rates of pay. It is called 'extreme market pricing' when market rates are the sole means of deciding on internal rates of pay and relativities, and conventional job evaluation is not used. An organization that adopts this method is said to be 'market driven'. This approach has been widely adopted in the United States. It is associated with a belief that 'the market rules, ok', disillusionment with what was regarded as bureaucratic job evaluation, and the enthusiasm for broad-banded pay structures. It is a method that often has appeal at board level because of the focus on the need to compete in the marketplace for talent.

Market rate analysis as distinct from extreme market pricing may be associated with formal job evaluation. The latter establishes internal relativities and the grade structure, and market pricing is used to develop the pay structure - the pay ranges attached to grades. Information on market rates may lead to the introduction of market supplements for individual jobs or the creation of separate pay structures (market groups) to cater for particular market rate pressures.

The acceptability of either form of market pricing is dependent on the availability of robust market data and, when looking at external rates, the quality of the job to job matching process, ie comparing like with like. It can therefore vary from analysis of data by job titles to detailed matched analysis collected through bespoke surveys focused on real market equivalence. Extreme market pricing can provide guidance on internal relativities even if these are market driven.

Computer-aided job evaluation

Computer-aided job evaluation uses computer software to convert information about jobs into a job evaluation score or grade. It is generally underpinned by a conventional point-factor scheme. The 'proprietary brands' offered by consultants are often computer-aided. Computers may be used simply to maintain a database recording evaluations and their rationale. In the design stage they can provide guidance on weighting factors through

multiple regression analysis, although this technique has been largely discredited and is little used now.

Methodology

The software used in a fully computer-aided scheme essentially replicates in digital form the thought processes followed by evaluators when conducting a 'manual' evaluation. It is based on defined evaluation decision rules built into the system shell. The software typically provides a facility for consistency checks by, for example, highlighting scoring differences between the job being evaluated and other benchmark jobs.

The two types of computer-aided evaluation are: 1) Schemes in which the job analysis data is either entered direct into the computer or transferred to it from a paper questionnaire. The computer software applies predetermined rules to convert the data into scores for each factor and produce a total score. This is the most common approach. 2) Interactive computer-aided schemes in which the job holder and his or her manager sit in front of a PC and are presented with a series of logically interrelated questions, the answers to which lead to a score for each of the built-in factors in turn and a total score.

The case for computer-aided job evaluation

A computer-aided scheme can achieve greater consistency than when a panel of evaluators uses a paper scheme - with the help of the computer the same input information gives the same output result. It can also increase the speed of evaluations, reduce the resources required and provide facilities for sorting, analysing, reporting on the input information and system outputs and record keeping (database).

The case against computer-aided job evaluation

For some organizations the full approach is too expensive and elaborate for them to be bothered with it. Others do not want to abandon the involvement of employees and their representatives in the traditional panel approach. There is also the problem of transparency in some applications. This is sometimes called 'the black box effect' - those concerned have difficulty in understanding the logic that converts the input information to a factor level score. Interactive systems such as those offered by Pilat Consultants (Gauge) and Watson Wyatt aim to overcome this difficulty. It is perhaps for these reasons that less than half the respondents to the 2007 e-reward survey had computer-aided schemes and over half of those used computers simply to maintain job evaluation records.

Choice of approach

The fundamental choice is between using formal or informal methods of valuing roles. This may not be a conscious decision. A company may use informal methods simply because that's what it has always done and because it never occurs to its management that there is an alternative. But it may decide deliberately that an informal or semi-formal approach fits its circumstances best. The advantages and disadvantages of each approach are summarized in Table 9.3. These need to be examined in the light of criteria for choice such as those set out below and compared with the objectives of the scheme and the context in which it will be used.

Criteria for choice

Thorough in analysis and capable of impartial application - the scheme should have been carefully constructed to ensure that its methodology is sound and appropriate in terms of all the jobs it has to cater for. It should also have been tested and trialled to check that it can be applied impartially to those jobs.

- ✓ Appropriate - it should cater for the particular demands made on all the jobs to be covered by the scheme.
- ✓ Comprehensive - the scheme should be applicable to all the jobs in the organization covering all categories of staff and, if factors are used, they should be common to all those jobs. There should therefore be a single scheme that can be used to assess relativities across different occupations or job families and to enable benchmarking to take place as required.
- ✓ Transparent - the processes used in the scheme from the initial role analysis through to the grading decision should be clear to all concerned. If computers are used, information should not be perceived as being processed in a 'black box'.
- ✓ Non-discriminatory - the scheme should meet equal pay for work of equal value requirements.
- ✓ Ease of administration - the scheme should not be too complex or time-consuming to design or implement.

The decision may be to use one approach, for example point-factor rating or analytical matching. But an increasing number of organizations are combining the two: using point-factor rating to evaluate a representative sample of benchmark jobs (i.e. jobs that can be used as points of comparison for other jobs) and, to save time and trouble, evaluating the remaining jobs by means of analytical matching.

Making the choice

The overwhelming preference for analytical schemes shown by the e-reward 2007 survey suggests that the choice is fairly obvious. The advantages of using a recognized analytical approach that satisfies equal value requirements appear to be overwhelming. Point-factor schemes were used by 70 per cent of those respondents and others used analytical matching, often in conjunction with the points scheme.

There is something to be said for adopting point-factor methodology as the main scheme but using analytical matching in a supporting role to deal with large numbers of generic roles not covered in the original benchmarking exercise. Analytical matching can be used to allocate generic roles to grades as part of the normal job evaluation operating procedure to avoid having to resort to job evaluation in every case. The tendency in many organizations is to assign to job evaluation a supporting role of this nature rather than allowing it to dominate all grading decisions and thus involve the expenditure of much time and energy.

Table 9.3 Comparison of different job evaluation methods

Scheme	Characteristics	Advantages	Disadvantages
Point- factor rating	An analytical approach in which separate factors are scored and added together to produce a total score for the job that can be used for comparison and grading purposes	As long as it is based on proper job analysis, point-factor schemes provide evaluators with defined yardsticks that help to increase the objectivity and consistency of judgements and reduce the over-simplified judgement made in non-analytical job evaluation. They provide a defence against equal value claims as long as they are not in themselves discriminatory	Can be complex and give a spurious impression of scientific accuracy - judgement is still needed in scoring jobs. Not easy to amend the scheme as circumstances, priorities or values change
Analytical matching	Grade profiles are produced that define the characteristics of jobs in each grade in a grade structure in terms of a selection of defined factors. Role profiles are produced for the jobs to be evaluated set out on the basis of analysis under the same factor headings as the grade profiles. Role profiles are 'matched' with the range of grade profiles to establish the best fit and thus grade the job	If the matching process is truly analytical and carried out with great care, this approach saves time by enabling the evaluation of a large number of jobs, especially generic ones, to be conducted quickly and in a way that should satisfy equal value requirements	The matching process could be more superficial and therefore suspect than evaluation through a point- factor scheme. In the latter approach there are factor level definitions to guide judgements and the resulting scores provide a basis for ranking and grade design, which is not the case with analytical matching. Although matching on this basis may be claimed to be analytical, it might be difficult to prove this in an equal value case

Job classification	Non-analytical - grades are defined in a structure in terms of the level of responsibilities involved in a hierarchy. Jobs are allocated to grades by matching the job description with the grade description (job slotting)	Simple to operate; standards of judgement when making comparisons are provided in the shape of the grade definitions	Can be difficult to fit complex jobs into a grade without using over-elaborate grade definitions; the definitions tend to be so generalized that they are not much help in evaluating borderline cases or making comparisons between individual jobs; does not provide a defence in an equal value case
Combined approach	Point-factor rating is used to evaluate benchmark posts and design the grade structure, and the remaining posts are graded either by analytical matching or job classification	Combines the advantages of both methods	Can be more complex to explain and administer. If job classification is used rather than analytical matching the disadvantages set out above apply, so there may be more of a need to revert to the full point-factor scheme in the event of disagreement
Ranking	Non-analytical - whole job comparisons are made to place them in rank order	Easy to apply and understand	No defined standards of judgement; differences between jobs not measured; does not provide a defence in an equal value case
Internal benchmarking	Jobs or roles are compared with benchmark jobs that have been allocated into grades on the basis of ranking or job classification and placed in whatever grade provides the closest match of jobs. The job descriptions may be analytical in the sense that they cover a number of standard and defined elements	Simple to operate; facilitates direct comparisons, especially when the jobs have been analysed in terms of a set of common criteria	Relies on a considerable amount of judgement and may simply perpetuate existing relativities; dependent on accurate job/role analysis; may not provide a defence in an equal value case

5. Designing an analytical point-factor job evaluation scheme

The process of designing a point-factor job evaluation scheme is demanding and time-consuming, as stressed by Armstrong and Cummins (2008). The design and process criteria and the design and implementation programme are considered below.

Design and process criteria

It is necessary to distinguish between the design of a scheme and the process of operating it in accordance with the principles set out below. Equal pay considerations have to be taken into account in both design and process.

Design principles

- The scheme should be based on a thorough analysis of the jobs to be covered and the types of demands made on those jobs to determine what factors are appropriate.
- The scheme should facilitate impartial judgements of relative job size.
- The factors used in the scheme should cover the whole range of jobs to be evaluated at all levels without favouring any particular type of job or occupation and without discriminating on the grounds of sex, race, disability or for any other reason - the scheme should fairly measure features of female-dominated jobs as well as male-dominated jobs.
- Through the use of common factors and methods of analysis and evaluation, the scheme should enable benchmarking to take place of the relativities between jobs in different functions or job families.
- The factors should be clearly defined and differentiated - there should be no double counting.
- The levels should be defined and graduated carefully.
- Sex bias must be avoided in the choice of factors, the wording of factor and level definitions and the factor weightings - checks should be carried out to identify any bias.

Process principles

- The scheme should be transparent; everyone concerned should know how it works - the basis upon which the evaluations are produced.
- Appropriate proportions of women, those from ethnic minorities and people with disabilities should be involved in the process of developing and applying job evaluation.
- The quality of role analysis should be monitored to ensure that analyses produce accurate and relevant information that will inform the job evaluation process and will not be biased.
- Consistency checks should be built into operating procedures.
- The outcomes of evaluations should be examined to ensure that sex or any other form of bias has not occurred.
- Particular care is necessary to ensure that the outcomes of job evaluation do not simply replicate the existing hierarchy - it is to be expected that a job evaluation exercise will challenge present relativities.

- All those involved in role analysis and job evaluation should be thoroughly trained in the operation of the scheme and in how to avoid bias.
- Special care should be taken in developing a grade structure following a job evaluation exercise to ensure that grade boundaries are placed appropriately and that the allocation of jobs to grades is not in itself discriminatory.
- There should be scope for the review of evaluations and for appeals against gradings.
- The scheme should be monitored to ensure that it is being operated properly and that it is still fit for its purpose.

The design and implementation programme

The design and implementation of a point-factor job evaluation scheme can be a time-consuming affair. In a large organization it can take two years or more to complete a project. Even in a small organization it can take several months. Many organizations seek outside help from management consultants or ACAS in conducting the programme. An example of a programme is given in Figure 9.1.

Activity	Month 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24
1 Prepare initial factor plan	
2 Test initial factor plan	
3 Prepare final factor plan	
4 Test final factor plan	
5 Computerize	
6 Test computerized version	
7 Evaluate benchmark jobs	
8 Conduct market rate survey	
9 Design grade and pay structure	
10 Evaluate remaining jobs	
11 Define operating procedures	
12 Implement	

Figure 9.1 - A typical job evaluation programme

Activities 1 to 6 form the initial design phase and activities 7 to 12 form the application of the design and implementation phases. Full descriptions of these phases follow.

The scheme design programme

Figure 9.2 shows the steps required to design a point-factor job evaluation scheme.

Step 1. Decide to develop scheme

The decision to develop a new point-factor job evaluation scheme follows an analysis of the existing arrangements, if any, for job evaluation, and a diagnosis of any problems.

Step 2. Prepare detailed project programme

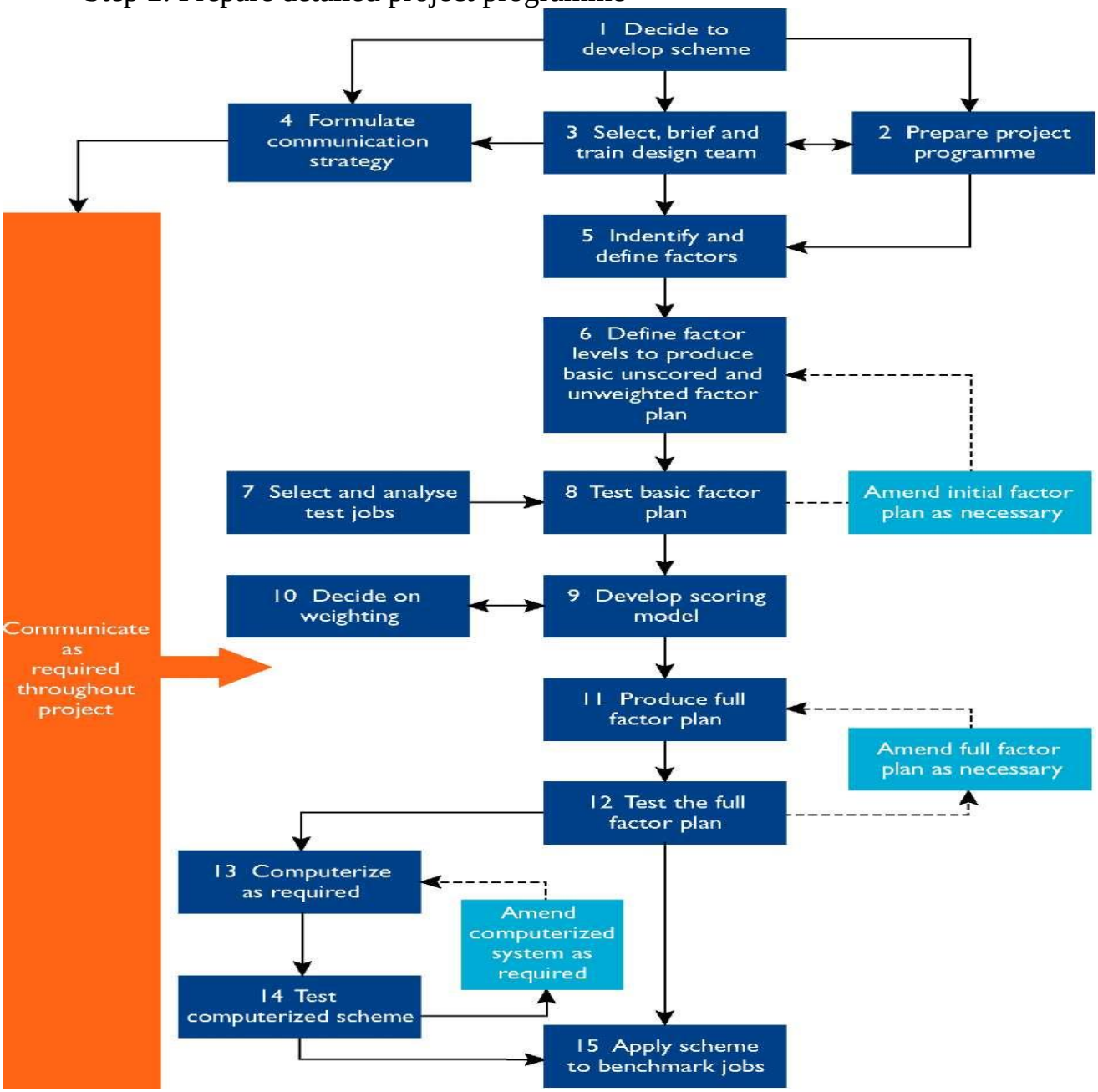


Figure 9.2 Point-factor job evaluation scheme design sequence

The detailed project programme could be set out in a chart as illustrated in Table 9.1.

Step 3. Select, brief and train design team

The composition of the design team should have been determined broadly at Step 1. Members are usually nominated by management and the staff or union(s) (if they exist). It is very desirable to have a representative number of women and men and the major ethnic groups employed in the organization. It is also necessary to appoint a facilitator.

Step 4. Formulate communication strategy

It is essential to have a communication strategy. The introduction of a new job evaluation will always create expectations. Some people think that they will

inevitably benefit from pay increases; others believe that they are sure to lose money. It has to be explained carefully, and repeatedly, that no one should expect to get more and that no one will lose. The strategy should include a preliminary communication setting out what is proposed and why and how people will be affected. Progress reports should be made at milestones throughout the programme, for example when the factor plan has been devised. A final communication should describe the new grade and pay structure and spell out exactly what is to happen to people when the structure is introduced.

Step 5. Identify and define factors

Job evaluation factors are the characteristics or key elements of jobs that are used to analyse and evaluate jobs in an analytical job evaluation scheme. The factors must be capable of identifying relevant and important differences between jobs that will support the creation of a rank order of jobs to be covered by the scheme. They should apply equally well to different types of work including specialists and generalists, lower level and higher level jobs, and not be biased in favour of one sex or group. Although many of the job evaluation factors used across organizations capture similar job elements (this is an area where there are some enduring truths), the task of identifying and agreeing factors can be challenging. The e-reward survey (2007) established that the 10 most frequently used factors in tailor-made analytical schemes, in rank order, were as follows.

The 10 most frequently used factors in tailor-made analytical schemes in rank order, e-reward survey:

Knowledge and skills.

Responsibility.

Problem solving.

Decision making.

People management.

Relationships/contacts.

Working conditions.

Mental effort.

Impact.

Creativity.

Step 6. Define factor levels to produce the basic factor plan

The factor plan is the key job evaluation document. It guides evaluators on making decisions about the levels. The basic factor plan defines the levels within each of the selected factors. A decision has to be made on the number of levels (often five, six or seven), which has to reflect the range of responsibilities and demands in the jobs covered by the scheme.

Step 7. Select and analyse test jobs

A small representative sample of jobs should be identified to test the scheme. A typical proportion would be about 10 per cent of the jobs to be covered. These are then analysed in terms of the factors.

Step 8. Test basic factor plan

The factors forming the basic factor plan are tested by the design team on a representative sample of jobs. The aim of this initial test is to check on the extent to which the factors are appropriate, cover all aspects of the jobs to be evaluated, are non-discriminatory, avoid double counting and are not compressed unduly. A check is also made on level definitions to ensure that they are worded clearly, graduated properly and cover the whole range of demands applicable to the jobs to be evaluated so that they enable consistent evaluations to be made.

Step 9. Develop scoring model

The aim is to design a point-factor scheme that will operate fairly and consistently to produce a rank order of jobs, based on the total points score for each job. Each level in the factor plan has to be allocated a points value so that there is a scoring progression from the lowest to the highest level.

Step 10. Decide on the factor weighting

Weighting is the process of attaching more importance to some factors. Explicit weighting takes place in a point-factor scheme when the maximum points available for what are regarded as more important factors are increased. Implicit weighting takes place when some factors have more levels than others but the same scoring progression per level exists as in the other factors.

Step 11. Prepare full factor plan

The outcome of Steps 9 and 10 is the full scored and weighted factor plan, which is tested in Step 12.

Step 12. Test the full factor plan

The full factor plan incorporating a scoring scheme and either explicit or implicit weighting is tested on the same jobs used in the initial test of the draft factors. Further jobs may be added to extend the range of the test.

Step 13. Computerize

The steps set out above will produce a paper-based scheme and this is still the most popular approach. The e-reward survey found that only 28 per cent of respondents with job evaluation schemes used computers to aid evaluation. But full computerization can offer many advantages including greater consistency, speed and the elimination of much of the paper work. There is also the possibility of using computers to help manage and support the process without using computers as a substitute for grading design teams.

Computer-aided schemes use the software provided by suppliers but the system itself is derived from the paper-based scheme devised by the methods set out above.

No job evaluation design team is required to conduct evaluations but it is necessary to set up a review panel that can validate and agree the outcomes of the computerized process. No one likes to feel that a decision about their grade has been made by a computer on its own and hard lessons have been learnt by organizations that have ended up with fully automated but discriminatory systems.

Step 14. Test the computerized scheme

The computerized scheme is tested to ensure that it delivers an acceptable rank order.

Step 15. Apply and implement

When the final design of the paper or computerized scheme has been tested and shown as satisfactory, the application and implementation programme can begin. This involves the evaluation of a representative sample of benchmark jobs followed by the evaluation of the remaining jobs.

Designing an analytical matching job evaluation scheme

The sequence of actions required to design an analytical matching scheme is shown in Figure 9.3. These may follow the development of a point-factor scheme, the factors in which would be used in the matching process.

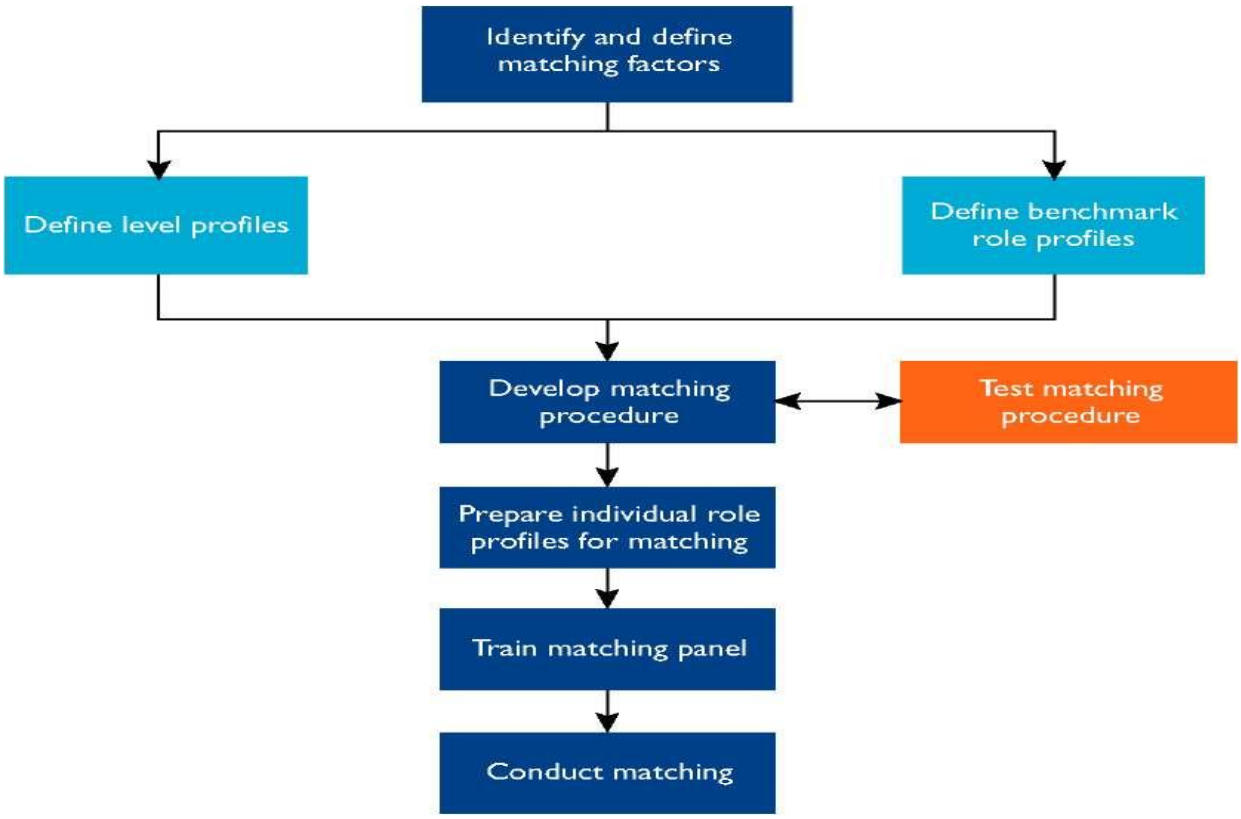


Figure 9.3 Analytical matching job evaluation scheme design sequence

1. *Why Work in Groups?*
2. *Writing Tasks Suited to Group Work*
3. *Fact and Fiction: Common Fears about Group Work*

Working in a group can be enjoyable or frustrating--sometimes both. The best way to ensure a good working experience in groups is to think hard about whether a project is best done in a group, and, if so, to have a clear set of expectations about group work.

1. Why Work in Groups?

You might choose to work or write a paper in a group rather than individually for many reasons. Some of the reasons include practical experience while others highlight why group work might provide a better learning experience:

In group work, you can draw on each group member's knowledge and perspectives, frequently giving you a more well thought out paper at the end or a better understanding of the class material for exams, labs, etc.

You can also draw on people's different strengths. For example, you might be a great proofreader while someone else is much better at organizing papers.

Groups are great for motivation: they force you to be responsible to others and frequently, then, do more and better work on a project than you might when only responsible to yourself.

Group work helps keep you on task. It's harder to procrastinate when working with others.

Working in groups, especially writing texts together, mirrors working styles common outside school. In business, industry, and research organizations, collaborative work is the norm rather than the exception.

2. Writing Tasks Suited to Group Work

Although any piece of writing can be group-authored, some types of writing simply "make more sense" to be written in groups or are ideal for cutting down on certain aspects of the work load.

Whether you've chosen to do a group project or have been assigned to work together, any group works better if all members know the reason why more than one person is involved in writing the paper. Understanding what a group adds to the project helps alleviate some of the problems associated with group work, such as thinking you need to do it all yourself. While not exhaustive, the following are some of the types of papers that are typically better written when worked on in groups. To read more, choose any of the items below:

Papers Requiring "Original" Research

Whenever you have a paper that requires you to observe things, interview other experts, conduct surveys, or do any other kind of "field" research, having more than one person to divide these tasks among allows you to write a more thoroughly

researched paper. Also, because these kinds of sources are frequently hard to "make sense" of, having more than one perspective on what you find is a great help in deciding how to use the information in a paper. For example, having more than one person observe the same thing frequently gives you two different perspectives on what happened.

Papers Requiring Library Research

Although most of us might be satisfied with two or three sources in a research paper using written sources, instructors usually expect more. Working with multiple people allows you to break up library tasks more easily and do a more thorough search for relevant material. For example, one person can check Internet sources, another might have to check a certain database in the library (like SAGE) while another works on a different database more specific to your topic (e.g. ERIC for education, MLA for literature, etc.). Also, the diversity of perspectives in a group helps you decide which sources are most relevant for your argument and audience.

Any Type of Argument

Arguments, by their very nature, involve having a good sense of audience, including audiences that may not agree with you. Imagining all the possible reactions to your audience is a difficult task with these types of papers. The diversity of perspectives and experiences of multiple people are a great advantage here. This is particularly true of "public" issues which affect many people because it is easy to assume your perspective on what the public thinks is "right" as opposed to being subject to your own, limited experience. This is equally true of more "academic" arguments because each member of a group might have a different sense, depending on their past course work and field experience, of what a disciplinary audience is expecting and what has already been said about a topic.

Interpretations

A paper that requires some type of interpretation--of literature, a design structure, a piece of art, etc.--always includes various perspectives, whether it be the historical perspective of the piece, the context of the city in which a landscape is designed, or the perspective of the interpreter. Given how important perspective is to this type of writing and thinking, reviewing or interpreting work from a variety of perspectives helps strengthen these papers. Such variety is a normal part of group work but much harder to get at individually.

Cultural Analyses

Any analysis of something cultural, whether it be from an anthropological perspective, a political science view of a public issue, or an analysis of a popular film, involves a "reading" or interpretation of the culture's context as well. However, context is never simply one thing and can be "read", much like a poem, in many ways. Having a variety of "eyes" to analyze a cultural scene, then, gives your group an advantage over single-authored papers that may be more limited.

Lab/Field Reports

Any type of experiment or field research involving observation and/or interpretation of data can benefit from multiple participants. More observers help lessen the work load and provide more data from a single observation which can lead

to better, or even more objective, interpretations. For these reasons, much work in science is collaborative.

Any Type of Evaluation

An evaluation paper, such as reviews, critiques, or case reports, implies the ability to make and defend a judgment. judgments, as we all know, can be very idiosyncratic when only one person interprets the data or object at hand. As a result, performing an evaluation in a group allows you to gain multiple perspectives, challenge each other's ideas and assumptions, and thus defend a judgment that may not be as subject to bias.

Fact and Fiction: Common Fears about Group Work

Group work can be a frightening prospect for many people, especially in a school setting when so much of what we do is only "counted" (i.e. graded) if it's been completed individually. Some of these fears are fictions, but others are well founded and can be addressed by being careful about how group work is set up.

3. Fact and Fiction: Common Fears about Group Work

My individual ideas will be lost: Fact or Fiction? — Both.

In any group, no one's ideas count more than another's; as a result, you will not always get a given idea into a paper exactly as you originally thought it. However, getting your ideas challenged and changed is the very reason to do a group project. The key is to avoid losing your ideas entirely (i.e. being silenced in a group) without trying to control the group and silencing others.

Encourage Disagreement

It's okay to argue. Only through arguing with other members can you test the strength of not only others' ideas but also your own. Just be careful to keep the disagreement on the issue, not on personalities.

Encourage a Collaborative Attitude

No paper, even if you write it alone, is solely a reflection of your own ideas; the paper includes ideas you've gotten from class, from reading, from research. Think of your group members, and encourage them to think of you, as yet another source of knowledge.

Be Ready to Compromise

Look for ways in which differing ideas might be used to come up with a "new" idea that includes parts of both. It's okay to "stick to your guns," but remember everyone gives up a little in a group interaction. You must determine when you're willing to bend and when you're not.

Consider Including the Disagreement in the Paper

Depending on the type of paper you're writing, it's frequently okay to include more than one "right" answer by showing both are supportable with available evidence. In fact, papers which present disagreement without resolutions can sometimes be better than those that argue for only one solution or point of view.

I could write it better myself: Fact or Fiction?

— Usually Both.

Even if you are an excellent writer, collaboratively written papers are usually better than a single-authored one if for no other reason than the content is better: it is better researched, more well thought out, includes more perspectives, etc. The only time this is not true is if you've chosen to group-author a paper that does not need collaboration. However, writing a good final draft of a collaboratively written paper does take work that all group members should be prepared to do.

Divide the Writing Tasks

While everyone is not necessarily a great writer in all aspects, they usually know what they do well. Someone may be great at organizing but not be a good proofreader. Someone else might be great using vivid language, but lose their writing focus. Have group members write what they're best at and/or ask them to read the first draft for specific things they know well.

Leave Enough Time for Revising

First drafts of collaborative papers are frequently much worse than first drafts of individual papers because many disagreements are still being worked out when writing. Leave yourselves, then, a lot of time to critique the first draft and rewrite it.

Divide the Paper into Sections

People in your group may know a lot more about certain topics in the paper because they did the research for that section or may have more experience writing, say, a methods section than others. To get a good first draft going, divide tasks up according to what people feel the most comfortable with. Be sure, however, to do a lot of peer review as well.

Be Critical

One of the advantages of group work is you learn to read your own and others' writing more critically. Since this is your work too, don't be afraid to suggest and make changes on parts of the paper, even if you didn't write them in the drafting process. Every section, including yours, belongs to everyone in the group.

My grade will depend on what others do: Fact or Fiction?— Fact.

Although some instructors make provisions for individual grades even on a collaborative project, the fact remains that at least a part, if not the whole grade will depend on what others do. Although this may be frightening, the positive side to this is that it increases people's motivation and investment in the project. Of course, not everyone will care about grades as much as others. In this case, the group needs to make decisions early on for the "slacker" contingency.

Make Rules and Stick to Them

Before you even start work on a project, make rules about what will happen to those members not doing their part and outline the consequences. Here are some possible "consequences" other groups have used:

If someone misses a meeting, or doesn't do a certain task, he/she has to type the final paper, buy pizza for the next meeting, etc.

If more than one meeting is missed or a member consistently fails to do what she/he is supposed to, the group can decide not to include that name on the project. (Check this one with your instructor)

In the same scenario, the group can decide to write a written evaluation of the member's work and pass it in to the instructor with the paper.

Speak Up

No one, usually, wants to anger their peers. When someone isn't doing his/her work, other group members need to tell that member. Many times people who end up doing more than their share do so because they don't complain.

Deal with It

This may sound harsh, but the reality of life outside of school is that some people do more work than others but are not necessarily penalized for it. You need to learn how to deal with these issues given that in the working world, you are frequently dependent on others you work with. Learning how to handle such situations now is a good learning experience in itself.

I don't have time to meet out of class: Fact or Fiction?— Sometimes a fact.

Most of us, even if we're very busy, can find two hours to meet with a group. The key is having those two hours in common with other people, which is why, when forming a group, time in common is the first thing to consider. If you are assigned a group, however, this may not be possible. In this case, consider alternative ways of meeting: telephone, e-mail, meetings with some group members, etc.

E-mail

Everyone on campus can get an e-mail account. You can work on much of the logistical (who needs to do what when) work of a group through e-mail communication. This is also a good way to exchange drafts of the paper, with each person making revisions when the draft gets to them. Or, it can serve as a way to send your "section" before you have a complete draft and/or to exchange research notes. It's not as useful for hashing out ideas or coming up with your thesis for the paper, however.

Partial Meetings

Meet in two different groups, with one person in common. Take good notes so that one person can communicate what you decided/talked about to the next group. This can work until the "final" decision stage of what the focus of the paper will be and the final changes to the draft. For these, you'll need probably to meet at least once (for the decision making) or pass the draft around continuously until everyone is ready to sign off on it.

Weekend Meetings

No one loves this option, but if you have no other free time together, you might be able to find a Sunday morning or Friday night when everyone can meet for the one or two meetings that seem as if they must be face-to-face.

I would learn more doing it on my own: Fact or Fiction?— Fiction.

While this may seem true because you'd have to do all the work, group work usually allows you to include more research than you could alone, exposes you to perspectives you wouldn't hear otherwise, and teaches you about your own writing strengths and weaknesses in ways writing alone and just getting a response never can. Thus, in group work, you learn more about writing itself, and, if done right, the topic as well.

I'll end up doing all the work: Fact or Fiction?— Fiction.

Unless you are unwilling to give up control or speak up for yourself, this shouldn't happen. Although the reality is that some people will try to get away with doing less, the chances of having a completely uncommitted group are rare. As a result, you simply have to watch for the tendency to think you "know better" than others and thus must do it all yourself and/or the attitude that your grade will suffer because everything isn't done the way you want it.

Just remember these simple guidelines:

Make Rules and Stick to Them.

Speak Up.

Divide the Writing Tasks.

Be Critical.