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**Policy Failures and Declining Agriculture in Africa:
A Historical Perspective of the Differential Impact of Rational and Irrational Policy on
Agriculture and the Improving Signs for the Future**

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Abstract

Africa², the continent with a recent past as a respected farm-gate for some of the world's reputed factories now struggles to survive from the same land that brought bountiful harvests yesterday. It all started in the second half of the twentieth century as independence came to splintered territories delivering half-conscious nations, day one, into a highly competitive, albeit guarded, global economic system. In the immediate years following, it was nigh impossible for nearly all these emerging governments to maintain the same stable policy regime that had been the hallmark of colonial-era cash crop farming successes in the previous half century, and more. This paper navigates the history of agricultural policy shifts in Africa and concludes that inexperience, wrong ideology and a debilitating absence of resolve for effective policy formulation took hold of newly-independent countries and has persisted through the years. The phenomenon threatens exposure of the continent's agriculture to unprecedented challenges: aging farm population, rural-urban population drift, global warming, desertification, etc.

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² In this paper references to *Africa* will directly imply sub-Sahara Africa, excluding the Republic of South Africa

Introduction

In the immediate years following independence it was nigh impossible for most of the new nations of Africa to maintain the kind of stable policy regime that had been the hallmark of the continent's cash crop farming successes of the previous half century, or more. Some, like the French territories, had an easy passage having acquiesced to an umbilical cord arrangement that merely transformed them from 'colony' to 'region' of the colonial country, with some rights and privileges of citizenship. Others, like the English territories, experienced traumatic severance that threw most back into the dark days of tribal fiefdoms and parochial strife leading, unfortunately in some cases, to civil wars. As instability crawled in and farm productivity plummeted, rural poverty rose and a disturbing rural-urban drift of population ensued. The story is a mixed bag of failures and successes from one country to another.

Diagnosis

In west and central Africa cash crops like groundnut, cocoa, and oil palm have done well and have been great exports bringing employment and relative wealth to millions of farmers and others far beyond the farm-gate; of the three crops the first to fail was *groundnut*. It is often said that while Egypt was famous for its hewed-rock pyramids, the Northern Nigerian city of Kano was famous for its magnificent groundnut pyramids. Kano's pyramids existed during the agricultural boom years of the colonial era and immediate post-colonial period. In 1964 six African countries Nigeria, Senegal, Mali, Niger, Sudan and The Gambia came together under the then OAU to form a common ground for the production, export, promotion and research in groundnuts in Africa³. This was before the onset of

Nigeria's crude oil economy and the catastrophic drought that gripped the Sahel-Savanna region from the late 1960s. As soon as *crude oil* appeared the Kano pyramids disappeared due, obviously, to the absence of a protective policy and a loss of commitment on the part of Nigeria towards the regional body⁴. It is worth commenting that while Nigeria turned to crude oil, Sudan got embroiled in civil war and the other countries in the Council were left to sustain the regional production and export. The results have been unimpressive. The crop is the third highest export of Senegal yet a recent report found farmers in the Kaolack region, the groundnut-producing area, complaining about a lack of technical assistance and the poor quality of seeds⁵.

A similar fate befell the *oil palm* which originated in West Africa but lost its economic potential to South East Asia. Again, Nigeria was for decades the leading producer until 1995 when Malaysia outstripped her to become the world's largest producer with 51% of world production, exporting more than 13 million metric tons worth nearly \$10 billion in 2007. Since 2007, however, Indonesia has emerged the world's largest producer with approximately 50% of world volume. Worldwide production during the 2005-2006 growing season was 39.8 million metric tons making it, by far, the most widely-produced edible oil accounting for 30 percent of total edible oil production worldwide. Governmental complacency resulted in Nigeria, and the sub-region at large, losing out to the relatively new South East Asian competition. Today, West Africa's combined production - from Nigeria, Ghana,

³ The African Groundnut Council

⁴ Paper titled 'Why Groundnut Pyramid may not resurface soon' by Hassan A Karofi, in the Daily Trust newspaper of 09 March 2009.

⁵ International Press Service, November 2009

Cameroon, Central Africa and Ivory Coast - is barely 15 percent.

About the only major cash crop in West Africa that did not suffer the kind of dramatic, albeit pathetic, loss of fortune to yield leadership to distant territories was *cocoa*. Perhaps, the good report had to do with the fact that Nigeria was not the lead producer; that enviable position has variously belonged to Ghana. At independence in 1957, the cocoa industry in Ghana passed into a new phase whereby government took control of the overseas marketing activity and only partially reserved some activities including cultivation, farm-gate purchases, collection-to-depots, and haulage-to-port to the private sector. The merits or otherwise of this policy has been variously debated over the years; supporters claim that the previous arrangement unduly benefitted *middlemen* and opponents point at the unwieldy, costly and inefficient monopolistic policy. Interestingly, Ivory Coast has maintained a free market system - the exact opposite of Ghana's - and has managed through the years to achieve remarkable performances, often producing and exporting more than Ghana. The evidence suggests that between the two countries Ghana has had a more checkered ride with its centralized marketing policy. Somehow, the two countries have managed to keep global leadership in the sub-region.

The known agricultural products of East Africa are tea, coffee, grains and animals. *Tea* in Kenya has been a success story despite decades of harsh competition from Asia; and this is to be credited, mainly, to the existence of an effective grower and marketing policy in the country. For example, the primary goal of the Tea Board of Kenya is '*to promote the efficient production and marketing of high quality*

tea to the domestic and international markets' and it has diligently pursued this policy goal over the years and, unlike the case with Ghana's Cocoa Marketing Board, there has been no monopoly in the cultivation, purchasing and exporting of tea. Indeed, it is gratifying to note that the small-holder tea grower sector managed by the Kenya Tea Development Agency has relied on the free marketing policy in place to record phenomenal successes. The story is different with *coffee* in Ethiopia. History has it that Ethiopia was the first to recognize the value of and cultivate coffee and, while it is still the leading producer and exporter in Africa, the country has slipped on the world export list and the debate is whether Ethiopia could do better on the world stage with more flexible land tenure and marketing policies.

Animal farming in sub-Saharan Africa has consisted, mainly, of nomadic tribes travelling across regions in search of water and pasture for their large, often mixed herds of cattle, sheep and goats. Because of the frequent movement, formulating policy to provide incentives regarding water and pasture for the animals has been very difficult, if not impossible. The nomadic culture notwithstanding, Africa ranks an important export-source of live animals to the Middle East - a market largely cornered by Australia and New Zealand and estimated to be well over US\$350 billion - from countries of eastern and southern Africa led, for many years in the past, by Zimbabwe. Unfortunately, the policy regime that made Zimbabwe such a global meat and dairy products export giant suffered a cataclysmic seizure after independence in 1980 from which it is struggling to recover. In a recent [2009] address to COMESA⁶, the Zambian Vice President Lupando Mwape underscored the crucial importance of live

⁶ Common Market of East and Southern Africa

animal export and spoke of the need to address issues of disease control, cross-border facilitation of livestock movement and quality of livestock so as to take advantage of the region's proximity to export to the Middle East. Indeed, there are indications of Middle Eastern importers already collaborating with landowners in east and southern Africa to produce for export with Ethiopia and Kenya benefiting much from that sort of arrangement.

Grain production has also been a victim of poor agricultural management across the continent. East and southern Africa has, without doubt, been the premier grain production belt and Zimbabwe was once dubbed the grain [mostly maize] basket of southern Africa because it produced so much for home consumption and exported to sustain its neighbours. That, of course, was when the country had a stable agricultural policy. Since independence in 1980, the country has seen its maize output fall consistently from a record high of 2 million metric tons before then to a record low of 0.58 million metric tons in 2007/08. That year humanitarian organizations had to provide emergency food assistance to about seven million people. Fortunately, there are significant signs that agricultural output may be inching slowly towards recovery due, perhaps, to the easing of political tensions and changing marketing dynamics⁷.

The Scorecard

The scorecard points inexorably to one of three states of being: *1. the presence of policy, 2. the absence of policy, 3. the presence of wrong policy*. In the case of Nigeria, the promise of massive crude oil

⁷ A US Department of Agriculture's Foreign Agriculture Service (FAS) satellite data source: predicted a slight increase in maize yield per hectare for 2008/9 harvest season.

revenues overshadowed the agricultural sector and governments – federal, state and local – failed to recognize the need to put in place a protective policy to sustain activity in groundnuts and oil palm [2]. In Ghana, the post colonial socialist government shut the open marketing system and replaced it with a monopolistic one aimed, ostensibly, at putting government in charge [3]. The new policy had some negative consequences including the fact that it encouraged farmers to smuggle their produce across the border to Ivory Coast where the price was invariably higher; the reason often cited for the few seasons Ivory Coast *produced* and exported more cocoa than Ghana.

The case of Zimbabwe is, particularly, poignant because of the clarity between pre- and post-independent periods regarding how agriculture has fared. The period up to 1980 was successful because the country enjoyed social stability and agriculture benefited immensely from positive government policy which ensured incentives and supported free enterprise [1]; the latter period saw a deliberate dismantling of structures and abrogation of existing policy [2] to dabbling for policy [3]. The relative economic success with coffee in Ethiopia is more likely due to the nationwide love for the bean rather than anything entrepreneurial. The Ethiopian Coffee Marketing Board is, like its Ghanaian counterpart, a centralized agency riddled with the usual inefficiencies of monopoly organizations [3]. It must be said, though, that the agricultural policy of Ethiopia is beginning to open up as evidenced by the new and fast expanding fresh flower farming and export industry which is fully controlled by the private sector.

What Happened

How did a continent with a massive agricultural potential slide into the path of

begging for and importing food? The answer, invariably, lies in the lack of deliberate and focused policy as a catalyst for driving agriculture. The search for *sustainable agricultural policy* leads to certain basic questions:

- Was colonial agricultural policy a viable inheritance?
- Has a dangerous population dynamic crept silently on Africa?
- Is climate fueling conflicts and undermining policy formulation?
- Can traditional agrarian culture be accommodated in modern policy?
- Should *Africa* be the focus of the continent's agricultural marketing policy?
- Where are the indigenous entrepreneurs?

Policy Transitions

The colonial era was, undoubtedly, the formative age of commercial agriculture in Africa. It was a period of unprecedented agricultural expansion in response to a policy that was deliberately designed to facilitate delivery of produce to factories in Europe, America, etc. The policy, though effective from the standpoint of free enterprise philosophy and open market orientation, nevertheless was myopic and fell short on addressing long term sustainability of the sector. For instance, instead of a railway network there was only a single line to a location and territory that contained desired produce for easy transport to the seaport. The policy was demand-driven and could only be sustained if the supply-side remained capable of responding to the changed dynamics, particularly following the acrimonious spate of attrition for independence. In time, the one-sided buyer's market manual became rather outrageous and was either misunderstood by the mostly socialist-leaning governments

that assumed post-colonial administration or simply spurned. In any case, the continent was undergoing ideological shifts and agriculture was at the centre of policy turnarounds: instead of privately-owned individual farms farming-communes appeared and instead of open marketing central marketing boards surfaced. Much of the bad rap coming to the agricultural sector - incalculable havoc to the land tenure and agrarian culture - has roundly and justifiably been directed at socialism. Fortunately, this freak phase of centralized agricultural management lasted barely 30 years [from 1960 to the collapse of Soviet and Eastern European Socialist states in 1987].

Population Growth

A time graph of Africa covering the last 60 years shows a disturbing pattern of rising problems and vanishing opportunities in agriculture. Ghana is believed to have had a population of about 4 million in 1950 and, by rule of thumb, the rural component would have been as high as 75%. The 3 million rural dwellers at the time contributed immensely to the gross development product and were largely responsible for the growth of many small and big towns through their massive investments in urban housing. Today, the country's population stands at approximately 24 million⁸ - a whopping 500 percent rise - with a rural component of 65%, i.e. nominal rural population of 15.6 million who are mostly impoverished. The uncontrolled growth in rural population undermined landholding and farming systems through land balkanization [a system of land distribution to new members of the clan by subdivision], with the result that farmland units have become small and uneconomic.

The story is the same across Africa. For many decades agriculture sustained

⁸ CIA World Factbook

populations and provided extra incomes for college support and capital projects like home-building. As populations have increased, an unprecedented downward slide in farm outputs and rural family incomes set-in and in the early 1970s the earliest effects of the first indication that something was wrong with the continent's agriculture was recorded when famine devastated large human and animal populations in countries in the Horn of Africa. Clearly, in the absence of a rationale sensible policy traditional agrarian culture and rising population pressure could not be sustained and the phenomenon had gradually taken a toll on the ecology through excessive and continuous cultivation. The consequent damage to soil health is now near irreversible in many areas of Africa.

Climate change and Conflicts

Most of the tribal and civil wars on the continent [distinct from independence-seeking ones] have been around natural resources of which water is major. A study⁹ by researchers from the University of California, United States, using historical data on civil wars in sub-Saharan Africa with rainfall and temperature records across the continent found that between 1980 and 2002, civil wars were significantly more likely in warmer-than-average years, with a 1-degree Celsius increase in temperature in a given year raising the incidence of conflict across the continent by nearly 50 per cent. Building on this historical relationship between temperature and conflict, the researchers then used projections of future temperature and precipitation change to quantify future changes in the likelihood of African civil war. Based on climate projections from 20 global climate models, the researchers found that the incidence of African civil war could increase roughly 55

per cent by 2030. Previous studies had shown an association between lack of rain and conflict, but this is said to be the first quantitative evidence linking global warming to fighting.

Dr. Marshall Burke¹⁰, the study's lead author said in support of the findings, "Despite recent high-level statements suggesting that climate change could worsen the risk of civil conflict, until now we had little quantitative evidence linking the two," he adds "Unfortunately, our study finds that climate change could increase the risk of African civil war by over 50 per cent in 2030 relative to 1990, with huge potential costs to human livelihoods." Quite an ominous conclusion and the only way to avoid such occurrences in the future seem to be by reaching a policy consensus on water protection, provision and sharing.

Traditional Agrarian Culture

The centuries-old farming culture of Africa dates more than 16,000 BC in the Northern Ethiopian Highlands where nuts, grasses and tubers were collecting for food. By 13,000-11,000 BC they began gathering wild grains. In West Africa, the wet phase of Africa ushered in expanding rainforest and wooded savannah from Senegal to Cameroon. Between 9000 and 5000 BC, the Niger-Congo culture domesticated the oil palm and raffia palm. By 5000 BC, Africa entered a dry phase and the climate of the Sahara region gradually became drier. The population trekked out of the Sahara region in all directions where they made permanent or semi-permanent settlements.....some went into arable farming while others settled into animal farming all on subsistence basis. The subsistence practice has remained the basic form of agriculture across the continent for several millennia without

⁹ Published in Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences

¹⁰ Researcher at Stanford's Program on Food Security and the Environment at the time of report

change. Absence of technology and any form of external inputs meant that the same land was farmed until diminishing yields indicated an intolerable drop in fertility and then the land affected was simply abandoned to fallow while new land was brought in as replacement. Of course, this method of farming has proved unsustainable, particularly giving current population levels and dwindling land resources. Yet, the scientific knowledge required for better understanding of soil behavior, plant and animal biology, marketing science, etc, is beyond the typical African farmer.

Agricultural Marketing and Market Competition

A recent publication on agricultural marketing in Africa under the auspices of the International Food Policy Research Institute [IFPRI]¹¹ questions the role of state enterprises in agriculture. The authors commended recent reforms by African Governments to deregulate agricultural markets and reduce the role of state enterprises but still worried about the actually extent of state withdrawal from agricultural markets. The findings question whether well-functioning private markets have emerged and whether reforms have boosted agricultural production, economic growth, and incomes of the rural poor; and they propose a new agenda for promoting the development of agricultural markets in Sub-Saharan Africa spelling out limits and areas where governments can play a supportive role. The truth is that a good marketing policy acts as catalyst stimulating investments which then improve agricultural production.

¹¹ IFPRI is one of 15 centers supported by the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), an alliance of 64 governments, private foundations, and international and regional organizations

Dearth of Enterprise

Africa has lacked indigenous entrepreneurs in agriculture. Apart from the occasional large-scale, corporate-owned farms, the overwhelming majority of farms are run by rural-based individuals and families cultivating small-sized holdings to sustain themselves from one farming season to another. Clearly, custom and tradition coupled with limited markets, primitive cultivation methods, and absence of capital have all combined to dictate the extent to which natives are able to take agriculture.

Finding a Way Out

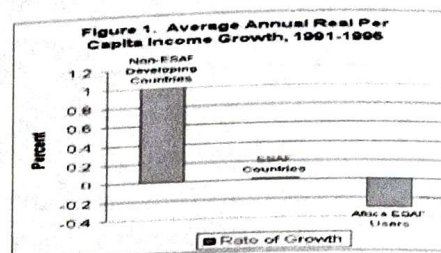
As Africa lost one export market after another, the politically-correct explanation was that it was due to a *dislike* of the peoples of the continent, perhaps a throw-forward from gone slavery days. The plain truth is that post-independent socialist governments, literally, 'took their eyes off the ball' during the cold-war days of alignment with socialist countries and superintended over the largest systemic failure of socio-economic nature in human history during relative peacetime. By the late 1970s and throughout the 1980s, most African countries needed regular food aid to survive. There was one glaring exception, the Ivory Coast, where colonial agricultural policy had survived to ensure continuity and preservation of the export market. Nigeria escaped the famine by sheer size of the oil revenue that flowed into its coffers.

In the wake of what became a full-blown continent-wide food crises, the IMF and the World Bank intervened by recommending a fundamental repair of national economies through what became popularly-known as **structural adjustment programme [SAP]**. Basically, the Fund reasoned that the diagnosis pointed to failures not in agriculture per se but, rather, in the larger economy due to policies or lack thereof

which had caused macroeconomic malfunction and which, therefore, needed correcting. This led practically all the countries affected to adopt economic restructuring measures to save them from, as it were, total collapse. These measures consisted, in the main, of deregulation policies designed to remove centralization and monopoly tendencies that had constricted economic performance since independence. Unfortunately, the *medicine* did not work as expected; in fact, in many instances it rather increased poverty as fragile economies were opened-up, perhaps inadvertently, to unfair trade practices such as dumping. Agriculture in many countries collapsed under import pressure.

There have been numerous criticisms of the IMF plan and one of the most stinging was contained in a paper sponsored by the Centre for Economic and Policy Research: 'In light of this track record, it appears that efforts to increase economic growth, increase access to health care and education, and reduce the burden of debt repayment are likely to fail so long as the IMF remains in control of the economic policies of countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Efforts to reduce Africa's debt burden should be coupled with efforts to reduce the role of the IMF. Debt cancellation or relief should not be conditioned upon compliance with the IMF's structural adjustment programs or policies'.¹² The graph below illustrates the consequences to economic growth in the countries that embarked on the IMF's structural adjustment programme and its collaborator *the enhanced structural*

adjustment facility [ESAF]. Those countries that resisted the programme experienced positive growth, while those that embraced it experienced negative growth.



Source: IMF Internal Review and H. Bredenkamp

Another important development that appears to be having a positive re-directional effect on the continent's economy is politics. Since the global demise of socialism in 1987, many African countries have rejected the socialist ideology in favour of multi-party democracy and one of the major payoffs is the return of private capital and open market economic systems. Again, the political transformation is easing internal tensions and helping to revamp economies; Ghana's economy has, since the late 1990's, taken a definite turn for the better. It must, however, be said that the real revolution that will transform African agriculture and make it a modern business-like undertaking is yet to take place.

The Way Forward

The way forward to a truly transforming agriculture is by a deliberate policy that will provide incentive for capacity building in the sector. The time has come for a paradigm shift in national economic philosophy by making rural living and farming attractive vocations to the young educated citizens now swarming the cities for jobs. The New Partnership for Africa Development must look into this sociological side of issues on the continent as well.

¹² A Survey of the Impacts of IMF Structural Adjustment in Africa: Growth, Social Spending, and Debt Relief, Robert Naiman and Neil Watkins, April 1999, Centre for Economic and Policy Research

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Heralding a New Era in District Administration: A Case of DC* Suite in Palakkad

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Abstract

In every State, districts are the primary delivery channels for Government administration which delivers a large number of services to the citizens. Therefore automation of the district level administration can significantly contribute and improve government service delivery. Government of Kerala has shown its willingness to institutionalized focus on e-Governance implementation in the state. It has constantly endeavored to set high benchmarks for itself in areas such as growth and development and general administration which are critical pointers to the overall well being of the citizens. Realizing the effectiveness of e-Governance in bringing about marked differences in the quality of services to the citizens and in increasing the internal efficiency of the district administration, government has decided to extensively promote and patronize initiatives that aim at a phased transformation of its largely manual processes to a process driven digital governance system that is user friendly, accountable and transparent in nature. It envisages DC Suite that delivers majority of services through the district administration with the use of Information, Communication and Technology (ICT). This article traces the radical changes in the automation of the district collectorate in Palakkad with the introduction of the web-enabled DC* Suite (District Collectorate Suite).*

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Introduction

Restructuring of administration began in right earnest in Kerala in the early 1990s with the State Government setting up an advisory committee with top and the whole process was termed "Modernizing Government Plan". The MGP was conceived as a comprehensive reform package for overhauling Government towards enhancing transparency, efficiency and effectiveness in delivery of services to citizens at all levels of administration. In implementing the scheme, the Kerala Government made a radical departure from the conventional, emphasis on results and outcome as against the usual emphasis on activity-based management.

Service Delivery Project (SDP) is one of the fast track projects under MGP to improve the quality of services delivered by Government to the people of Kerala, particularly the poor. DC* Suite is part of the Mission Mode Projects conceived by the National e-Governance Plan. National Informatics Centre is the implementing agency of this programme, which was inaugurated on the 24th of October 2004 by the then Chief Minister Oomen Chandy. The e-district project was conceptualized by the National e-Governance Plan (2006). It is currently spread over 30 districts across 17 Indian states. 20 pilot projects have been successfully implemented².

DC* Suite covers 22 functional areas of Collectorate, and includes electronic file management system, revenue recovery management, public grievance monitoring system, etc. Information is made available to public through touch screen kiosks, interactive voice response systems etc. The project highlights the concept of paperless

office maintaining an effective networking of G2G, G2C, and G2E communication between and among the various governmental departments, public and the employees respectively. The architecture framework of the suite is divided into 'back office modules', 'middleware intranet services' and e-Services (front end services). A communication network mode named 'Tappal' is adopted that gives lateral value addition to the entire system³. However, only three districts in the entire country had been recognized as model e-districts and they include Tiruvarur, Palakkad and West Godavari.

Genesis of the Project – The Tiruvarur Initiative

Tiruvarur, a riparian district in the Cauvery delta, was carved out of Thanjavur and Nagapattinam districts on 1 January 1997. Agriculture is the backbone of the economy in this district which has a population of about 1.1 million, and a very high level of poverty and associated backwardness. But this has not come in the way of e-Governance initiatives. The transformation from manual governance to e-Governance began in February 1999. The district did not receive any funds from the state budget for this initiative. A non-profit organization, District Welfare Committee was floated to mobilize funds worth Rs. 2.5 crore. The Members of State legislature (MLAs) and Members of Parliament (MPs) contributed nearly half the sum mentioned above from their Local Area Development funds. Four software development centres were set up in the District Collector's office itself employing around 30 software professionals. The district also had ushered in a Wi-Fi revolution by setting up the first wireless LAN (on 802.11b standard)

² Modernizing Government Programme (MGP) Document, Government of Kerala, 2005-06

³ www.palakkad.nic.in (accessed 22nd June 2010)

connecting all the 20 offices in 14 different locations.

The major beneficiaries were agriculturists, land owners, students, widows, agricultural labourers above 65 years of age, schools, local body population, rural population, and people benefiting from social welfare schemes.

To educate the citizens on online services, a special campaign was organized in the year 2000. The promise was that the services would be provided within a maximum of 2 hours, including enquiry time, if any, and that no paper would be used in the whole exercise. In 2000, Tiruvarur conducted its first online annual audit of village accounts. In February 2001, an online data warehouse containing all local land records, as well as information for the public on the old age pension scheme, cultivation and harvest details, and other data were developed. Krishnagiri district in Tamil Nadu is also taking steps to become the first comprehensive e-district in the country⁴.

Scope of the Project

DC*Suite is one of the joint initiatives from NIC and NICS for application integration and providing web enabled services to empower employees and public. The concept of e-District is a subset of the broader area of e-Governance. It is the application of technology in e-Governance from the district level downwards since 90 percent of services are delivered at the local/district level. Starting with the Tiruvarur (Tamil Nadu) initiative in June 1999, there have been a number of e-District programmes that have been implemented in different states of the country like Gyandoot

in Dhar district of MP, Fatehabad district in Haryana, Community Information Centres (CIC) project in the north-eastern states, etc. The village of Bellandur on the outskirts of Bangalore is credited with being the first gram panchayat to introduce e-Governance⁵.

The reasons for implementing the project as part of the NeGP (2003) include:

- Districts are the primary delivery channel for Government Administration and electronic delivery of large number of services at the district level would greatly improve the quality of life of the citizens.
- Significant improvement in delivery of Government services by integrating other e-Governance initiatives by different departments (Land records, Property Registration, Agriculture, Passport, Police, etc.) could also occur.
- Establishing a Multi-Disciplinary centre for information accessibility for capacity building of the district administrative processes would also be created.
- Formulation of strategies for creating a Central data repository at the district level for all associate activities for improving district administrative processes by ensuring data and information are collected, stored, retrieved, used and exchanged in an efficient manner at all levels from 'top to bottom'
- Support and integration of the e-Governance initiatives by Government of India such as Common Service Centres (CSCs)

⁴ Move afoot to make Krishnagiri first e-district in the country, 11th Nov 2006, *The Hindu*

⁵ E-district : The Emerging Future, ICTD Project Newsletter, January 2007

and Statewide Area Networks (SWAN)

Objectives of the e-district Project include:

- Implementation of an efficient electronic workflow system for District Administration
 - Backend computerization of the core services provided through the district administration
 - To redesign the processes for the core services to deliver them through the common service centres
 - Infusion of transparency and accountability in operations
 - Fast processing of public cases/appeals/grievances.
- Dissemination of information as per public requirements



Technologies Used

The software is developed using Open Software Technologies LAMP. The applications, which are of public interest, will be given access through INTERNET, IVRS and Touch Screens based Kiosks using standard software and web interfaces.

⁶ A sectional view of the fully automated district collectorate in Palakkad

DC* Suite is developed in Linux-Apache-MySQL-PHP (LAMP).

The project has made a good beginning in the e-Governance era reaching the grass root level. The data centre established in the Collectorate has to offer many more services to the citizens through Internet, counters, SMS, IVRS, touch screens etc. It is only a question of time for the next phases of the project to get completed, reaching the villages and panchayats through the wired and wireless modes, which is going to make a revolution in the country.

e-Services layer is the front-end layer of DC* Suite which interacts with citizens and offer services to the citizens. There are several methods proposed in DC* Suite. The services are offered over touch screen kiosks, interactive voice response system, Internet and front-end counters. The first level proposal connects all taluks to the Collectorate and all other government departments through dial-up facility. Middle layer is the Internet services layer, which offers lot of collaboration services and tools. E-mail, messaging, chat video conferencing, bulletin boards are a few worth mentioning. Back office layer is the key functional area comprising of all 21 functional modules with which the government staff will work and carry out the backend operations. IT infrastructure layer comprising of the data center, terminal for each staff, academy hall, computer hall, VC hall etc.

About Palakkad

Palakkad is one of the fourteen revenue districts of Kerala. It is situated almost in the centre of State and has no coastal line. The district opens the State to the rest of the country through the Palakkad gap. It is often called as the "Gateway of Kerala". With the total area of 4480 sq.kms the district accounts for about 11.5 per cent of the total

land area of Kerala, with the share of population is 8.22 per cent. The district is one of the main granaries of Kerala and its economy is primarily agricultural. Agriculture engages more than 65 per cent of the workers and 88.9 per cent of the district's population is rural in nature. Palakkad is part of the erstwhile Malabar district of Madras Presidency.

According to the 2001 census the population of the district is 2617072. The density of the population is 584 per Sq. km. Decadal growth rate for the period 1991-2001 is 9.86 per cent in comparison with the State figures of + 9.42 per cent. The sex ratio of the district is 1068 females for 1000 males. The District has achieved 84.31 per cent literacy in 2001 calculated on the basis of population above the age of 7 years.⁷

District Administration

The present Palakkad district, as an administrative unit, was formed on the first of January 1957, comprising of Palakkad, Perinthalmanna, Ponnani, Ottappalam, Alathur and Chittur. At present the Palakkad district consists of two revenue divisions, five taluks and 163 villages. The district is divided into 13 community Development Blocks for the effective implementation of various development activities. There are five taluks, 163 villages, four Municipal towns and ninety Panchayats in the district.

There are 64 different department having offices at the district headquarters. There are about 400 subjects handled by the Collector Office in the district. There are 15 sections in the office with each seat in the Collector office, handling about 10 subjects. DC*Suite is an integrated suite of applications for the Collectorate. DC*Suite is based on an integrated solution architecture covering all

functional areas and activities in the Collectorate.

Twenty-one functional areas identified including Workflow based File Management System, Public Grievances Monitoring System, and Revenue Recovery Management etc. In addition, there are add-on optional modules for Knowledge Management, District Portals etc. Generally priority is given for areas where common people interact with the Collectorate or Government.

The major achievements of the DC* Suite are as follows:

- Development of a pilot system for processing of files electronically and movement of electronic files.
- Restructuring of activities at Collector office
- Reorganization of seats and subjects handled by employees
- Issuance of Government Orders form Government of Kerala to institutionalize the process reengineering done.
- Establishment of a training centre at the district level.
- Use of open source technologies for development of software.

Services and Functions under DC* Suite

DC* Suite is essentially a workflow based electronic file flow management system. DC* Suite works on the basic principle that in government all decisions are taken through file movements. Any document or request reaching any office is either appended to an existing file or is created as a new file. The file is processed at various levels where inputs are added in terms of data, information, similar previous orders,

⁷ www.palakkad.nic.in

government laws, rules and regulations etc. DC* Suite has also been attempted to be developed in the same way. File movement system is the backbone of the DC* Suite.

Major areas covered in DC*Suite are as under:

- Workflow based File Management
 - License Information
 - Natural Calamity Management
 - Public Grievances
 - Revenue Recovery Management
 - Pay roll & Personnel Management
 - Land Management
 - Inventory Management
 - Financial Management
 - Certificates
 - Pension Schemes
 - Court Case Management
 - Housing
 - Assets Management
 - Natural Resource Management
 - Elections and Electoral Analysis
 - Law and Order
 - National Security
 - Development works
 - Public Information Portals and District Portals
- In addition there will be add-on optional modules for Knowledge Management, District portals etc. Public Access, Transparent Administration and Service Delivery are the key features of the project and these services will be made using District Portals as web services.

Basic Services:

- Disaster recovery at Collector's Camp office
- Acknowledgements of letters, e-mails, fax.
- Help Desk
- Intranet for employees
- News, Notice Board
- E-mail, Messaging
- Chat, Forum, Gallery

- Reference, Health Corner
- Government Order (GO) Search

Administrative Process under DC* Suite

As first step towards design of the new system a re-structuring of Collectorate activities were done by a team of officers under the guidance of the District Collector. As a result of this study six management divisions were formed depending on the major activities in Collectorate – grouping together the related major subject heads, which were:

- a) Personal Management
- b) Civil Management
- c) Land Management
- d) Revenue Recovery Management
- e) Election Management
- f) Finance Management

Re-organization of the Seats and Subjects were carried out and an Office Order was issued to enforce the same in tune with computerisation. To keep the initial momentum generated by introduction of a new system every employee of Collectorate is provided with a PC/Thin so that they can actually work with electronic files. Every section was provided with a printer and scanner as a part of the network. Thin clients were provided with OS images to suite Unicode Malayalam (local language) support and Mapped to Rack Server through Samba. The responsibility of development software was entrusted to NIC with a view that it becomes a continuous process and the support is available all the time.

Infrastructure

A data centre has been established in the Collector office. The Disaster Recovery (DR) centre is created in Collector camp office with a lease line of 2 Mbps between the Collectorate and Camp office. Only database backup is taken in DR centre. The

infrastructure created for the project includes:

- District Data Centre
- Academic Centre – continuous training centre with thin clients
- Discussion Room
- Videoconferencing facility
- Touch Screen Kiosks
- Disaster Recovery Centre

Work Process

The 'Tapal' received in Collector office reaches the concerned seat / employee. The employee has the option to scan the document and create a new file or append the same to an existing file. Inputs to DC* Suite can be scanned document, photographs, email and even voice message. All these become a document in the workflow. The document then travels in the defined workflow as per hierarchy and procedures. Information is appended at every level and facility is provided for writing notes. The electronic file reaches the deciding authority and travels back. The action is taken as per the decision. There are about 11 – 12 modules available in DC* Suite which are build around the Workflow for carrying out different tasks. A total of 20 modules have been planned. The services are delivered to citizen through the District Administration Counters, IVRS and SMS. DC* Suite also provides services to citizens through a website with the URL <http://www.dcsuiteservices.nic.in>. This website is informatory in nature. Information about various services provided from Collector office are listed in the website. All employees using the DC* Suite have been assigned username and passwords for accessing the system. Security is planned to be enhanced with Biometric technology. Incorporation of Digital Signature is also planned in the DC* Suite. All the documents generated from DC* Suite also carry a security feature. Every document generated

from DC*suite software carries a code. This code is generated by the system. This code is printed in the bottom of the page and used for detecting any kind of forgery for a document.

Project Outcomes

There has been a considerable reduction in time and costs for availing services at the Collectorate. The biggest beneficiaries are the farmers who now have tremendous access to information and services regarding agriculture and agricultural practices. Social and economic development schemes and the related information and literature are in the public domain as never before. The National Rural Employment Guarantee scheme is the best illustration for this.

Clearly, people have found the system effective in terms of the amount of time saved to process certain requests for services at the departments. The government offices using the automated system have saved significant amounts of time and effort for maintaining their internal records. The new system and a highly motivated task force at the time of implementation had changed the outlook and attitude of the government offices to a certain extent

Current Status of the Project

Presently, only two offices are connected with the DC* Suite. It proposed that representative offices of all 64 departments located in district would be covered under DC* Suite. Services are proposed to be made available to all Taluks and to villages also. Connectivity can also be extended to Counters with the help of State Wide Area Network proposed be established in near future. One taluk office has also been connected to DC* Suite where Revenue Recovery software is being used. This is done on a pilot basis. This office is situated within the Collector office premise.

Government of Kerala has decided to replicate the DC* Suite in other districts of the state. Presently, the system is being replicated in Kannur, Ernakulam and Kasargode.

Challenges and Constraints

Currently the Information is available at different levels of governance so the challenge is to capture information from all the levels of department in order to have a better understanding of the processes and system. Since departments are at varying level of automation and have different types of application implemented the challenge is to integrate the departments' initiative with the e-District project. Most of the departments are still not computerized so there is a huge demand to set up the IT infrastructure at different department levels. There is a huge challenge to integrate the existing and proposed IT infrastructure with the e District framework.

Conclusion

There are no short cuts for making a project like DC* Suite successful. These kind of projects do have their own development life span where lot of issues related to variety of subject like functionality, technology, change management are required to be dealt with. Hence there can be few quick wins but for creating a sustainable and workable model it is required that sufficient time and energy is spent on proper resolution of problems areas. In a typical file flow system the documents move from one table to another and employees at every level add some value to the file by way of adding information to it. Any automated or electronic system should be able to record the value added by each employee and also help employees in doing so. DC*Suite is capable to support any kind of citizen service delivery channel like CSC, internet, IVRS, etc. Hence any district already having

these channels can use it and those not having it can very well start these channels. National Informatics Centre (NIC) is looking into the aspect of developing DC*Suite as a product, which is suitable for implementation in any district across the country. It is also looking at creation of a content management system to be built around the workflow system for managing the huge amount content generated by Government at every level.

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A Study of Essential Mentor Traits and Functions from the Mentees' Perspective in the Indian Business Organizations

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Abstract

This paper starts with a review of the origin of the concept of mentoring, then looks at the historical backdrop of the concept in the Indian scenario and ends the literature review section with the concept of mentoring in today's Indian business scenario. After defining the construct, the paper explains the instrument used as a tool of data collection and the sample profile. This research paper aims at understanding the mentor's traits and functions from the mentees' perspectives and which of the mentor attributes and behaviour are considered to be essential or most important. Through the percentage-wise analysis of the primary data obtained from 311 mentees across the country, the research concludes that mentees consider the following 06 traits as important – "being organizational savvy, knowledgeable, professionally competent, trustworthy, having a positive influence (on the mentees), and understanding the company's core values. The research also concludes the following 06 mentor functions are essential in a good mentor – ability to follow-up (with the mentees), providing guidance and support (to the mentees), encouraging mentees to take initiative, motivating mentees, being disciplined and being a good teacher. The value addition of this paper to managerial professionals is to introspect whether they have these attributes (as potential mentors) and if not, how they can develop these important mentor qualities, to groom themselves as 'mentor material' for their respective organizations.

Key words: Mentoring, mentor, mentee, mentor traits, mentor functions

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Introduction

The word 'mentor' has come into English from the Greeks. In his epic Iliad, Homer writes, among many others, of Odysseus, king of Ithaca. Odysseus, restless for adventure, leaves his family and kingdom behind to fight in the Trojan war. He leaves behind his young son, Telemachus, under the tutelage and care of his childhood friend mentor.

Mentor brings up the young prince, teaching him the art of statecraft. He teaches Telemachus the guile to survive internecine intrigues, and develops in him the panache to enforce his will over a kingdom of unruly clansmen. Mentor's role is essentially that of a father figure. With the prolonged absence of Odysseus, however, the rest of the royal household crumbles around his son. Pretenders and usurpers attempt to win over Penelope, the queen, and take over the kingdom. Much more was added to the legend of mentor after the little that Homer himself wrote. Mentor was said to be an incarnation of the goddess Athena.

Mentor did a pretty fine job with Telemachus. It is said that the goddess Athena herself had appeared in the form of mentor to hold the crumbling edifice of Odysseus's household together. The slow but sure growth of Telemachus, under the wise guidance of mentor, from a young and unsure lad to a fine youth emphasizes the importance of such a guide's role in the life of any person.

In western myth, legend and history there are numerous examples of mentor – mentee relationship: Socrates and Plato; Plato and Aristotle; Haydn and Beethoven; Freud and Jung. The list can be extended to the modern day and into the corporate world: Freddie Laker and Richard Branson; Peter Dundee and Joan Collins; Warren Bennis and Howard Shultz.

Literature Review

Historical Backdrop of Mentoring in the Indian Context

The idea and the relationship is by no means an import from the west into India. Relationships such as this have existed in Indian myths and

legends as well. These are as, if not older than, Homer's Iliad.

The parampara (tradition) of Guru and Shishya (teacher and pupil) is as old as Indian civilization. The kings and chieftains of earlier days in fact followed the practice of having their heirs grow to maturity and wisdom under the tutelage of learned sages. The scriptures of ancient India document several such relationships and practices.

Arjuna's relationship with Krishna stands among the best examples of mentoring relationships. The crucial message of wisdom – putting things in perspective when thinking is incapacitated by intolerable dilemmas – is what makes all the difference. The message itself has been immortalized in the Bhagavad Gita, but it is not just the message that is important here. What is important is the clarity it provided Arjuna in resolving the impasse he found his thinking sinking into that situation.

We should also know that while Krishna and Arjuna have an enormously large share of attention, the Mahabharata also talks of Parshurama and Karna, and Shakuni and Duryodhana in this context. These are also great mentor-mentee relationships. They are, however less widely discussed and eulogized, perhaps because these personages ended up on the losing side. They are, nevertheless good examples of mentors raising the mentees above the level of meritocracy.

Indian myths and legends are replete with such mentoring relationships. Sages have been mentors to kings, and according to some beliefs, Gods as well. The sages unselfishly shared their wisdom with their 'mentees'.

In ancient Indian history too there are excellent examples of such great relationships. The singular achievement of the ascetic Brahmin Kautalya is an admirable example.

Engineering the essential of Chandragupt Maurya, a Vaishya to the Nanda, during a time when the prerequisite for royalty was Chatriya-hood, was in itself a deed of greatness. Kautalya was a great mentor to Chandragupt Maurya. The excellent exposition of the guiles of statecraft by Kautalya in his Arthashastra (a book of practical advice for Kings) has made his alternate name 'Chanakya' a

synonym for guile and cleverness in modern Indian popular parlance. Through the Arthashastra, Kautilya has been guiding spirit behind many a successful ruler and statesmen over the ages.

Bairam Khan's role in the growth and upbringing of the greatest of the Mughal emperors, Akbar, is significant. The initial tutelage and mentoring of young Akbar by Bairam Khan played a vital role in the way Akbar re-established the Mughal Empire in all its glory, and in the greatness he achieved in later years.

In modern India too, there have been great examples of successful mentoring relationships. Bal Gangadhar Tilak was a great inspirational mentor to a significant number of later freedom fighters. Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi in later years filled his place in guiding an entire generation of Indian leaders. Much has been written about the close bond between Mahatma Gandhi and the young Jawaharlal Nehru. Jawaharlal's growth and commitment to the cause of India's freedom blossomed under the tutelage of Gandhi. There is also the underplayed relationship that Vallabh Bhai Patel had with Gandhi. Patel's respect and adoration of his mentor was so great that he made many a sacrifice and decisions he may not have otherwise liked to make.

Mentoring in Modern India

Research scholars have examined the concept of employee empowerment and its impact on the motivation level of the organization in an analytical framework. Well educated, mentored and highly motivated people are critical to the development and execution of strategies, especially in today's faster-paced, more perplexing world, where top management alone can no longer assure company's competitiveness. (Radha Mohan Chebolu, 2005)

Mentoring is an effective technique to retain the talented workforce (Radha Mohan Chebolu 2005). A robust mentoring system is often a part of the strategy for managing people. For example, Coca-cola foods' coaching and mentoring programs have related mentoring to

Human Resource Development Strategy (Veale and Wachtel, 1996).

Radha Mohan Chebolu (2005) brings about the gender issue in Mentoring. He reports the data that as per a survey of Fortune 1000 firms – 91 % of successful women executives in these firms have mentors. According to the ICFAI faculty member Chebolu, mentoring process, whether formal or informal should be able to establish an effective relationship between the organization and employees in such a way that both the parties benefit equitably.

Mentoring is a way of ensuring that there is a sense of commitment generated among the workforce in an organization. Providing mentoring to employees leads to an appreciation of the freedom accorded to them. The training accorded to people becomes the precursor to the mentor-mentee relationships that will be developed later (Sireesha Mamidenna 2005). Research has shown that mentoring relationships are three times more likely to succeed if both mentee and mentor are trained (Jane Cranwell et al 2004). An article from the Training and Management Magazine, "Mentoring – Responsibility enhances Productivity" (2005) addresses the Mentoring process as having the following steps.

- Setting mutually acceptable goals
- Identifying development and support needs for goal achievement
- Monitoring progress and giving online feedback
- Conducting the evaluation interview

In the article, "Perspectives on Mentoring", Scandura et al (1996) address the question: "why do mentors engage in mentoring?" and discuss the role of leadership in the development of leader-supported mentoring processes. They offer an array of insights into the process of mentoring and the range of relationships that need managing if the program is to yield benefits for mentors, mentees and the organization as a whole.

Forret et al (1996) review the implementation issues involved in the development of mentoring programs, with reference to interviews with in-company managers in five organizations who had

established their own programs. The article provides a "how to" overview on the steps involved in setting-up a mentoring program and outlines the benefits of such a program for the organization and for the mentees and mentors.

Ramya Narasimhan and Sanjib Dutta (2005) share insights about GALLOP, a structured and organized induction-training program at Godrej. Each GALLOPper works with a mentor chosen from the senior management. The GALLOPpers assist their mentors on various projects, which give them exposure and enhance their professional knowledge.

"Mentoring is a one-to-one, non-judgemental relationship in which an individual mentor voluntarily gives time to support and encourage another. This relationship is typically developed at a time of transition in the mentee's life, and lasts for a significant and sustained period of time." (Carrad. L, 2002)

"Mentoring is a one-to-one process of helping individuals to learn and develop and takes a longer-term perspective which focuses on the person's career and their development. It is distinguished from coaching which has a more immediate performance-based focus." (Tabbron et al, 1997)

"Mentoring is a deliberate pairing of a more skilled or experienced person with a lesser skilled or experienced one, with the agreed-upon goal of having the less experienced person grow and develop specific competencies." (M Murray and M Owen, 2001)

"A formalized process whereby a more knowledgeable and experienced person actuates a supportive role of overseeing and encouraging reflection and learning within a less experienced and knowledgeable person, so as to facilitate that person's career and personal development." (Roberts, 2000)

Operational Definition of the Term 'Mentoring'

There are various definitions of the term mentoring, as reported in the literature review section of this report. This research aims at studying 'informal mentoring' within organizations and not formal mentoring programs.

While formal mentoring would typically be initiated by the Human Resource Departments of organizations and they would 'pair' up or match senior members from the company as mentors and juniors as mentees, informal mentoring works differently. The mentees decide whom they want to be mentored under or sometimes the mentors don't even know that they are being 'looked up to' as mentors.

For the purpose of this research, the researcher explained the concept to the respondents as follows – "Do you consider any body senior to you (in age and experience), within your organization, as your 'mentor'? A mentor is a person with whom you can talk your heart out without the fear of being judged, someone who is there for you in your testing times and somebody who truly inspires/motivates you. This person is like a role model to you, you really look up to and admire this person and wish to become like him/her some day; someone who is a friend, philosopher and guide. You can have more than one mentor or you can have different mentors at different stages of your life. S/he may or may not even know that you consider him/her as your mentor."

Since the study is focused on informal mentoring, whether the employee is mentored or not, depends entirely on the perception of the employee. The decision of the employee (whether he has a mentor or not) was accepted at face value.

Research Objectives

1. To understand the evolution of the concept of mentoring through review of literature.
2. To find out the Indian mentoring relationships in historical context through review of literature.
3. To analyze the perceptions of mentees on selected mentor traits and functions, through primary data.
4. To assess the participant profile in terms of their age distribution, income levels and level in the organizational hierarchy as important demographic characteristics.

5. To examine the industry profile of the participants on the type of company (public limited or private), the size of the organization and the business sector it belongs to.

Research Problem

Mentoring in organizations is as much effective as are the mentors. Though there is a consensus among mentoring experts that 'openness to learning' is the single most factor responsible for mentees' willingness to be mentored, however there is a debate on 'what qualities constitute an effective mentor.' This research study aims at bridging this gap and focuses on highlighting what are the mentor qualities (traits and functions) that make some mentors more effective than others.

Scope of the Research

1. This research in organizational mentoring includes informal mentoring and not formal mentoring.
2. This study focuses on the mentoring process in the business organizations in India alone. It does not include educational institutions or not-for-profit organizations under its purview.
3. This research study has narrowed its focus on the managerial level employees and therefore workers or staff level employees within the business sector are outside its purview.
4. This research has looked at employees across public and private sector companies and has studied small, medium as well as large Indian corporate.
5. This study has covered some metros and cities viz. Mumbai, Navi Mumbai, Delhi, NOIDA and Kochi in India.

Instrument used for Data Collection

The researcher developed a questionnaire to create a framework for understanding the mentor qualities based on a research paper – 'Essential

Formal Mentor Characteristics and Functions in Governmental and Non Governmental Organizations from the Program Administrator's and Mentor's Perspectives.' The researcher has taken written permission from the authors i.e. Smith Wanda J, Howard Jerusalem and Harrington K Vernard for using their research work as a basis for this study. Wanda Smith et al's research study examines (from the formal mentor's perspective) who mentors are (essential traits) as well as what mentors do (essential functions) in four types of organizations (i.e., academic, business, military-armed forces, and military-academic organizations).

The mentor traits and functions from Wanda Smith et al's study were as follows –

The mentor traits were - Ability to teach, Empathy, Honesty, Organizational savvy (ability to understand how company works), Understands company's core values, Willingness to share time, Bearing/personal presence, Compassion/understanding, Concern for effectiveness, Confidentiality, Dependability, Genuine, High moral and ethical standards, Integrity, Knowledge, Professional competence, Trust.

The mentor functions were – Coach, Provides support, Provides vision and widens horizons, Teamwork, Acceptance, Broaden experience, Challenges, Cooperation, Discipline, Exposure & Visibility, Follow up, Intervener, Introduction to organization culture, Motivates, Networking ability, Provide cross-functional information, Role Model, Share Credit, Sponsor, Teacher, Transfer skills; leadership and technology.

Mentor traits are the enduring characteristics of individuals that influence behaviour and Mentor functions are career related and psychosocial behaviours exhibited by mentors.

The questionnaire developed on the Wanda Smith et al framework comprise 38 statements (one each on the 17 traits and 21 functions as per the model). Some of the statements are reversed to avoid bogus answers and the likert scale is on 6 where 1 is strongly disagree, 2 is disagree, 3 is slightly disagree, 4 is slightly agree, 5 is agree and 6 is strongly agree.

Data Collection Methodology – Survey Method

Given the nature of topic, data collection was done both within and outside the organizational setting. Organizations that were hesitant to cooperate, data from such places was sought informally. The researcher contacted the executives and administered questionnaires to them either individually or in small groups (not exceeding five outside the organization). Executives pursuing part time MBA programme in various management institutes were approached during lecture breaks and questionnaires were administered to them. In order to elicit honest responses, the executives were assured completed confidentiality of the data collected. They were not required to mention their name anywhere on the questionnaire. Also the purpose of the study being solely for research was also explained to all participants.

Sample Design

In this study stratified random sampling technique is adopted. The sample consisted of 311 employees from different sectors of the Indian business industry.

Sample Profiling

The respondents' demographic information has been summarized under this section. Factors like the age of the respondents, their level in the organizational hierarchy and their monthly income details have been represented in the pie charts at the end of the paper.

Age Profile

There were no respondents below the age of 20 years and the maximum number of mentees (26%) were in the age bracket to 25-30 years. (Refer to Chart 1 at the end of the paper)

Level in the Organizational Hierarchy

62% of the employees were from the middle managerial level, 26% being from senior management levels and 12% from the lower levels in the managerial hierarchy. (Refer to Chart 2 at the end of the paper)

Monthly Income

The employees were asked to share the range of their monthly gross income and almost all

respondents willingly shared this information. (Refer to Chart 3 at the end of the paper)

Geographical Locations

Sample of the research consisted of 311 executives, employed and residing in the city of Mumbai, Kochi, Delhi, NOIDA and Navi Mumbai.

Industry Profiling

This section includes details of the various industries, the employees of which were selected for the study. The information is detailed on three parameters viz. organization size, type of the organization (public or private) and business sector.

Organization Size

Respondents belonging to companies having more than three thousand employees were clubbed under 'large companies'; respondents belonging to companies having more than one thousand but less than three thousand employees were clubbed under 'medium companies'; and respondents working with companies having less than one thousand employees are categorized under 'small companies'. 76% of the mentees belonged to large companies, 06% of the mentees belonged to medium companies and 18% of the mentees were from the small companies. (Refer to Chart 4 at the end of the paper)

Type of the Organization

All the business organizations, from which respondents were selected, were categorized into public limited companies and private companies. Those companies that are listed on BSE and/or NSE are public limited companies while those which are not listed are private companies. 62 % companies were Public Limited while 38 % were private limited companies. (Refer to Chart 5 at the end of the paper)

Business Sector

The respondents belonged to organizations that represent various industries. These include the Banking sector, Oil & Petroleum, Logistics, Hospitality, Financial sector, IT and telecommunications, Pharmaceuticals, Textiles, Retail, FMCG, Shipping, Construction, media and Engineering. The employees were all managerial

level employees from varied departments. 34% of the mentees were from the Banking sector and 20% of the mentees were from the Oil & Petroleum sector. (Refer to Chart 6 at the end of the paper)

Data Analysis and Findings

The scores on 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' were clubbed together and the scores on 'strongly agree' and 'agree' were combined to capture extreme positive and negative perceptions of the mentees. This was done independently for each of the 38 items on the questionnaire. The scores for 'slightly agree' and 'slightly disagree' were ignored and only extreme perceptions are taken into consideration for the analysis and discussions.

Out of the 17 mentor traits on the questionnaire, the following were perceived by the mentees as the most important ones: (refer to table 1 at the end of the paper)

1. Organizational savvy (understands how the company works)
2. Knowledge
3. Professional competence
4. Positive influence
5. Understands company's core values
6. Being trustworthy

Discussions

Essential Mentor Trait One: **Organizational Savvy (understands how the company works)**

297 out of 311 mentees felt that being 'organizational savvy' was the most important mentor trait or characteristic. It is the emotional intelligence on an organizational level. It is a deep understanding of how individuals, teams, and the organization function - and the ability to react appropriately to those factors. Some mentoring foundations can exist independently of each other, but an effective mentor must have organizational savvy in order to move the organization forward.

One of the foremost examples of organizational savvy at work is the ability to develop a give-and-take with others. This also means that you should

expect to give back if someone in the organization helps you out. Along with this goes the understanding of the agendas of others. An agenda isn't necessarily hidden, but it does involve the motivation and inspiration of another person or team. Is the team moving forward quickly because their annual incentive is based on it, or do they have multiple projects that need attention right away? Is the key person you're developing a "give and take" with someone that's driven by personal recognition or the desire to see the entire organization succeed? As you become more emotionally intelligent as a mentor, you'll begin to understand others' agendas.

Essential Mentor Trait Two: **Knowledge**

292 out of 311 mentees felt that their mentor should be knowledgeable.

Knowledge is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary as (i) expertise, and skills acquired by a person through experience or education; the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject; (ii) what is known in a particular field or in total; facts and information; or (iii) awareness or familiarity gained by experience of a fact or situation. Philosophical debates in general start with Plato's formulation of knowledge as "justified true belief." There is however no single agreed definition of knowledge presently, nor any prospect of one, and there remain numerous competing theories.

Knowledge acquisition involves complex cognitive processes: perception, learning, communication, association and reasoning. The term knowledge is also used to mean the confident understanding of a subject with the ability to use it for a specific purpose if appropriate.

Essential Mentor Trait Three: **Professional Competence**

283 out of 311 mentees felt that 'professional competence' was an important mentor trait. The capability to perform the duties of one's profession generally or to perform a particular professional task, with skill of an acceptable quality is called professional competence. The mentees also expect their mentors to possess and

willingly share the right workplace attitudes and skills with the mentees.

Essential Mentor Trait Four: **Positive Influence**

277 out of 311 mentees felt that their mentor should be able to create a positive influence on the minds of the mentees. Positive influence is the beneficial effect that a person or thing has on someone's decisions, opinions, or behaviour or on the way something happens.

Influence is an essential component of mentorship, especially in today's organizations, which rely less on hierarchy and more on the mentor's ability to get buy-in from others. Attempts to influence can produce three different outcomes: resistance, compliance, and commitment - with the latter, of course, being the most desirable result.

Essential Mentor Trait Five: **Understands Company's Core Value**

275 out of 311 mentees felt that the mentor should understand the core values of the organization. The firm's core values and purpose constitute its core ideology and remain relatively constant. They are independent of industry structure and the product life cycle.

Core Values are the beliefs or attitudes that define what the company's driving forces are as well as highest priorities. These values are the guiding principles that define a company and its culture.

Core values are essential to not losing sight of what and how you do what you do. These are the values that create customer loyalty as well as allow employees to understand the direction of your company so they can better contribute. Effective organizations not only define these values in a clear, concise way but they also help to foster these values within their organization amongst their employees.

Essential Mentor Trait Six: **Being Trustworthy**

272 out of 311 mentees felt that their mentor must be 'trustworthy'. In the context of a close relationship, trust refers to the level of confidence

we have that the other person will act in ways that will fulfill our expectations. This confidence does not merely reflect an intellectual assessment of the likelihood that a partner will act as anticipated, but also an emotionally experienced sense of security and assurance in the partner's behavior and motives. Trust in a person is a commitment to an action based on a belief that the future actions of that person will lead to a good outcome. There are two parts to trust: a feeling part that indicates trust and a performance track record that confirms trust. An active feeling of trust is confidence: in mentorship, in veracity, in reliability. A passive feeling of trust is the absence of worry or suspicion. Our most productive relationships are already based on trust, sometimes unrecognized and frequently taken for granted.

Out of the 21 mentor functions on the questionnaire, the following were perceived by the mentees as the most important ones: (refer to table 2 at the end of the paper)

1. Follow up with the mentees
2. Provides guidance and support
3. Encourages(mentees) to take initiative
4. Motivates mentees
5. Being disciplined
6. Being a good teacher

Discussions

Essential Mentor Function One: **Follow-up (with the mentee)**

303 out of 311 mentees felt that the mentor's ability to do follow-ups with the mentee is an important effective mentor behaviour. One of the reasons that mentoring has become so successful is that we contract out accountability for our goals to another person. That person 'the mentor' checks in with us on a regular basis to see how things are going without taking responsibility for the accomplishment of the goals themselves.

First and foremost the mentor's ability to follow-up signals care. The mentees know that the mentor shares in their desire to succeed. In

addition, it signals realism. We all know how hard it is to change habits. Over time, people develop dysfunctional ways of relating to one another. Agreeing to change behavior is one thing. Actually changing it is another. It also signals an opportunity. Fine tuning an agreement or making adjustments based on lived experience is not a sign of failure but of maturity. By following up the mentor creates an opportunity for the mentees to trouble shoot and consolidate lessons.

Essential Mentor Function Two: Provides Guidance and Support (to the mentees)

283 out of 311 mentees felt this was an important mentor function or behaviour. Providing guidance and support is the most important thing in learning and to become successful. Without these two core factors you can't become successful. There are people who get motivation from others but still they need some sort of guidance to initiate the work. The mentees largely depend on their mentors for professional and personal guidance and support. Mentors with basic counselling skills like active listening and empathy are looked upto.

Essential Mentor Function Three: Encourages (mentees) to take Initiative

278 out of 311 mentees felt that encouraging them to take initiative was an important mentor function or behaviour. Initiative is having a go-getter attitude. It is about being positive and looking to take the next step. Without initiative, missed opportunities can become a problem. An effective mentor encourages the mentee to first become a doer. There is no point in waiting around for someone to tell you what needs to be done. Look for a task to perform. Work confidently and diligently and complete your goal. When that is completed, look to start working on another task.

Essential Mentor Function Four: Motivates (mentees)

277 out of 311 mentees felt that an effective mentor is the one who motivates the mentees. A

mentor motivates mentees by helping them focus on their goals, recognizing success, giving regular feedback to the mentees and helping them take responsibility.

Essential Mentor Function Five: Being Disciplined

268 out of 311 mentees felt that being disciplined at work was an important mentor function.

Discipline suggests the standards by which the individual or team is going to operate. Discipline will thrive in any environment that accepts its necessity and has no emotional baggage attached to its enforcement. Discipline does not have to involve intimidation or anger, nor be automatically attached to punishment. Research by psychologists indicates that when discipline is perceived as punishment, it only serves to pressure the mentees. When discipline is presented as a team ethic, it is perceived as a beneficial influence that prepares the mentees to handle the stress of competition.

Essential Mentor Function Six: Being a Good Teacher

268 out of 311 mentees felt that a mentor should be a good teacher. Good mentors have an intuitive grasp of teaching and learning. They know how to observe learners, diagnose their needs, and intervene when necessary. These same skills can be applied to the teaching process as well. However, mentors need to apply these skills differently with entry year teachers, keeping in mind that new mentors need to feel competent and need to set their own agendas. Mentors need to be actively involved in helping mentees discover their own answers. When good mentors consider the special characteristics of adult learners and adjust their interaction styles accordingly, they will also be good teachers.

Implications of the Research

This research paper is useful to academicians (for carrying out further research in this area), managerial professionals and the business community at large. The immediate value

addition of this paper to managerial professionals is to introspect whether they have these 12 attributes (as potential mentors) and if not, how they can develop these important mentor qualities, to groom themselves as 'mentor material' for the organization.

Limitations of the Study

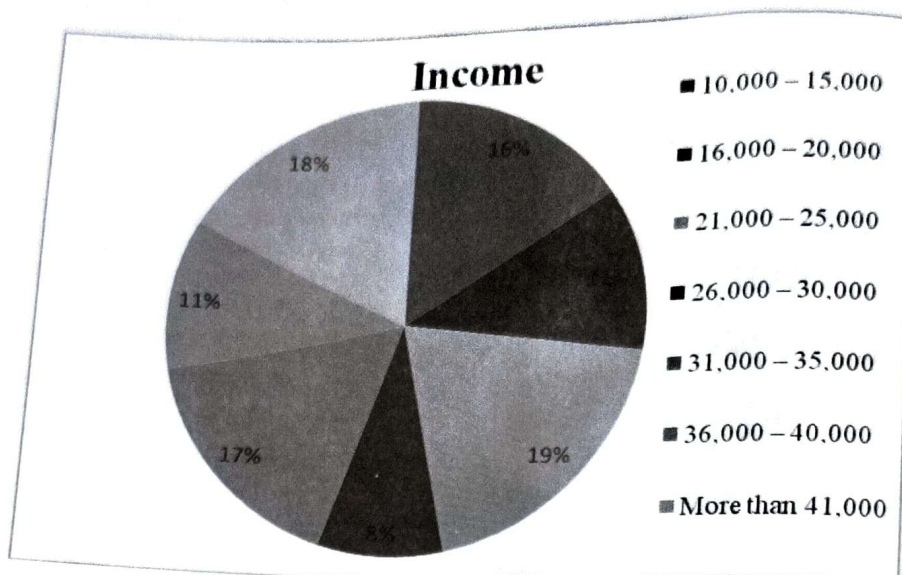
1. The researcher also wanted to study which were the mentor traits and functions of lesser importance but was unable to make conclusions in this direction as the highest percentage was not significant enough to make the respective conclusion. For eg. Only 12.22 % mentees felt that being 'dependable' was not a very important mentor trait and only 5.50 % of the mentees felt that providing cross functional knowledge was a lesser important mentor function. Since these percentages are less than 60 %, no conclusions have been made in this direction.
2. The mentor effectiveness has been looked at, only from the mentees' perspectives and the self-evaluation by mentors have been out of purview of this study. A comparative analysis of the mentor's and mentee's perceptions on mentoring effectiveness could have added value to the research.
3. The Wanda Smith et al's framework of 17 mentor traits and 21 mentor functions was developed for the formal mentors whereas this research has focused on informal mentors alone. The researcher could have used this model for measuring mentoring effectiveness for formal mentoring, for higher precision of the tool.
4. The sample size of 311 mentees were not profiled on the 'gender' parameter of the demographic characteristics which is an important criteria to understand the sample composition.
5. The questionnaire is not standardized. No validity and reliability tests have been conducted to ensure the accuracy of the tool.

Directions for Future Research

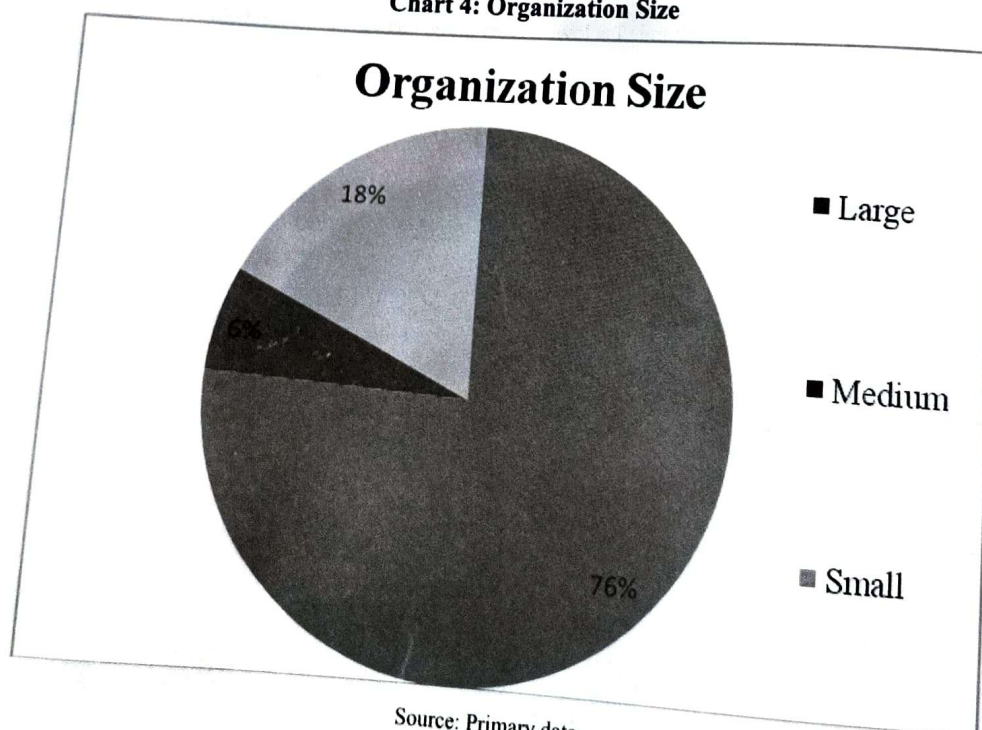
1. Researchers interested in taking this study forward can evaluate the mentor's perceptions on the same framework to compare the self-evaluations vis a vis mentees' perceptions of important mentor traits and functions.
2. The literature review section of this paper has examined the formal mentoring definitions and scope but the primary data is restricted to informal mentoring. Researchers interested in carrying forward this work, can use the same framework to develop insights from formal mentoring programs initiated in today's business organizations.
3. A researcher can also look at the 'least sought after' mentor traits and functions on the Wanda Smith et al framework and can discuss why these attributes appear more glamorous and important than they actually are.

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Chart 3: Monthly Income of the mentees

Source: Primary data

Chart 4: Organization Size

Source: Primary data

Table 1: Key findings – Important mentor traits

Most important mentor traits	Percentage of mentees who felt this was an important mentor trait
Organizational savvy (understands how the company works)	95.50%
Knowledge	93.89%
Professional competence	90.97%
Positive influence	89.07%
Understands company's core values	88.42%
Being trustworthy	87.46%

]

Table 2: Key findings – Important mentor functions

Most important mentor functions	Percentage of mentees felt this was an important mentor function
Follow-up (with the mentee)	97.43%
Provides guidance and support (to the mentees)	91.00%
Encourages(mentees) to take initiative	89.39%
Motivates (mentees)	89.07%
Being Disciplined	86.17%
Good teacher	86.17%

A Study of Relation Between Emotional Labour and Perceived Service Quality

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Abstract

Service delivery has come to be perceived as vital to organizational survival and success in current era marked with high levels of competition. In relation to manufacturing, services are relatively intangible, heterogeneous, perishable and inseparable production of service from its consumption. The present study aims at examining the linkage between emotional labour and perceived service quality. A descriptive survey research methodology was adopted for the present study wherein responses were obtained from employees & customers of five leading hotels of Ahmedabad, using two separate measurement instruments – one for employees and another one for customers. The sampling unit was either an employee or customer of any three/four / five star hotel / restaurant in Ahmedabad City. Using convenience sampling technique, 150 employees and 150 customers were approached and primary data was collected. Five factors of emotional scale emerged from the present study by applying factor analysis. They are Mix of intensity & Variety, Deep acting, Surface acting, Frequency of interaction & Intensity. Based on the correlation & regression analysis it was found that higher score of emotional labour results in an adverse lower score of service quality.

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Introduction

Service delivery has come to be perceived as vital to organizational survival and success in current era characterized with high levels of competition (Schneider & Bowen, 1985). In relation to manufacturing, services are relatively intangible, heterogeneous, perishable and inseparable production of service from its consumption (Lashley, 1998). Such features of the service pose a challenge for the consumer to isolate quality of the service interaction from the service quality. Thus, consumer's evaluation of the nature of the service interaction, becomes central to the evaluation of the overall service experience. (Korczynski, 2001). As a result, organizations attempt to manage interaction between their service employees and consumers. Therefore, service employees have become the cynosure of considerable managerial intervention. Thus the focus of consumer service is on intangible part of the interaction i.e., the meaning and experience associated with the interaction. As the service employee works on the boundary of the organization and performs boundary-spanning roles (Tushman, 1977: 587; Friedman & Podolny, 1992), the organization has high stake on how the service employee behaves in service interactions. Since consumer's perception of the service quality is influenced by the manner in which the service employee expresses her/his emotion in service interactions (Pugh, 2001), organizations expect the service employee to manage her/his emotions to make them consistent with a situation, a role, or a desired organizational behavior, which is called emotional labor (Mumby and Putnam, 1992: 472). Emotional labor is the effort put by the service employee to express emotions acceptable to the consumer (Hochschild, 2003; Morris and Feldman, 1996: 987; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 90). Organizations in the service sector are trying

to gain an competitive edge through influencing the meaning and experience of the consumer by performing emotional labor through the service employee. Emotional labor increasingly features in variety of services, for example, hotel and leisure (Bryman, 1999), supermarkets (Rafaeli, 1989), air travel (Hochschild, 2003), fast food (Hall, 1993), nursing home care (Lopez, 2006), and in academics (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004).

Literature Review (Emotional Labour)

Emotion work is the pioneering work for the understanding of emotional labor. Hochschild (1979, 2003) used the term emotion work to refer to any attempt to alter the experience. When the individual undertakes emotion work as part of her/his job it is called emotional labor. In organizational settings, emotional labor is under the control of organizations. Hochschild's (2003) conceptualization of emotional labor involves impression management of service employees. These employees put effort to express emotions acceptable by customers. According to this perspective, the discrepancy between felt and expressed emotion is related to job stress and burnout.

Liu, Perrewew, Hochwarter, & Kachmar, (2004) interpreted emotional labor as the attempt by individual to reduce the discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions. From the perspective of the individual service employee, emotional labor involves individual differences as well as individuals' (re)interpretations of their emotional experiences when examining the causes and consequences of emotional labor. Individual differences may predispose individuals to feel and perceive stimuli in certain ways. This conceptualization emphasizes individual differences as the influencing factor on emotional labor.

Findings from qualitative research shows that all employees find their true feelings do not always conform to their roles (Ashforth & Tourniuk, 2000). As feelings are not spontaneous or automatic, employees modify their display of emotions either by deep acting or by surface acting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1979, 2003). Both deep acting and surface acting represent different intentions. When engaged in deep acting, an actor attempts to modify feelings to match the required display rules whereas in surface acting employees modify their displays without shaping inner feelings (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 2003). Deep acting has been called 'faking in good faith' as the objective is to seem authentic to the audience. Surface acting is called 'faking in bad faith' because the employee tries to adhere to the display rules to keep the job, not to help the customer or the organization (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

Consequences of Emotional Labour:

When the discrepancy between displayed emotions and felt emotions increases it leads to emotional dissonance. Emotional dissonance is the discrepancy between displayed and felt emotions as part of the work role (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Simpson and Stroh (2004) suggest that the critical dimension linking emotional labor to worker well being is emotional dissonance.

Negative Consequences

Lower Job Satisfaction.

Abraham (1998) proposed that increase in emotional dissonance reduces job satisfaction. Consistent to this argument, Cote and Morgan (2002) found that the suppression of unpleasant emotions decreases job satisfaction and increases the intention to quit. The effects of response-

focused emotional labor on distress, is stronger than work complexity, demand, or control (Pugliesi, 1999). Response-focused emotional labor diminishes job satisfaction to a greater degree than the customer demand.

Emotional Dissonance.

Lewig and Dollard (2003) found that emotional dissonance exacerbates the level of emotional exhaustion at high levels of psychological demands. This indicates that jobs combining high levels of demands are much more risky (Lewig & Dollard, 2003). Researchers express that, surface acting is more likely to lead to emotional dissonance (Hochschild, 2003) and emotional exhaustion (Grandey, 2003) than deep acting. Consistent with the argument, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that, surface acting is linked to burnout and lower service performance, while deep acting is positively linked to service performance. Lewig and Dollard (2003) found that emotional dissonance results in emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction beyond that accounted for by psychological demands. They also found that emotional dissonance fully mediates the relationship between positive emotional display and emotional exhaustion which is consistent with the results of Brotheridge and Lee's (1998, cited in Lewig and Dollard, 2003) view that the emotional demands of work do not directly lead to emotional exhaustion but do so through their relationship with emotional dissonance. Hochschild (2003: 90) argued that the effort to maintain a "difference in feeling and feigning over the long run leads to strain", ultimately posing threats to the physical well-being of employees.

Positive Consequences

Staw et al. (1994) emphasized that service employees with positive emotions will be more successful in organizational life than

employees with negative emotions. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) propose that emotional labor can increase self efficacy of the employees and also increase personal wellbeing.

Individual Level Consequences.

The expressions of positive emotions by service employees influence outcomes that are salient to the role occupant like financial wellbeing, mental and physical wellbeing (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Service employees with positive emotions receive favorable evaluations of their performance and get better pay compared to their coworkers (Staw et al., 1994). Staw et al. (1994) found support for the hypothesis that service employees with positive emotion receive social support from supervisors and coworkers. Customer demand is more positively related to the display of positive emotion during transactions with customers (Pugh, 2001; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1990; Tan et al., 2003). This supports the general assumption that service employees use positive emotions to gain control over demanding customers. Cote and Morgan (2002) found that the amplification of positive emotions increases job satisfaction. Staw et al. (1994) found that service employees who display positive emotions are judged by others as sociable, pleasant and likeable. Employees' display of positive emotion increases self efficacy and psychological well-being (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Organizational Level Consequences.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) proposed that expression of positive emotions is related to increased task effectiveness. Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) found that positive emotions of the service employee brings about immediate (increased sales), encore (customer revisit), and contagion gains (spread of good words by the

customer) for the organization. Contradictory to this finding, Tsai (2001) found no support for the relationship between employee display of positive emotions and immediate gains in the context of shoe stores. However, consistent with the findings of Rafaeli and Sutton (1987), he found that when employees display more positive emotions toward customers, customers were more willing to visit the store again and pass positive comments to friends.

Pugh (2001) remarked that the display of positive emotions by the employee is positively related to the customers' positive affect and this positive affect of the customer leads to positive evaluations of service quality.

Service Quality

Various researchers have developed alternate concepts for service quality, like the Nordic view given by Gronroos(1984), American view(Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988). The Nordic view explains the service quality on two dimensions i.e. functional and technical quality. The American view defines service quality on five dimensions, which are, tangibility, empathy, assurance and reliability and responsiveness. Subsequently, three dimensional concept of service quality was developed by Rust and Oliver(1994).The three dimensions given were service product, service environment and service delivery.

Parasuraman et al. defined service quality as the gap between customers' expectations of service and their perception of the service experience. In the service quality literature, expectations are viewed as desires and wants of customers. SERVQUAL consists of two sections: A 22 item section measuring service quality expectations within a specific

sector and a corresponding 22 item section measuring the perception of service quality of a particular company in that sector. SERVQUAL scores were defined as the differences between the expected service quality and the perceived ones. The innovators (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry) have further developed, promulgated and promoted SERVQUAL through a series of publications. Parasuraman et al., for example, discussed the development, testing and potential applications of SERVQUAL, an instrument for measuring customer perceptions. In addition, in 1991 Parasuraman and Berry revealed findings from a follow-up study, in which they refined SERVQUAL. Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry (1988) have provided a multiple item scale SERVQUAL, to measure service quality.

Null Hypothesis

- 1) There is no relation between emotional labor and service quality.
- 2) There is no relation between frequency of interaction with customer and service quality.
- 3) There is no relation between intensity and service quality.
- 4) There is no relation between surface acting and service quality.
- 5) There is no relation between deep acting and service quality.
- 6) There is no relation between variety & service quality.
- 7) There is no relation between number of customers that employee interacts everyday and service quality.
- 8) There is no relation between average duration of interaction with customers by employee and service quality.
- 9) Gender of customers has no relation with customers' experienced service quality.
- 10) Gender of employees has no relation

with customers' experienced service quality

Objectives of the Study

To study the impact of emotional labor on perceived service quality.

Research Design

We also find relationship between dimensions of emotional labor such as frequency of interaction, intensity of emotions, variety of emotions, deep acting and surface acting and job burnout and service quality. We have also considered independent variables such as age of an employee, gender of an employees and gender of customers, etc.

Primary data: Responses for emotional labor from 150 employees of 5 famous hotels of Ahmadabad. Also response on service quality from 150 customers of the same hotels of Ahmedabad was collected. The main criteria of the respondent selection (employees) for primary data collection are following

- (1) Subjects need to be guest-contact employees (face-to-face or voice-to-voice).
- (2) Subjects need to have worked in the same positions for at least six months.

Sample design: The Sampling unit was either an employee or a customer of the 2 star, 3 star, 4 star or 5 star hotels/restaurants or any hotel/restaurants in Ahmedabad region. The

Convenience sampling technique was followed. The sample size was 150 employees and 150 customers for the proposed study.

Data Collection

Data was collected from employees on emotional labour. For clear comprehension instrument was translated in Hindi language. Data on expectations & perception on

service quality was collected from customers of hotels by administering service quality scale as developed by Parasuraman et al(1988).

Research Instruments

Emotional labor scale: Emotional labor scale (Brotheridge & Lee, 1998) is comprised of subscales that measure the six dimensions of emotional labor. The duration of customer interaction is assessed with a single free response question, which asks respondents to identify the actual duration of an average customer interaction. The remaining dimensions are measured with on a five-point Likert response scale (1 = never, 5 = always).

Service Quality Scale

This scale is comprised of subscales that measure the five dimensions of customer perception on service quality. All the 5 dimensions are measured with on a five-point Likert response scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Participants are asked to answer items in response to the stem question; higher scores on each of the subscales represent higher levels of the dimension being assessed.

Data Analysis

Factor Analysis & examination of factor structure: Emotional Labor

Table 1a: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.705
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Sphericity	789.131
Chi-Square	91
df	.000
Sig.	

(Table 1b here)

The construct of emotional labor consists of 14 items. Factor analysis using principal component analysis was performed to check

the underlying factor structure. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity is examined to decide the appropriateness of factor analysis. The KMO score is 0.705, which indicates that a factor analysis is appropriate. The Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant at a level of 0.00, which suggests that the data matrix is not an identity matrix. The Factors extracted by factor analysis are Mix of intensity & Variety, Deep acting, Surface acting, Frequency of interaction & Intensity.

(Table 1c here)

The Cronbach's reliability score for all factors of emotional labor except for frequency of interaction (0.5) is more than 0.7, which indicates that the emotional labor scale has fair reliability with these 5 factors. The acceptable reliability score is > 0.8 (Nunnally, 1978). Moreover, the uni-dimensional scale of emotional labor denotes Cronbach's Alpha score 0.702 which is greater than 0.7 and thus it has fair internal consistency.

Factor Analysis & Examination of Factor Structure: Service Quality:

Table 2a: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.776
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Sphericity	1147.108
Chi-Square	231
df	.000
Sig.	

(Table 2b here)

The construct of service quality consists of 22 items. Factor analysis using principal component analysis was performed to check the underlying factor structure. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling

hence null hypothesis is accepted, which means that, there is no relation between gender of customers and their experienced service quality.

Assessing difference in perceived service quality based on gender (employees): Mann-Whitney Test

Test variable: service quality; Group variable: gender of employees

Ho: Gender of employees does not have any relation with customers' experienced service quality.

H1: Gender of employees has a relation with customers' experienced service quality.

Table 5a: Ranks

	Gender of employees	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Service quality	1	121	74.03	8958.00
	2	29	81.62	2367.00
	Total	150		

Where, 1 = Male; 2 = Female

Table 5b: Test Statistics

	Service quality
Mann-Whitney U	1577.000
Wilcoxon W	8958.000
Z	-.846
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.398

Grouping Variable: gender of employees;
Significance level = .10

Here the significant value $p = 0.398 > 0.10$, hence null hypothesis is accepted, i.e. there is no relation between gender of employees and customers' service quality. Thus, null hypothesis H9 & H10 are accepted implying no statistically significant difference based on gender of customer on service quality score & also gender of employees on service quality score.

Findings

Five factors or dimensions of emotional scale emerged from the present study by applying factor analysis. They are Mix of intensity & Variety, Deep acting, Surface acting, Frequency of interaction & Intensity. Except for one dimension (frequency of interaction), the coefficient alpha score is closer to 0.8 as advocated by Nunnally (1978). One factor (Mix of intensity & variety) that emerged from our study, had items loading from more than one dimension as proposed in the original scale. Hence, it was named as mix of intensity & variety.

Service quality scale items were also subjected to factor analysis and five dimensions viz., mix of reliability & responsiveness; empathy; tangibles; assurance & assurance. Thus, the study did not present a neat factor structure as suggested by the developers of SERVQUAL scale (Parasuraman et al.,). Except, for two dimensions, namely, tangibles & assurance, other two had an coefficient alpha score of closer to 0.8, indicating a good reliability. The last factor of assurance had only one item.

Based on the correlation & regression analysis (table 3a, 3b & 3c), it was found that higher score of emotional labour results in an adverse lower score of service quality. This was suggested by correlation coefficient's sign being negative and also by negative sign of regression standardized coefficient. Also, intensity & surface acting dimensions of emotional labour scale (table 3c) affects service quality evaluations made by customers. From table 3c, it can be seen that when employees interacts with large number of customers, service quality level indicating a drop in the service quality levels. It can also be inferred that, deep acting, frequency of interactions and variety

dimensions do not have any significant relation with service quality score. Also, based on mann whitney tests, result of which is displayed in table 4a, 4b & 5a, 5b, we infer that gender of customer as well as employee does not affect service quality score.

Managerial Implications

Based on the study, it can be inferred that the dimensions or factor structure is slightly different in a study in India compared to where it was developed. For our study, we deduce five factors namely, Mix of intensity & Variety, Deep acting, Surface acting, Frequency of interaction & Intensity. They are same as the original scale except for one difference in first factor which is a mix between intensity & variety. The reliability is of moderate level compared to norms proposed by Nunnally (1978). Till a scale is developed in the Indian context to measure emotional labour, one can rely on this scale in its present form. Managers of service organizations characterized by high level of contact with customers can measure magnitude of emotional labor experienced by their employees dealing with their customers.

One of the findings of the present study is presence of association between higher level of emotional labour & consequential lower level of service quality perceptions of customers. The implication of this relationship for managers is to reduce the level of emotional labour experienced by service employees while dealing with customers. Such steps would lead to lesser adverse evaluations of service quality made by customers and its consequential advantages in terms loyalty, profitability and longer association of customers with the service organization.

One other implication for managers from the present study is related to finding that higher the number of customers that service

employees interacts with, lower is the service quality levels. So, service managers could devise strategies by which more front end employees are employed so that per employee customer interaction is reduced, resulting in more favourable service quality evaluation made by customers.

Service organizations should endeavor to reduce the occasions where service front line employees resort to surface acting. It has been found that surface acting leads to lower level of service quality score. Based on earlier studies we know that deep acting has less harmful consequences compared to surface acting for service organizations. Proper training could be imparted by which employees could be motivated to resort to deep acting rather than surface acting while interacting with customers.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

The study was confined to hotels based in Ahmedabad region of Gujarat. Before generalizations could be made based on findings of present study, replication studies in other states are required. Convenience method of sampling was followed for the study.

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Table 1b: Rotated Component Matrix (a)

VARIABLES	Component				5
	1	2	3	4	
V1				.775	
V2				.815	
V3					
V4	.666				
V5	.737				
V6	.843				
V7	.827				
V8	.585				
V9			.833		
V10			.792		
V11			.713		
V12			.752		
V13			.833		
V14			.729		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table 1c: Reliability Test of Emotional Labor Scale

Dimensions	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items	% of variance
Mix of intensity & Variety	0.802	5	21.29
Deep acting	0.763	3	15.57
Surface acting	0.774	3	14.81
Frequency of interaction	0.595	2	11.7
Intensity	-	1	8.5
Emotional labor	0.702	14	71.9

Table 2b: Rotated Component Matrix(a)

VARIABLES	Component				
	1	2	3 tangibles	4	5
V2♣	.715				
V3	.613				
V4	.598				
V5	.700				
V6	.641				
V7	.663				
V8	.586				
V9		.614			
V10				.551	
V11				.683	
V12					.768
V14♣		.686			
V15		.778			
V16		.720			
V17		.702			
V18			.602		
V19				.683	
V20				.582	
V21			.728		
V22			.758		

♣ Variables 1 & 13 omitted from analysis due to insignificant factor loading.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations and factor loading > 0.45 are shown.

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 2c: Reliability Test of Service Quality Scale

Dimensions	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items	% of variation explained
Mix of Reliability & responsiveness	0.801	7	16.159%
Empathy	0.793	5	14.606%
Tangibles	0.591	3	10.153%
Assurance	0.663	4	9.836%
Assurance	-	1	6.404%
Service quality scale	0.841	20	57.158 %

Table 3a Showing Correlation between Emotional Labor with Service Quality

Serial No.	Dimensions/Variables	Service quality
1	Emotional labor	
2	Intensity	-0.154*
3	Frequency of interaction	-0.067
4	Mix of intensity & Variety	-0.0152
5	Deep acting	0.024
6	Surface acting	0.004
7	Age of customer	0.017
8	Number of customers that employee interacts	0.025
9	Average duration of interaction with customers	-0.149 ♣
		-0.002

Note: * Significant at 0.05 level of significance; ♣ Significant at 0.06 level of significance

Table 3b Showing Regression of Emotional Labor on Service Quality

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sign.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error				Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.580	.288					
	Emo lab mean	-.204	.091	-.180	2.012	.046		
					-2.230	.027	1.000	1.000

Dependent variable: service quality

Table 3c Showing Regression Output of different Dimensions of Emotional Labor on Service Quality

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sign.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.626	.373		1.677	.096		
	deep acting	.018	.057	.029	.316	.752	.758	1.319
	frequency	-.061	.087	-.067	-.702	.484	.726	1.378
	intensity	-.099	.058	-.187	-1.720	.088	.556	1.798
	surface acting	-.104	.055	-.182	-1.894	.060	.708	1.413
	variety	.023	.059	.040	.391	.696	.624	1.602

Dependent variable: service quality

Appendix - 1

Table-1: Sample Composition

HOTEL/RESTAURANT	NO. OF EMPLOYEES	NO. OF CUSTOMERS
A	80	80
B	20	20
C	15	15
D	20	20
E	15	15
TOTAL	150	150

Table-2 Sample Composition: Gender wise

GENDER	EMPLOYEE	CUSTOMERS
MALE	121	118
FEMALE	29	32
TOTAL	150	150

A Review and Comparison of Total Quality Management and Six Sigma

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Abstract

Driven by globalization and liberalization of economies, much of the world is passing into a new phase of social and economic development. Since the mid-1980s, there has been a focus on improving business operations, using many different strategies like ISO 9000, Total Quality Management (TQM), Quality Circles, Management by Objectives (MBO), Zero Defects, Kaizen, Statistical Process Control, Just-in-Time Management (JIT), Total Productive Maintenance (TPM), Lean Enterprise, Business Process Reengineering (BPR), Six Sigma, and a number of other competing approaches for quality and productivity management, and improving business results.

Brilliant and innovative approaches and ideas are replacing the conventional techniques to survive in the global competitive market. All these techniques are well capable of producing the desired results but problem remain with their implementation and longer time span to realize the benefits. The requirement is for a break through strategy, which can have multidirectional benefits in shorter duration. Six Sigma is the most effective breakthrough strategy ever devised. The Six Sigma methodology aims to reduce the number of mistakes / defects in a manufacturing / service process to achieve less than 3.4 defects or errors per million opportunities. Six Sigma quality is the focus of various enterprises to be globally competitive. Six Sigma is a powerful business strategy that employs a disciplined approach to tackle process variability, thus improving quality, business system productivity and financial performance, using the application of statistical and non-statistical tools and techniques in a rigorous manner.

While TQM is useful in its own ways, it often fails to make breakthrough improvements in bottom line and quality. This paper describes some critical examinations relating to comparison of Six Sigma with Total Quality Management with an objective to capture their varied perspectives.

Key words: Total Quality Management, Six Sigma, Customer Satisfaction, Bottom-line Improvement

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Introduction

Quality Management

During the last decades, quality management has been put forward by a numbers of its promoters as a new management theory. Quality management can be described as a management revolution, a revolutionary philosophy of management, a new way of thinking about the management of organizations. Concepts that have been presented and promoted are, for instance, Total Quality Management (TQM), Lean Management, Just-in-Time (JIT) Management, Kaizen, Business Process Reengineering (BPR), Business Excellence, Six Sigma etc.

Total Quality Management (TQM)

In contemporary management, total quality management (TQM) has become the major business strategy. Shrivastava et al, (2006) have shown that TQM is a philosophy with world wide appeal and the principles of TQM have received wide spread attention over the last two decades in many organizations, large or small, profit or non profit, commercial or government, manufacturing or service, etc. Wali et al. (2000) contend that TQM is probability one of the best understood change management program and it is one of the option to confront the global competitive challenge both for manufacturing and service organizations. Mohanty and Lakhe (1998) have shown that TQM is applied the world over for attaining customer satisfaction, variability, productivity, market share, profitability and even survival which are directly affected by the quality of an organization products, services and performance. Total Quality Management (TQM) is an integrative philosophy of management, an organization wide philosophy implemented for continuously improving

the quality of products and processes, defect prevention at all levels and in all functions of the organization, in order to meet or exceed customer expectations, and to gain competitive advantage in today's dynamic markets. It is based on the premise that an organization must build quality into its products and processes, and that everyone in the organization has a responsibility in this effort. The customer is the focus of all the efforts to improve the product and process quality. TQM has been defined in various ways. All pervading characteristics of Oakland (1995) defined TQM as: *"TQM is an approach to improving the effectiveness and flexibility of business as a whole. It is essentially a way of organizing and involving the whole organization, every department, every activity, every single person at every level"*. This definition brings to the forefront the universal nature of TQM and explains the current imperatives.

TQM plays a major role in bringing such a change therefore we define: *"TQM as a holistic management philosophy that strives for continuous improvement in all functions of an organization (marketing, finance, design, engineering, production, logistics, customer services...) to bring about a total change of culture and interlink and integrate everyone, every activity of the organization through involvement, participation and cross-functional management with the aim of improving employees' satisfaction and meeting or exceeding the dynamic needs and expectations of the customers , and thereby gaining competitive advantage."* It is a culture in the sense that it tries to change the value of the organization and its employees as well as their behavior in multiple areas.

TQM provides a framework within which the employees continuously and routinely improve everything they do in order to better meet internal and external customer needs,

and to continuously increase share holder value. TQM encompasses all aspects of organization, right from conception of the product, design and development, manufacturing, distribution and after sales service. Therefore, all the activities such as identifying needs of the customer, optimal use materials and other utilities, production processes, sales and service, etc. are included. It not only addresses the entire organization, it extends even outside. It considers vendors, logistics partners, distributors, C&F agents, even supporting agencies like transporters, packers and finally the customer. TQM creates an organizational culture that is conducive to continuous improvement. Treating every other person receiving help as a customer and directing all efforts to satisfy his needs is the primary purpose of every person in the organization. It promotes an approach of "right from the start" rather than "detects and correct". Figure 1 exhibits elements of TQM.

TQM Meaning

TQM is a management system, not a series of programs. It is a system that puts customer satisfaction before profit.

- (i) Total - everyone associated with the company is involved in continuous improvement (including its customers and suppliers). The "Total" in TQM has four directions; horizontal, vertical, intellectual and strategic. "Horizontal" total means that the unit of analysis is the business process that cuts its way across the organization, starting with external suppliers, passing through operational and/or support groups of the organization, and ending with the final customer: the entire supply chain. "Vertical" total means that all levels of the

organization have adopted the basic quality ethics and apply it in the organizational processes.

- (ii) Quality - Customers' expressed and implied requirements are met fully.
- (iii) Management - Executives are fully committed and the way total quality is conducted and experienced

The Underlying Principles Behind TQM Efforts

- (i) Customer satisfaction/ Delight (*You can fool some people some times not all the times*)
- (ii) Management by facts (*Data based decision-making*)
- (iii) All functions are interdependent (*Quality of means are more important than the quality of the end*)
- (iv) Every workstation is a control point (*Doing the right thing right first time and every time*)
- (v) Continuous improvement (*In true competition, there is no finish line but definitely there are break points*)

(Figure-1 here)

Methodologies and Tools

Tools that are frequently mentioned in the TQM literature include the seven quality control tools (Shewhart, 1980) and (Ishikawa, 1985), and the seven management tools. TQM normally consists of tools that have either a statistical or an analytical base. Evans and Lindsay (1999) have shown that the four staged PDSA improvement cycle is one of the most widespread methodologies in TQM.

Effects

Juran (1989) contend that there are many different approaches to evaluating the possible benefits of TQM. Historically, one of the most common ways to quantify the benefits of quality has been to estimate the costs of poor

quality. The GAO study (1991) has shown that the companies investigated had improved their operating results. Moreover, better employee relations and improved operating procedures had been achieved, greater customer satisfaction had been accomplished, and an increased market share and profitability had been gained. Studies (Hendricks and Singhal; 2001) found a positive relationship between the implementation of TQM practices and company performance, and documented the benefits of TQM such as productivity and quality improvement, and market share.

Hellsten and Klefsjo (2000) have shown that the main objective with TQM is to increase the customer satisfaction. There is a positive correlation between customer satisfaction and the financial results of companies, and there is strong correlation between customer satisfaction and customer loyalty.

Six Sigma

The standards & concepts like ISO 9000, TQM, TPM, JIT etc. look good, but there are gaps as well. The companies started closing the gaps by using the concepts of Six Sigma which was implemented with varied degrees of success in India in all business sectors (eg. private, public, SMEs). Recent developments have included increased organizational and academic interest in the Six Sigma approach to business improvement.

Six Sigma is a methodology that provides businesses with tools to improve the capability of their processes by decreasing variation, which leads to a reduction in defects, improve quality of products and services, employee morale, shorten the product development cycle, and an improvement in profitability and growth. Six Sigma is a disciplined, data-driven approach to process improvement aimed at

the near-elimination of defects from every product, process and transaction. It can be used to improve every facet of business, from production, to human resources, to order entry, to technical support. Six Sigma can be used for any activity that is concerned with cost, timeliness and quality of results. The Six Sigma strategy underlines the need for reliable measure of progress in various domains:

- Customer satisfaction
- Organization profitability
- Human resources
- Quality

Six Sigma activities and achievements, seen mainly in large manufacturing operations, are also becoming more prevalent in small businesses, transactional business processes (e.g., HR, purchasing etc.), and in the service sector as well as in academic setups.

Six Sigma is regarded as a fresh quality management strategy which can replace SQC, TQC, TQM, Kaizen, and other quality management initiatives. There are many success stories of Six Sigma application in well known world-class companies. Six Sigma was pioneered by Motorola and launched as a strategic initiative in 1987. Since then, and particularly from 1995, an exponentially growing number of prestigious global firms including Indian firms have launched a Six Sigma program. Figure 2 presents evolution of Six Sigma.

(Figure-2 here)

What is Sigma?

' σ ' pronounced as 'Sigma' is a letter in the Greek alphabet. It is used to designate the distribution or spread (variation) about the mean of a process i.e. where the process is centered around. Generally most of the values will cluster around the mean value. Values away from the central value will occur with lesser frequency. ' σ ' is called standard deviation.

What is Six Sigma?

Sigma (σ) is a letter that has become the statistical symbol and metric of process variation. The sigma scale of measure is perfectly correlated to such characteristics as defects-per-unit, parts-per-million defectives, and the probability of a failure. Six is the number of sigma measured in a process, when the variation around the target is such that only 3.4 outputs out of one million are defects under the assumption that the process average may drift over the long term by as much as 1.5 standard deviations.

The goal of Six Sigma program is to reduce the variation in every process to such an extent that the spread of 12 Sigmas i.e. 6 Sigmas on either side of the mean fits within the process specifications. Figure 3 explains this concept. This figure also depicts the difference between 3-Sigma and 6-Sigma process. Higher the sigma level, lower is the DPMO number. This is evident from the Table 1 (Harry, 1998). This table indicates how the industries are categorized based on the Sigma Level and Defects per Million opportunities (DPMO).

(Figure-3 here)

(Table-1 here)

Six-Sigma is Defined

Six Sigma has been defined in the practitioner literature in a variety of ways. Harry and Schroeder (2000), in their popular book on Six Sigma, described it as a "business process that allows companies to drastically improve their bottom line by designing and monitoring everyday business activities in ways that minimize waste and resources while increasing customer satisfaction". Seth and Rastogi (2004) have shown that Six Sigma fundamentally focuses on reduction in variability. This technique is a

simple common sense concept for those who understand statistical principles of targeting the mean to the required nominal value and controlling variance around the mean. But it is much more than just a statistical approach to problem solving. It is a company-wide initiative to improve both top line and bottom line through sustained customer satisfaction. The entire movement is driven by the voice of the external customer and concentrates on what is really important for the customer. Studies (Pande et al., 2000) indicate that it involves designing, improving, and monitoring business activities to minimize or eliminate waste while optimizing customer satisfaction and increasing financial stability. Based on our experience—and examples set by the growing number of companies seeking Six Sigma improvement—we've developed a definition that captures the breadth and flexibility of Six Sigma as a way to boost performance:

Definition of Six Sigma

Six Sigma is a comprehensive, flexible and holistic system; an organization wide approach driven by close understanding of customer needs, disciplined use of facts and data, and statistical analysis, for managing and improving business processes (by eliminating variations in processes) having goal of less than 3.4 defects per million opportunities (DPMO) for every process for achieving, sustaining and maximising business success.

Six Sigma Implementation and Management

Six Sigma is about helping the organization make more money by improving customer value, efficiency and productivity. Six Sigma focuses on improving quality (i.e., reducing waste) by helping organizations produce products and services better, faster and cheaper. Six Sigma focuses on customer requirements, defect prevention, cycle time reduction, and cost savings. Thus, the benefits from Six Sigma go straight to the bottom line.

A company's performance is measured by the sigma level of their business processes. Traditionally companies accepted three or four sigma performance levels as the norm, despite the fact that these processes created between 6,200 and 67,000 problems per million opportunities! The Six Sigma standard of 3.4 problems per million opportunities is a response to the increasing expectations of customers and the increased complexity of modern products and processes. Higher the number of sigma, the more consistent is the process output or smaller is the variation. It is particularly powerful when measuring the performance of a process with a high volume of outputs. Six-Sigma is a strategic approach that works across all processes, products and industries. Six Sigma practitioners measure and assess process performance using DPMO and sigma. They apply the rigorous DMAIC and DFSS methodologies to analyze processes and to make improvements in product and service quality and profitability.

The successful implementation of Six Sigma can result in benefits in the areas of cost reduction, increased profit, increased market share and enhanced business competitiveness, mainly by the reduction of the COPQ. COPQ usually includes prevention costs, appraisal costs, internal failure costs, and external failure costs. These COPQ could be saved with the use of Six Sigma.

Methodologies and Tools.

The major components for a successful Six Sigma implementation are management involvement, organization, infrastructure, training and statistical tools. The hierarchy of responsibilities and the roles are: Champions and Sponsors, Master Black Belts, Black Belts, Green Belts, and White Belts.

Pyzdek (2003) has shown that there are two major improvement methodologies in Six Sigma, one for already existing processes and one for new processes. The first methodology used to improve an existing process can be divided into five phases, these are:

- (1) Define: Define which process or product that needs improvement. Define the most suitable team members to work with the improvement. Define the customers of the process, their needs and requirements, and create a map of the process that should be improved.
- (2) Measure: Identify the key factors that have the most influence on the process, and decide upon how to measure them.
- (3) Analyze: Analyze the factors that need improvements.
- (4) Improve: Design and implement the most effective solution. Cost-benefit analysis should be used to identify the best solution.
- (5) Control: Verify if the implementation was successful and ensure that the improvement sustains over time.

Study (Eckes, 2000) indicate that the second methodology is often used when the existing processes do not satisfy the customers or are not able to achieve strategic business objectives. This methodology can also be divided into five phases; define measure, analyze, design, and verify.

There are many similarities between the improvement cycle in TQM and the methodologies of Six Sigma; i.e. the methodologies are cyclical and consist of similar phases. There are usually many different improvement tools used in a Six Sigma programme. Magnusson et al. (2003) have shown that the Six Sigma toolbox contains the seven design tools, the seven statistical tools, the seven project tools, the seven lean tools, the seven customer tools, the seven quality control tools and the seven management tools. The tools are often easy to use in both ongoing and breakthrough improvement projects, but there are also some

more advanced statistical tools in the toolbox. The methodologies in Six Sigma are a further development of the improvement cycle, which first was developed by Shewhart and Deming.

Effects.

Much of the increased interest in Six Sigma programmes is due to the positive financial impact and as a methodology in order to reach business goals.

Criticism.

There has not been published much criticism against Six Sigma, according to the belief of the present authors. The new thing concerning Six Sigma is the explicit linking of the tactical and the strategic goals, according to. For example, statistical techniques are used in a systematic way to reduce variation and improve processes, and there is a stronger focus on results, including customer needs.

Six Sigma & Other Quality Management Initiatives (Quality Management Tools)

Six Sigma approach & deployment make it distinguishable from other quality management initiatives. Figure. 4 indicate the key features that make Six Sigma initiative different from other approaches. The Six Sigma approach involves the use of statistical tools within a structured methodology for gaining the knowledge needed to achieve better, faster and less expensive products and services than the competition. The repeated, disciplined application for the master strategy on project after project, where the project are selected based on key business objectives, is what drives rupees to the bottom line, resulting in impressive profits.

(Figure-4 here)

Six Sigma and Total Quality Management (TQM)

Six Sigma has now evolved from a quality improvement program to an overall business strategy executive system and business-results – oriented program, which seems more total than total quality management (TQM). The difference between TQM and Six Sigma methods is management. (Pyzdek, 2001) has shown that TQM focused on quality and ignored other critical business issues. It emphasizes minimum acceptance requirements and standards, rather than striving for ever-increasing levels of performance

Eight characteristics account for Six Sigma's increasing bottom-line success and popularity with executives, these are bottom – line improvement, senior management leadership, infrastructure roles for six sigma practitioners and leadership, a disciplined approach (DMAIC/DFSS), rapid (3-6 months) project completion, clearly defined measures of success, focus on customers and processes, and a sound statistical approach to improvement. Other quality initiatives including TQM have laid claim to a subset of these characteristics, but only Six Sigma attributes its success to the simultaneous of all eight.

A review of some of the major TQM pitfalls, as well as guidelines on how the Six Sigma system can overcome these limitations is described below:

1. Links to the Business and Bottom-line Success: In TQM, quality often was a “sidebar” activity, separated from the key issues of business strategy and performance. In TQM, the efforts actually were limited to product and manufacturing functions, hence the link to the business and bottom-line success was not given significance, despite the term “total” quality. Six Sigma emphasizes reduction of costs; thereby it contributes to the bottom-line success.

2. Clear Goal: In many companies while implementing TQM, quality was an existing department with specific responsibilities for "quality control" or "quality assurance," where the discipline tended to focus more on stabilizing rather than improving processes. Also TQM emphasizes continuous improvement but does not provide a clear goal at which to aim. Six Sigma is a business system for achieving and sustaining success through customer focus, process management and improvement, and the wise use of facts and data. A clear goal (3.4 DPMO or 6 σ quality level) is the goal of Six Sigma.

3. Senior Management Leadership: In many TQM efforts, senior management's willingness to drive quality ideas has been weak. In fact, senior management involvement is the prerequisite for Six Sigma.

4. Project Team Activities: TQM utilized many "quality circles" of blue-collar operators and workers, and not many "task force teams" of white-collar engineers even if they are needed. Six Sigma demands a lot of project teams of Black Belts and Green Belts, and the project team activities are one of the major sources of top-line and bottom-line success.

5. Effective Training: The training program in TQM was not so systematic. Six Sigma divides all the employees into five groups (Champion, Master Black Belt, Black Belt, Green Belt, and Yellow Belt), and it sets very demanding standards for learning, with the support of the necessary investment in resources to help employees meet those standards. Failure to provide this infrastructure is one of the reasons for failure of TQM

implementations in the past. TQM presented general principles and left it to each organization to decide how to put the principles into practice. Sigma provides a standardized set of guidelines for deployment. Hence Six Sigma enjoys a much higher success rate than TQM.

6. Internal Barriers: TQM was a mostly "departmentalized" activity in many companies, and it seemed that TQM failed to break down internal barriers among departments. Six Sigma places priority on cross-functional process management, and cross-functional project teams, which helps to breakdown internal barriers.

There are six aspects of the Six Sigma strategy those are not emphasized in TQM.

(i) Six Sigma places a clear focus on getting bottom-line results (in hard rupee savings). No Six Sigma project will be approved unless the bottom line impact has been identified.

Munro, 2000 has shown that compared to TQM, Six Sigma is the initiative specifically focusing on the bottom line benefits

(ii) Six Sigma has been very successful in integrating both human aspects (culture change, training, customer focus etc.) and process aspects (variation reduction, process stability, process capability etc.) of continuous improvement. No other approach integrates these two issues as Six Sigma does (Antony, 2007).

(iii) Six Sigma methodology (DMAIC/ DFSS) links the tools & techniques in a sequential manner.

(iv) Six Sigma creates a powerful infrastructure for training of Champions, Master Black Belts, Black Belts, Green Belts and Yellow Belts. (Harry, 1998; Pande et al. 2000).

(v) Six Sigma is a project-based program and each project has to be completed in six months to one year. Therefore, the company will receive the considerable financial benefit in the short term.

(vi) Studies (Pande et al., 2000) indicate Six Sigma organizations are putting process management, improvement, and measurement into action as part of the daily responsibilities of their operating managers. TQM organizations, on the other hand, left their middle managers out of the decision process, and problem-solving authority was transferred to teams over which they had no control. TQM focuses on long-term results and expected financial return is not well defined. Six Sigma creates a sense of urgency by emphasizing rapid project completion within 6 months.

- Improvement results from TQM initiatives are small and do not bring rapid changes. The company implementing Six Sigma visualizes tangible benefits within a period of 1 year.
- TQM provides a vast set of tools and techniques with no clear framework for using them effectively, whereas Six Sigma uses DMAIC/ DFSS methodology for problem solving which successfully integrates a set of tools and techniques in a disciplined manner.
- TQM is motivated by quality idealism, whereas Six Sigma is driven by tangible benefits for all major stakeholders (customers, shareholders, and employees).

Both Six Sigma and TQM have many similarities and are compatible in varied business environments, including manufacturing and service industries. TQM is based on a strategic approach that focuses on maintaining existing quality standards as well as making incremental quality improvements, while Six Sigma is meant for making breakthrough improvements. Six Sigma projects link the activities of the enterprise to its

improvement goals. The costs and benefits of Six Sigma are monitored using enterprise-wide tracking systems that can analyze data in many different ways. In many TQM programs people are unable to identify specific bottom-line benefits. Six Sigma organizations know precisely what they are getting for their investment. TQM loosely monitors progress towards goal, while Six Sigma ensures that the investment produces the expected return. Table 2 presents the difference between TQM and Six Sigma.

Similarities and Differences

Dahlgaard and Dahlgaard (2001) have shown that TQM and Six Sigma concepts also have the same origin, the quality evolution in Japan after the World War II. Similarities and differences between these concepts are presented in Table 2.

(Table-2 here)

Compared to TQM, Six Sigma initiatives are based on a preplanned project charter that outlines the scale of a project, financial targets, anticipated benefits and milestones. Six Sigma is based on DMAIC, DFSS that helps in making precise measurements, identifying exact problems, and providing solutions that can be measured.

Process View and Approach

When the project members reduce the variation in a process, and hence achieve the business goals, increases the profit or lowers the cost, senior management of the company visualizes this improvement. As a result, the six sigma programme receives necessary support from the senior managers of the company, as the managers recognize the economical impact of it. This is one reason for the documented successes of Six Sigma compared with TQM, i.e. Six Sigma programmes talk the senior managers'

language (the economical gains of the improvement).

While Six Sigma focuses on performing improvements mainly through projects, TQM has sometimes a different approach. TQM emphasizes the commitment and involvement of all employees. In TQM, there is also, like Six Sigma, a strong focus on processes. It is the authors' opinion that the main objectives of the process work within TQM are to alternatively improve and uniform the processes.

Tools

In general, Six Sigma programmes have been successful at integrating advanced improvement tools with the methodologies. The tools range from design tools to management tools and from very simple tools to more advanced statistical tools. In general, Six Sigma programmes have successfully emphasized the statistical part in quality management.

Effects

In a Six Sigma programme, the projects are selected in such a way that they are closely tied to the business goals or objectives. The company's business goals are normally set in such a way that customers' needs will be satisfied. Before starting a Six Sigma project, one must prove that the improvement will result in economical savings for the company. This result in the fact that all improvements in a Six Sigma programme are economically justified.

Criticism

A number of organizations have put a large amount of resources on implementing TQM, but with no tangible improvements achieved. Magnusson et al. (2003) have shown that there is a difficulty in Six Sigma programmes to exceed the

customer's needs and hence increase the customer satisfaction. To avoid this problem some companies use voice of the customer tools in their define phase. Furthermore, in Six Sigma training programmes one can only start a project which gives a certain amount of savings. The project normally leads to an improvement in the department of the project members, but due to the performed change, another department can experience deterioration. As a result, Six Sigma is sometimes accused for not having a system view.

Discussion

The presented concepts show many similarities between TQM and Six Sigma. However, the package of quality tools, the attention to financial result, the infrastructure for Six Sigma, the sustaining of the gains, and the focus of the problem solving methods of projects are new approaches in Six Sigma compared to TQM. TQM is often accused for being blur and unclear, and it is, therefore, the authors' opinion that Six Sigma can be appropriate approaches for organizations in order to make important progress in the field of quality management.

TQM has the limitations such as it is not a programmed approach, rather philosophical in nature. It does not show dramatic results (it can never substitute innovation or invention). It is too slow (tortoise speed). The usual time span is of the order of 3-5 years to demonstrate results, which varies from industry to industry. It is easy to talk about customer satisfaction and continuous improvement in TQM but most often the picture is unclear due to lack of the right type of performance measures. To measure involvement at all levels and in all functions it requires the establishment of the right interface and their development, viz. marketing with production, marketing with physical distribution, purchasing with accounts, store and manufacturing, etc. It is

not as easy as it appears to be, since quality requirements in all the cases are different. Most of the time, people talk about practicing quality tools and claim that they are practicing TQM. Just the application of tools/techniques is not TQM. It may end up as a form filling exercise if not managed properly.

Limitation of other Tools

Many organizations have earlier tried Downsizing, Outsourcing, Activity based costing, Business process reengineering, Just in time, Kaizen, Quality Circles & TQM for improving quality and business results. These tools are useful in their own ways, but they often fail to make breakthrough improvements in bottom line and quality. Kaizen, for example, means doing little things better and continuously reaching for better standards, work well till 3 or 4 Sigma in specific processes. These small improvements may not necessarily translate into overall business improvement. This is because Kaizen only uses basic tools. The organization will have to use sophisticated tools like QFD, FMEA, DOE, MSA, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), etc. to achieve optimum throughput at minimum cost and to achieve 5 or 6 sigma standards. Six Sigma employs all these tools. It is also a mindset that enables people of an organization to change the way they work by making them more data-driven. Six Sigma takes people away from intuition – based decision – what we think is wrong, to fact-based decisions- what we know is wrong. In Six Sigma organizations political influence is minimized, corporate politics are eliminated and a “show me the data” attitude prevails. Politics are much less an influence in Six Sigma organizations than in TQM organizations. The Six Sigma philosophy focuses the attention of everyone on the stakeholders for whom the

enterprise exists. Well-designed management systems and business processes operated by happy and satisfied employees in Six Sigma organizations cause customers and owners to be satisfied or delighted. Scholarly research has shown Six Sigma organizations perform significantly better in the long run than their traditional counterparts and organizations implementing TQM.

Conclusion

Six Sigma improvement drive is the latest and most effective technique in the quality engineering and management spectrum. Six Sigma as a powerful business strategy has been well recognized as an imperative for achieving and sustaining operational (process) effectiveness, producing significant savings to the bottom line, improving business profitability and thereby achieving organizational excellence.

Unlike other quality improvement programme like TQM, Kaizen, Suggestion Schemes, Quality Circles, Lean etc., the unique feature of the Six Sigma quality improvement program is that it makes one aware of the progress at every step. The technique is quantitative and focused towards improvement. This results in a pinpoint approach rather than a fuzzy goal of “continuous improvement” as projected by TQM. The improvement drives such as TQM is useful in its own ways, but it often fails to make breakthrough improvements in bottom line (profitability, return on investment etc.). While TQM has helped many companies in improving the quality of manufactured goods or services rendered, Six Sigma has the potential of delivering even better results. TQM is well capable of producing the desired results but problem remain with its implementation and longer time span to realize the benefits. Six Sigma initiative need to be employed for accelerating innovations and continuous improvement activities in achieving operational and business excellence

and to match the needs of the modern business in the 21st century. And that this Six Sigma culture is supportive of change, and the employees develop the skills and behaviors necessary to reinforce and practice Six Sigma efforts at the level of individual jobs and work processes, and deploy the program to not only manufacturing processes but also to processes related with administrative and office works, HR, logistics, technical education systems, etc.

Abbreviations

TQM – Total Quality Management,
ISO – International Organization for Standardization,
JIT – Just in Time,
TPM – Total Productive Maintenance,
BPR – Business Process Reengineering,
SPC – Statistical Process Control,
MBO – Management by Objectives, ,
SMEs – Small and Medium Sized Enterprises,
SQC – Statistical Quality Control,
TQC – Total Quality Control,
DPMO – Defects per Million Opportunities,
COPQ – Cost of Poor Quality,
DMAIC – Define Measure Analyze Improve & Control,
DFSS –Design for Six Sigma,
DMADV –Define Measure Analyze Develop & Verify,
QC – Quality Control,
JQI – Juran Quality Improvement,
QMS – Quality Management System,
QFD – Quality Function Deployment,
FMEA – Failure Mode Effects Analysis,
DOE – Design of Experiments,
MSA – Measurement System Analysis.

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Fig. 1 Elements of Total Quality Management

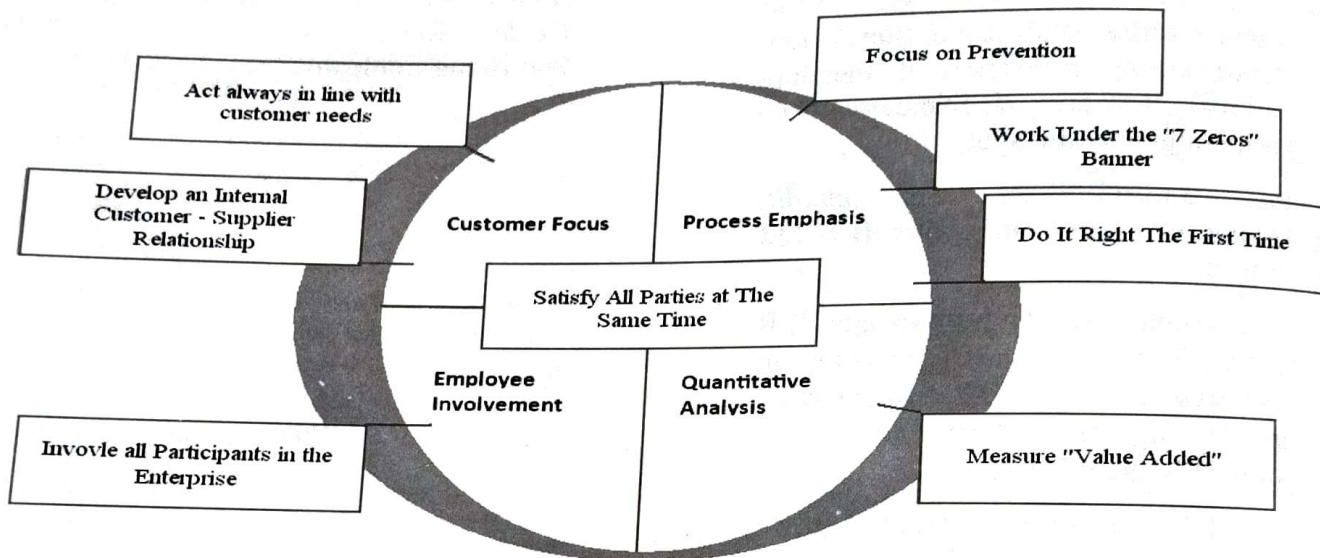


Fig. 2 Evolution of Six Sigma

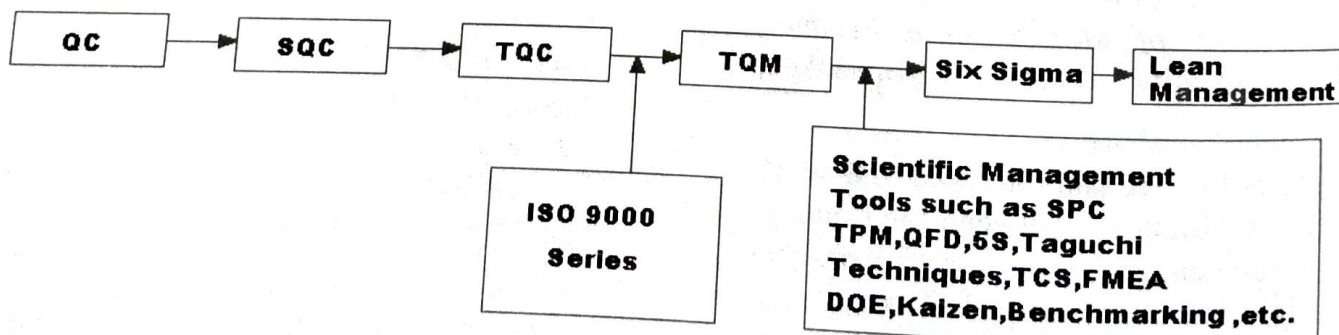
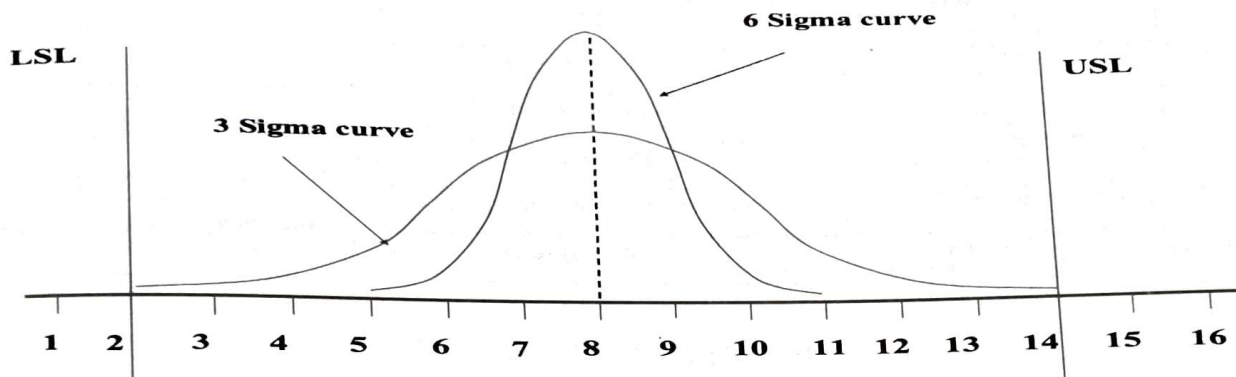


Figure 3: Six Sigma Concept (Desai, D. and Desai, T;2008)



In a 3 sigma process the values are widely spread along the center line, showing the higher variation of the process. Whereas in a 6 Sigma process, the values are closer to the center line showing less variation in the process.

Figure 4: Key Features that make Six Sigma Initiative different from other Approaches

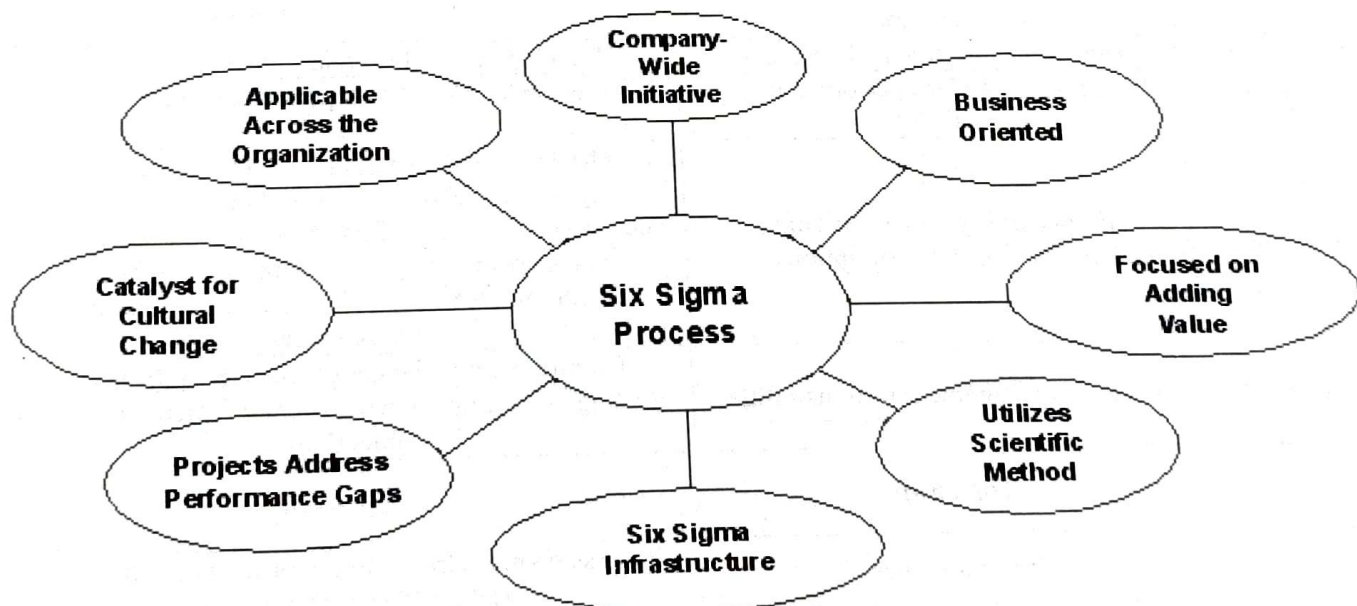


Table 1 Sigma Level and DPMO defining Class of Industry

Sigma level	Defects per million opportunities(DPMO)	Cost of poor quality(COPQ)	Industry class
6	3.4	< 10% sales	World class
5	230	10 to 15% of sales	
4	6,200	15 to 20% of sales	Average
3	67,000	20 to 30% of sales	
2	3,10,000	30 to 40% of sales	Non-competitive
1	7,00,000	>40% of sales	

Table 2: TQM vs. Six Sigma

Concept	TQM	Six Sigma
Origin	The quality evolution in Japan	The quality evolution in Japan and Motorola
Nature	Philosophy	Technique
Objective	Customer satisfaction through high quality products.	Monetary benefit through customer satisfaction.
Focus (Theory)	Focuses on customers	No defects-Focuses on strategic goals and applies them to cost, schedule and other business metrics.
Goals	Goals are developed by quality department based on quality criteria and the assumption that what is good for quality is good for the organization.	Goals flow down from customers and senior leadership's strategic objectives. Goals and metrics are reviewed at the enterprise level.
Approach	Total employee involvement and commitment	Project management
Development	Developed by technical personnel	Developed by CEOs and senior management
Standard	Focuses on standard performance e.g. ISO 9000	Focuses on World – Class performance e.g. 3.4 PPM error rate
Emphasis	Emphasizes problem solving , emphasizes on assumptions	Emphasizes breakthrough rates of improvement. Six Sigma emphasizes the importance of data and decision making based on facts and data. Six Sigma forces people to put measurements in place. Measurements must be considered as a part of the culture change.
Management	Listing of management responsibilities	Commitment and clear objectives for projects, creating an organizational structure which pursues the objectives.
Executive role	Top down	Top down
Organization	Process owner	Process owner (Green Belts), project officer (Black Belts), Master Black Belts
Project Management	PDCA (model for continuous improvement)	DMAIC / DMADV approach
Tools & Techniques	Provides a vast set of analytical tools and techniques.	Provides a vast set of statistical and advanced tools and techniques and a clearly defined framework for using them to achieve results (such as DMAIC, DMADV).

Concept	TQM	Six Sigma
Process Approach	TQM places focus on continuous improvement.	Six Sigma strategies places clear focus on achieving measurable and quantifiable financial return to the bottom – line of an organization.
Process view	Improve & uniform processes	Reduce variation & improve processes
Infrastructure	A functional specialty within an organization	Involves role of dedicated change agents. Focuses on cross functional value delivery streams rather than functional division of labor.
Methodology	Plan, Do, Study, Act	DMAIC/DMADV
Customer Orientation	Explicit	Implicit
Easiness	Easier to implement	Tough to implement in terms of goals
Cost	Usually moderate, Major indirect expenses are enmass training on topics like data analysis, creativity, communication, promotional expenses to demonstrate management commitment. Direct expenses are mostly towards consultants.	Medium to high investment is required, depends on projects, Expenses are on exhaustive training in statistical techniques, soft wares etc. Cost varies across industries, size and even from one unit to another.
Primary effects	Increased customer satisfaction	Achieves business goals & improves financial performance
Secondary effects	Achieves customer loyalty & improves performance	Save money
Impact on employees	Creates a corporate culture for perfection, improves the educational level of employees and their sense of belonging enhances their motivation level and they become conscious about efficiency and effectiveness.	It brings cultural and perceptual changes in the organization. The employees start seeing all problems with a quantitative approach, rather than with qualitative and biased opinions.
Criticism	No tangible improvements	Does not have a system view

POLICE-PUBLIC RELATIONS: AN ANALYSIS

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Abstract

In this paper attempt is made to analyse the inter-relationship between the police and public in the changing scenario of the present. The factors influencing the relationship are examined. As we are aware that the police require a distinct place in society, the police will have to create an image as a friend of public by showing willingness to assist the public in variety of human or societal conditions. Moreover, police should generate the confidence among the people they serve. But due to peculiar problems of our country, it is a very difficult for the police to rise up to the public expectations. In order to maintain the values of parliamentary democracy police and public will have to come closer and develop healthy relations in the society. This paper explores different dimensions of police - public relationship.

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We, in the 21st century, are in a time of worldwide political, social and technological change. We see more emerging democracies and more consciousness of rights. As such changes happen, there is increasing interest in the role of the police as an institution in a democratic society. Police being primarily responsible for the enforcement and regulatory functions of the state and operating in the area of interface between the rights of individuals and limitations put on them by the state, its performance determines to a great extent the people's perspective about the government of the day. In a democratic polity police functions are expected to be based on their willing acceptance by the community in contrast to it being exercised as power either real or assumed; the more the distrust between the community and the police, the more the latter will have to take recourse to formal laws and coercion. Conceptually, the inter-relationships between the Society, the Government and the Police can be termed as those between the environments, the system and the agency - Society being environment, the Government the system and the police the relevant agency. In the present context what we see is rapid changes within the environment i.e. the society on account of massive population growth, assertiveness of various component sections, and conflicting demands for sharing the limited resources including the power structure. According to Prof. Paul Kennedy the major parameter to gauge the efficacy of societies and Governments to meet the challenges of twenty-first century would be "their capacity to quickly change and adjust structures and organisations" corresponding to the challenges. However, in India, though problems are massive, these are not matched by a corresponding flexibility including conceptualisation within the government system to evolve and change itself in accordance with societal demands. Though in a democratic set-up the functioning of the government is supposed to be in accordance with the will of the people, in actual practice it is perceived by large sections of the people to be in the hands of a self-perpetuating ruling elite. Further, in India the problem is accentuated on account of the country's vastness, lack of homogenous population and as many segments

of it are frequently dissatisfied with the policies and actions of the Government of the day. Police being at the cutting edge of the governmental system and being seen as the visible manifestation of the coercive apparatus, its task in rising up to the public expectation becomes quite complex and difficult.

David Bayley (1977) contended that democracy, development and welfare are defined by the lay citizens in terms of their perception of the police role and cognitions and experience of police behaviour vis-à-vis socio-political situations in the country. The police citizen relationship in all societies is essentially a situation, dependent upon two major variables which are as follows:

- [1] The ideological values of the political system, which the rulers of the country profess or prefer to practice in relation to the bulk of the citizenry; and;
- [2] The operating socio-cultural norms, which tend to condition the bureaucratic ethos of the administrative structure, more so in a developing society.

The entire public administration is for the citizens but police administration, due to its functional nature and scope, has to be all pervading. Its positive activities may not directly affect the day-to-day life pattern of all citizens in their immediate ramifications, but their absence certainly threatens their very security as well as survival. The police exist for the regulation and service of the society by preventing offences and bringing offenders to book. Like wise the police require assistance, co-operation and help of the citizens for the efficient and effective discharge of their functions. In police work, like investigation, prevention of crime, intelligence information collection and maintenance of law and order, the need of public co-operation is always urgent and even inevitable. Police work, being social and socially critical, cannot be performed in a vacuum. Rather, the policemen reflect the values and attitudes of the public they tend to serve. But the police and the community in India, according to P.D.Sharma (1981), are not functioning the way they ought to and the hiatus between the two has widened beyond

expectations of a democratic, socialist and secular society.

It is a general belief that a large section of people do not hold good opinion of the police and their role performance, because of their limited contacts with police. The awareness of the people about the police work and the role is very low, as most of them feel that the role of the police is confined to the twin objectives of maintenance of peace and protection of life and liberty of the citizens. The roles of the police in the areas of crime prevention, investigation, prosecution and implementation of social legislation and the like are little known to public. As regards the role performance, only a very small section of community accepts that the police are helpful. On the contrary, a large section of Indian society feels that the police functions with partiality, favouritism and injustice. Police and public lack the mutuality of trust, people doubt the honesty and integrity of the policemen and complain about their high headedness, where as the policemen in general feel that the public do not co-operate with them and are irresponsive and complaining sort. P.D.Sharma (1981) says both of them accept that their members are generally non co-operative, indifferent, often hostile and rarely friendly with each other.

Police by their courteous behaviour and proper performance of their task can certainly improve their image by adopting sympathetic attitude towards the complainants visiting the police station that would enable them to earn good will of the people. The policemen should understand that they are friends and not masters of the people. The police, if it does not act impartially, honestly, then breed a very unsatisfactory image. The following reasons are ascribed for poor image of police by H.L.Kapoor (1982):

- [1] Misuse of power and willful negligence of duties by the police at times.
- [2] Illegal actions like instituting false cases, malicious prosecution of innocent persons, illegal searches and arrests, use of coercive methods, non-registration of cases etc.

- [3] Involvement of certain policemen in blatant crimes.
- [4] Removing valuables and properties from a scene of crime.
- [5] Discourteous and arrogant behaviour with citizens.
- [6] Corruption and nepotism in performance of duties.
- [7] Infliction of brutalities and atrocities on public and particularly to the suspects.
- [8] Excessive use of force in dealing with strikes, demonstrations, agitations and often resorting to unjustified lathi-charge or even firing.
- [9] Extensive violations of human rights by policemen at times at the instance of vested interests.

The above reasons are not wholly unfounded. It is the honest application of law, impartiality, efficiency that counts for the building of police image.

It is a fact that the police and the public have failed to live up to a concept of relationship, which unfortunately was never established between the two in Indian history.

Theoretically speaking, if one were to analyse the nature of the police profession and the various sections of the society involved in various ways in police work at different levels of police administration, one can visualise few dimensions of police-public relationship.

- [1] The police have to inculcate extreme hostility with the criminal variety of citizens and have to deal with them with absolute strictness.
- [2] The police has to be extremely friendly, guardian like and affectionate to all those who happen to be the victims of crime and criminals in the society.
- [3] The police have to have good cordiality, civility and decent human like politeness with great mass of people.
- [4] People should co-operate and help the police in policing task in a legitimate way.

The factors responsible for poor police-public relationship are not only varied but fluctuating.

They have to be identified and studied in continuity and in a constant manner. The total picture of the relationship has to be viewed in terms of the profiles of both (the Police and the Public) and the environment in which they have to live with that relationship for the attainment of the specific objectives. The specific objectives of police-public relationship in a democratic administration are of a welfare state. Some concrete and workable steps are essential by which confidence can be infused and built up in relationship which has to be essentially a relationship of mutual affection, bilateral trust and popular service to the society. The police-public relationship represents two-way traffic and unless both of them feel equally involved, a healthier and vigorous relationship between the two cannot be sustained for long. For this, a number of organisational, personnel, procedural and behavioural reforms in the organisation of police need to be introduced in a big way. To make people's role purposive in the assessment of police effectiveness, a suitable mechanism of voluntary participation and effective co-operation by the citizens has to be evolved.

In this context, it may be mentioned that in Surat city (Gujarat) the Surat Police Commissionerate, attempted to bring about a better relationship between the police and public, the "Friends of Police" scheme was introduced by an erstwhile Police Commissioner. The programme functioned adequately well, but after the Police Commissioner was transferred the scheme fell out of favour. Similar schemes/programmes were also tried out in the states of Tamilnadu and Andhra Pradesh.

Public opinion of the police varies from country to country, in some countries police stand as the symbol of security and protection, while in some other countries the police are viewed as an object of terror and hatred. In India, public distrust of the police is very great and the police have never enjoyed love, respect and friendliness from the general public.

Police represent only a small fraction of the public they serve, and can never adequately discharge their obligations to protect life and property unless they are reinforced by the good

will and co-operation of the public. It is highly important that the citizen and the policeman understand and appreciate each other's problems and view points. The citizens have definite obligations in this matter. Citizens must realise that their security and welfare are dependent upon the maintenance of an orderly society, which in turn is dependent upon the efficiency and prestige of police. The police, on other side, must always remember that law enforcement is not an end in itself, but is rather a means to an end. That end is the maintenance of an orderly society that enjoys the support of law-abiding citizens.

The building of proper relations and attitudes between the police and the public will result in a high degree of popular acceptance. Despite the difficulties in cultivating public contact, every effort must be made to create as many favourable contacts as possible between the police and the public. It is essential because the cumulative effect created by these manifold contacts determines the state of police public relations.

The overall picture of the police in India, which emerges from the reports of various committees and commissions right from 1860 till today, is not satisfactory. The public views are highly critical of police efficiency, behaviour and integrity. Public is losing confidence, as observed by the National Police Commission appointed in 1977, in the existing arrangements to control the abuse of powers by police and also in the ability of the police to deal effectively with the law and order and crime situation in the country.

The police system during British era was not working appropriately as envisaged in the Police Act of 1861. The Indian Police Commission of 1902-03 had observed, the police far from being efficient were corrupt and oppressive and pointed defects in training and organization. The report of the Police commission (1903) concluded that "the Police force throughout the country is in a most unsatisfactory condition, that abuses are common everywhere, that this involves great injury to the people and discredit to the Government and that radical reforms are

urgently necessary. These reforms will cost much, because the department has hitherto been starved, but they must be effected”.

The report of the National Police Commission (1977) also observed more or less same situation about the police in India. In its first report, it presents the picture of Indian police in the following words,

“Police performance in India today is under close review and critical assessment by a demanding public in far greater measure than at any time in past. Increasing crime, rising population, growing pressure of living accommodation, particularly in urban areas, violent outbursts in the wake of demonstrations and agitations arising from labour disputes, agrarian unrest, problems and difficulties of students, political activities including the cult of extremists, enforcement of economic and social legislation etc. have all added new dimensions to police tasks in the country and tended to bring the police in confrontation with the public much more frequently than ever before. Functioning under the constraints and handicaps of an outmoded system, police performance has undoubtedly fallen short of public expectation.”

National Police Commission had analysed the situation carefully, and had made comprehensive recommendations. In its report National Police Commission emphasized good relation with the public in the following words,

The Police Commission (1977) recommended “in order to establish good relations with the public, render help to public who are in distress, promptly obtain all information of interest, undertake surveillance work, all rural and urban areas should be divided into convenient beats and specific number of policeman should be put in-charge of each beat. The advantages gained by having an effective beat patrolling system would be invaluable.”

The recommendations of the National Police Commission have not been put into effect yet. The direct contact definitely strengthens the police-public relations. Today the police have not risen up to the reasonable level of public

expectations due to variety of reasons but most striking reason is political interference. The National Police Commission had pointed out that the time had gone when the political leaders allowed the police to function honestly and efficiently with public interests. In fact, political elements dominate the working of police today. The police have become the mechanism of political party in power and correspondingly losing the confidence of people of the country. National Police Commission has suggested several changes in structure and functioning of police organization but was placed in cold storage by the government. The National Police Commission had emphasized necessary attitudinal changes in the police behaviour and suggested that the training programmes need to be so redesigned that the message of service and welfare goes to the trainees. They should also be helped in understanding the democratic values and people's right to dissent and changing their behaviour accordingly. Right attitude of the police is essential in a democratic set up while performing police task which may capture confidence and trust of the people. The system of community policing may be helpful in cultivating right attitude of the police towards the public.

Community Policing

The Padmanabhaiah Committee on Police Reforms (2000) also advocates the healthy police-public relations which can be ensured through the philosophy of community policing. The committee recommended that “the Indian police should adopt the philosophy of community policing. The government of India should support this by bringing out a hand book on the subject, providing training inputs and funding pilot projects.”

According to Jaytilak Guha Roy (1999), there is a necessity to evolve the system of community policing which will explore the possibilities of involvement of the people in policing task. The system should improve the number and quality of citizen's contact with police. The basic idea of such participatory approach in policing task is to generate confidence among the people and thereby creating healthy relationship between the police and public which will help in bringing

organisational improvement, attitudinal and functional improvement for better functioning.

The Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, realised the long-felt need to bring reforms in policing task in India which will replace the colonial Police Act of 1861 and for that a committee of experts was constituted under the Chairmanship of Dr Soli J. Sorabjee in September 2005. The committee was given the task to draft a new Police Act that could meet the growing challenges to policing and fulfil the democratic aspirations of the people. The committee has drafted Model Police Act having 16 chapters and 221 sections. The Draft Police Act (2006) stipulates the social responsibilities of the police in chapter six and emphasizes that the police will be governed by the principles of impartiality and human rights, values and norms. If the proposed Police Act is implemented then it will, certainly, reduce the distance between police and public. The model Police Act has generated new hope for creating a modern, effective, responsive and popular police force that would assist India in its endeavour towards becoming strong economic power in the world providing prosperity and well being to all its citizens.

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Rural Retail in India: A Peep In

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Rural Retail in India: An Introduction

'Peepli Live' is released and the urban population has thronged the theatres to peep in the lives of the rural counterpart. But just like in the film, villages do not get all that media attention, nor marketing. This is despite the fact that rural consumer market was still flourishing and growing when urban India was facing a slowdown in 2008. Currently India is recuperating from this slowdown and the next level of growth for marketers, including organized retailers is speculated to come from rural India as half of the domestic retail market exists there. Per capita income has grown by 50% in rural India on account of improved infrastructure and increased productivity. A lot of initiatives have been taken by the government and private organization in the growth of rural India. A number of organizations have got into contract farming, thus improving the quality and quantity of the farm produce. A large number of retailers are eyeing rural India, but need to devise customized models to serve rural markets. Some of them are Pantaloon Godrej's joint venture (Aadhar), Hindustan Unilever (Shakti), DCM (Hariyali Kisaan Bazaar) and Mahindra & Mahindra (Shublabh)².

Rural India with about six lakh odd villages bought more of certain categories than urban India. This meant more business from rural India for telecom operators, automobile and FMCG, etc. Of these, only about 10,000 villages are exposed to organized retailing. The market for fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) like soaps, shampoos, skin-creams and tea grew at 20% plus in rural India, compared with 12-14% in cities. Maruti Suzuki generates 10 % of its sales from rural sales. With increased media penetration and improved connectivity, rural consumers have become more aware and this is reflected in 15% growth in durables, 23% in FMCG and in telecom at 13% in rural markets. Rural consumers spend 35% of their income on food and 13% on fast moving consumer goods

(FMCG), which accounts for 57% of the market share of the industry.

Traditionally rural retailers have been selling food, drink, stationery, hardware, clothes all in one store of not more than 150-200 square feet. Rural India is not behind urban India when it comes to shopping. Rural India which constitutes 70% of the Indian population has immense potential to be tapped. Exposure to the outer world, with the penetration of cable television and DTH, has blurred the contrasting differences in the lifestyles of rural and urban India.

ITC opened its first rural hypermarket 'Choupal Sagar' at 'Sehore' in MP, about 100 km from the capital. Future group launched its pilot project at 'Shrirampur' in Ahmednagar district of Maharashtra as 'Aadhar shopping Mall' in mid June 2009. The largest and the biggest retailer in the world, 'Wal-Mart' is a most suited example of a successful rural venture. Sam Walton started retailing from one of the most underdeveloped regions of the United States in 1950 with a small store in a rural Arkansas village with a population of 3,000. He expanded the business by developing a chain of small stores in the nearby towns and states, and in 1962 decided to open a small supermarket called Wal-Mart. He was successful in his venture as he bought directly from suppliers and could save on the costs by building a distribution centre network. Later in 1970s, he opened large-format discount stores and added small format neighbourhood stores in late 1990s.³

Rural Consumer

In a primary study it was observed that rural consumers buy more often as compared to their urban counterparts. Being more price sensitive, they buy smaller packs, which led to the sachet revolution in India. The income is unpredictable, owing to different sizes of land owned by the households and deferred

² "Rural India Promises Growth for Retail", The Times of India, April 08, 2009.

³ 'Impact of Organized Retailing on the Unorganized Sector', ICRIER, May 2008

productivity. Majority of them consider shopping destinations as point of social interaction. A classic traditional example is 'haats' and fairs organized in villages. India is a diverse country, which is reflected in rural India with literacy rates of Kerala being 90% and Bihar being 44%. Thus awareness for different brands vary. In most cases, various tools of marketing communications doesn't work, except for personal selling. 'Haats' being the popular form of trading activity is successful because of its reciprocity involved as a number of villagers from nearby villages come to sell their produce or goods also purchase from the *haats*. Rural consumers are not necessarily looking for cheap products, but value for money. The definition of their 'value' is different from the urban consumers, and this is what needs to be understood by the retailers to succeed in rural Bharat. There have been success stories of brands, which have suited their marketing strategies to the rural market. The communication must be inclusive, and persuasive, as the rural consumer is difficult to change, but once convinced, they stick around for a longer period of time. The most trusted form of communication for them is word of mouth.

Bottlenecks

Rural market is a difficult proposition, even for retailers who have been successful in the urban India. Though road and railway network in India is improving, the infrastructure, including intermittent supply of power, water, remain a bottleneck. The conditions of road lead to a poor distribution. The unstable and erratic income linked to the produce leads to a varying consumption pattern in villages. The biggest threat is the stiff competition for the generations old shops and shopkeepers, who understand the need of their catchment, give away products at free-flowing credit, with strong personal selling skills and customized communication. Long gestation period for organized retailers deter them to enter this market.

Conclusion

For retailers to be sustain in the rural market, they need to customize their products to suit, not just the needs, but the taste of the rural consumer. They need to understand, what stand for value to them and accordingly price and promote the store. In one of the RMAI workshops, Dr. Jagdish Sheth suggests to improve marketing on four As. The rural retailers need to work harder on accessibility and affordability, not just awareness and acceptability. The rural retailing is dominated by 'haats' and weekly bazaars in India. The organized retailers need to replicate the same environment inside the stores, so as to make the customers comfortable. In terms of sourcing and distribution, the villagers need to be included, so that they see value in the entire chain, and thus believe in the concept of organized retailing. The formats need to be designed to attain critical mass and thus a sustainable business model.

CASE STUDY

Lessons in Group Decision-Making

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Introduction

Armed with a lot of information and knowledge gained in classes and case studies as well as while working on projects, a typical student fresh out of B-school faces the corporate world wondering how is he/she going to *implement* it all. The position of such a student is not very dissimilar to a participant in a training programme on 'soft skills' who wonders likewise about various behavioral concepts and models that he/she has been exposed to during the programme. While a B-school grad approaches a student-to-practitioner transition, participants of a corporate training programme face the prospect of the effects of the programme waning soon after getting back to the daily grind. The challenge that individuals and organisations face is to be able to transfer 'learnings' from a course/training programme to the workplace. While expounding on behavioral change is beyond the scope of this case, I would offer an example to illustrate two key points:

- i) The idea of a theoretical concept/model being a *tool* to be used appropriately for a relevant situation, and
- ii) The perspective of being *consciously aware* of self, others and one's environment in order to be able to apply the right behavioral tool in a situation.

I recount below an experience where I was able to dive into my 'tool box' of such theoretical models and consciously use them to help me arrive at a decision at a crucial stage in a critical project.

The Context

This scenario happened in one of the world's spectacular locales: the region of Mt. Everest! All mountains which are climbed have a crucial camp at the base: the Base Camp (BC). Normally, it is possible for one to walk up to a base camp. It is beyond such a camp that

special mountaineering skills are required to progress up a mountain. The 'project' that I was involved in was as follows: as a director in an adventure travel company, I was leading a group of 18 clients on one of the world's most well known and exclusive trekking routes: the Everest Base Camp Trek! After having hiked for 6 days from a small airport in the Nepalese Himalaya, we were now lodged at Gorak Shep, the last halt on the route, from where one trail goes to the actual base camp and another climbs up to a spot called Kala Patthar (KP). Both involve day-trips. The fact is, one can't see Everest from EBC. So people go to KP to have one of the grandest views in the world: Mt. Everest and its equally awe-inspiring neighbours! Our itinerary had three nights at Gorak Shep, in order to give us a shot at reaching both 'points', KP and EBC, weather permitting. It is inadvisable to extend one's stay at that place for more than 3-4 days because i) it is difficult for all group members to stay healthy at that altitude for long and ii) in busy summers it is difficult to get accommodation in the guesthouses present there. All members in our group, except for two teenagers, were over 40 years in age, with a few being over fifty. All had worked hard to get into shape before starting this trek. But the trek up to Gorak Shep already had had its impact: we had had to evacuate two members due to non-acclimatization (i.e., non-adjustment) to high altitude. And now three to four members were showing signs of fatigue: dead slow actions even for simple chores like wearing gloves, general apathy and lack of initiative, though mercifully none showed any signs and symptoms of acute mountain sickness. The fastest and easiest way for these people to become healthier and stronger was to lose altitude, i.e., go back. There were of course the others who were remarkably well acclimatized, rearing to go to both 'points' and in no mood to think of going back.

The First Morning

The day we were supposed to go to EBC dawned to bad weather. 'Bad weather' at

about 5,200 m / 17,000 ft means snow, and sometimes winds. We were spared the winds but I awakened that morning to see icicles, some more than a foot long, hanging from the eaves of my guesthouse, and the curious fuzzy whiteness that is 'low visibility' in the mountains. Snow was falling soundlessly, and I groaned at the prospect of spending a day doing nothing but waiting at such a high altitude with some persons in my group obviously not in the pink.

Breakfast time saw the beginnings of a debate amongst my group members on how long to stay at Gorak Shep if the weather continued to be bad beyond the day. Some people wanted to stay on till they could successfully reach both KP and EBC, while others wanted to go back as per our schedule irrespective of whether we managed to reach KP and EBC. By mid-morning, the debate had started turning into an argument, and I realised that I had a classic 'group decision making situation' on my hands! Trekkers coming on the EBC route are apt to be strong minded individuals, to say the least, and our group members were also highly successful individuals in life, given to handling diverse situations and taking decisions on their own. So individuals tended to be strongly opinionated which was making it difficult for the group to arrive at a decision. And we *had* to decide fast on how long we planned to stay there since that decision would in turn affect aspects like room bookings, logistics (cooks, porters, return flight tickets, etc.), food stock, commercials and, most importantly, health considerations.

Stakes Involved

It is important to understand the 'stakes' involved for individual members in order to grasp the situation that arose in our group. One can broadly categorise these stakes as follows:

People related: The EBC Trek is a dream trip that most people plan and prepare for years, gradually gaining experience in hill walking by doing weekend treks as well as two to three Himalayan treks, and then finally arranging for funds and the time to come on the EBC Trek. So, in many ways, there is much at stake for such a person. The biggest factor is the near improbability of someone walking this route again in the future – so the drive to reach at least one of the two 'points' from Gorak Shep is extremely strong in all individuals. For most, the EBC Trek truly is a 'once-in-a-lifetime' experience, where failure to achieve one's personal goal is hard to digest for many.

Environment related: The single most crucial factor at that location was altitude: 5,200 m / 17,000 ft is serious business. To take a reference, this altitude is even higher than the one reached by basic mountaineering courses in the mountaineering institutes in India (they aim for about 4,900 m / 16,000 ft). Coupled with this is the cold: we were residing in sub-zero temperatures. Any downswing in health at such altitudes can be sudden, with recovery fairly improbable; moreover, one can easily get into a life threatening emergency which can be tough to handle with just wilderness first aid skills and may call for measures like helicopter evacuation.

What Followed...

Our group quickly splintered into three clusters, based on what each person thought about our course of action, should the weather continue to be bad on the next day and later. The first cluster was of the fit persons who wanted to stay on till the weather turned good and gave us a chance to 'do' both EBC and KP, even if it meant staying there for as many as 5-6 days. The second cluster had people who clearly were having difficulty coping with the rigors of the trip and wanted to stick to the schedule and return as planned, for 'returning' meant losing altitude, which meant recovery from fatigue, as against staying on at such a high altitude and possibly having one's

condition worsen. The third cluster largely stayed quiet, and it was hard for me to judge as to what its members were thinking. What made matters worse was the well known fact that there are behavioral changes that manifest at high altitudes: people tend to get irritated easily, to be combative, and be substandard in decision making, to cite just a few examples. The atmosphere in the room soon became glaringly frosty, filled with a farrago of doubts, fears, distrust and hopes! Our two Sherpa guides were mute spectators to the goings on, and I decided to restrict my contribution to answering questions on altitude, health, weather, terrain, room bookings and so on.

In extreme conditions, some things become starkly evident. The first cluster soon had its members 'close ranks' and start stating their opinions very aggressively. Members of the second cluster, equally strong individuals, were probably at a slight disadvantage due to their state of physical condition, and so tended to be a bit quieter. At some stage, one member from the third cluster voiced her frustration about the non-conclusive debate, also blaming everybody for not really bothering about those who were quiet! Several options were thrown up, including

- a) Basing the decision on what the majority says (we actually had a show of hands which showed a majority for staying on for long),
- b) Splitting the group into two and having one group stay on and the other to turn back as per schedule, and
- c) Postponing the decision till the next day.

The Personal Relationship Angle

I personally knew most of these people, had trekked with many before, and my relation with every individual was extremely friendly. Given the nature of our business, it was very

normal for us to have many clients become our long-standing friends. Most were 'old clients' of my adventure travel company, and those who had not walked with us before had joined us because of strong recommendations. Many were older than me in age. It was easy for me to start feeling discomfited – I realised that I did not want to displease anyone. I was also conscious of the importance of retaining the great image that our brand enjoyed in the market of adventure travel. These were a few of the 'decision-making traps' that I should watch out for. Moreover, I found that both the opinionated clusters had valid points which made sense. And members of the first cluster were ready to consider paying extra if the costs went up due to having to stay longer at Gorak Shep.

Indecision

All of this resulted in me being indecisive – I could form no firm opinion to help me and the group take a decision. And the dispute had reached an impasse, as neither of the two vocal clusters showed signs of budging from its respective stance.

At around 2.30 p.m., I decided to act. When I got up saying I needed to consult the Sherpas before deciding, there were stringent voices telling me to follow the majority ('...as we live in a democracy!') and that the decision was already taken since the majority wanted to stay on till the weather cleared enough for us to have a go at both the points! I took time to quickly assess the situation and my role in it. What were the challenges? What alternatives did we have? Have we thought of all possible ones? What were the pros and cons of each alternative? Were we looking at all possible hazards? What possible consequences were we looking at for all possible decisions?

The Challenge

- The group clearly was looking at me for direction if not a decision. I was aware that my discomfiture may make

me take an inappropriate decision, and should guard against that.

- I should retain my objectivity, be alive to the value in each and every thought that had been expressed, and then set my priorities.
- Our decision should be a safe one, based on health and environment related aspects. I was potentially looking at high-risk consequences.
- The 'consensus' style of decision making, which would have ensured a complete buy-in from all group members, had not worked. I now needed to help arrive at a group decision which not all members may agree with but should support wholeheartedly.
- All had started with a shared and clearly defined goal: to reach Kala Patthar and Everest Base Camp. Now there were personal goals which differed, however slightly, and which had the potential to deepen the splinters within our group.
- My judgment now would have a direct impact on the outcome of a 'project' that had present and potential high stakes.

My Assessment

- I was the 'designated leader' of the group. Being qualified and more experienced than the rest gave me a far wider and deeper perspective of our situation than anyone else in the group. I started considering theories that I knew on 'judgment & decision-making'...
- Though no group member had as much experience as I had, all group members had enough experience to form informed opinions: I sincerely acknowledged the reasoning behind the opinions of the clusters.

- Each one had *chosen* to come on this trip, and had tremendous motivation and drive. In this context, I was thinking of the classic 'skill-will matrix' to help me assess my group members. It was appropriate that I had adopted the 'consultative' style of decision-making as there was no ground for me to adopt a 'directive' style.
- A goal which happens to have a once-in-a-lifetime aspect to it, combined with adequate skills and a tremendous drive, makes it hard for many to choose the option of 'saying no'! There is a possibility that such persons may perceive a 'safe decision' as 'failure', and hence influence the decision-making process accordingly.

My Role and Goals

- Safety of the group was my overall goal, even if it meant returning 'unsuccessful'. Actually, success in the mountains means safe return of *all*, which, funnily, many find hard to *really* understand at times! Some objectives which would help me address this goal were:
 - i) Ensure health and comfort of all
 - ii) Retain the dignity of all involved in this debate (which point becomes significant given the fact of possible behavioral changes at high altitude)
 - iii) Retain 'oneness' within the group members as far as possible
 - iv) Retain my individual relations as far as possible
 - v) Act with the wisdom and concern for safety that my company was known for

- vi) Take a decision that provides for a fair chance for us to reach the physical goals of the trek
- I considered 'risk management' aspects relevant to my situation: e.g.,
 - i) Assessing resilience of members in the context of
 - a) the trail to EBC, which involved walking through glacier country
 - b) the maximum number of nights that we should spend at Gorak Shep and
 - c) the fact that we still had the walk back to the air strip
 - ii) The possible splintering of the group into sub-groups in case of low 'buy-in' from group members to my decision
 - iii) The impact of my decision on the morale of various individuals (keeping in mind that they still needed to walk back!)
 - iv) Financial cost-benefit analysis for possible consequences of my decision

Pros and Cons of Alternatives

- It was on the return journey that people required closer monitoring when there is a tendency for tiredness and complacency to set in. So, with the two previous evacuations having already depleted our support staff, I ruled out the option of splitting the group at this stage.
- Neither the Sherpas nor I found any sense in prolonging the point of decision making, and more importantly, the owner of the guesthouse wanted a decision by the evening.
- That left the alternative of going by what the majority wanted! Which did not fit in with my line of thinking... or call it my judgment...

While announcing my decision, I decided to use language that my group members, all mostly corporate creatures, would relate to immediately without there being any misunderstanding.

The Decision

I announced my decision to the group with a bit of a preamble. I told them that democracy did not work in our group since I was their designated leader and that they had all agreed to be led by me from Mumbai itself. I told them that I was following the 'consult-and-decide' mode of the 'consultative style of group decision making': I had genuinely listened to them and was taking cognizance of their thoughts and feelings, and then had consulted the most experienced people in our group, the Sherpas. I made them aware that I had retained my calm throughout and had never tried to push my opinions through and so was confident of having objectively considered the situation. I went on to tell them what goals and objectives I had set for myself as a leader before arriving at a decision. I even suggested an alternative way of deciding if they did not like my decision: as a group, they could decide that they did not want me as their leader and I would then immediately join them as a 'normal member' and vote along with everybody if they wanted to adopt the 'vote' style of decision making, but added that, as an experienced outdoors-person, I would be wary of the 'voting' style of decision-making because I did not think all individuals in the group had the necessary experience and grasp of all things in the present situation to go in for that style (some individuals were 'willing but incompetent'). And then I told them my decision: we were to stay there for two more nights, i.e., one night more than scheduled, which gave us a fair chance of reaching at least one of the two points: KP and EBC, which was how I defined the 'success' of our trip. If the weather continued to be bad after two days, then the fresh deposition of snow would a) increase manifold the strenuousness of the trudge up to KP and b) the trail to the

EBC, which was through a glacier, can get treacherous, increasing the risk of injury, not to speak of the time taken to continually scout for a route through the labyrinthine mass of rocks and ice blocks.

A contemplative silence followed, broken by a senior member of the group, a doctor, who suddenly got up and started walking away. Pointing at me, he said, "I support your decision. See you all tomorrow morning!" That was very 'impactful' body language, and it started a cascade of supportive gestures! One by one, the others walked out, voicing their agreement. As it turned out, the Weather Gods decided to be kind to us – we had two days of glorious sunshine and spectacular clouds but no snow. And those who were fit could reach both the 'points'! As they say, all's well that ends well!

Concluding Thoughts

On retrospection, I am sure that most of my group members must have later wondered as to why did such a mature group end up creating an impasse where clusters of people dearly held on to their own opinions and demands. Apart from, perhaps, an inherently human propensity to behave in a particular way under certain circumstances, I am sure there were two factors that strongly influenced group members in this case: personal stakes and environmental impact. All it needed was calm reasoning and firm guidance to bring a clear focus and direction which helped the group members to see the sense in the ultimate decision.

It would be helpful to glance at the theoretical concepts that I 'pulled out of my toolbox' to help me resolve the impasse in my group and arrive at a decision that appealed to all:

- Skill-Will Matrix
- Five levels from the 'Dreyfus model of skill acquisition'
- Risk Analysis

• Group decision-making model, in conjunction with which I considered the Skill-Will Matrix and the Five levels from the 'Dreyfus model of skill acquisition'

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PERSPECTIVE

Competency Based Talent Management

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As business is getting more complex and organizations are experiencing unprecedented growth in employee size as well as geographical and cultural diversity, it is becoming increasingly challenging for them to manage their talent effectively. The traditional methods of talent management which were guilty of either adopting an ad-hoc approach or a very subjective view of the performance and potential of an employee have proved not only to be ineffective but also have led to challenges in the area of employee motivation and retention. More and more organizations are discovering that the lack of a standard and structured approach to talent management impacts them negatively in multiple ways.

Firstly, organizations who do not have a standard set of skills or abilities to look for while hiring an employee, end up being victims of a 'halo effect' and hire individuals instead of hiring a 'skill set'. This is just like shooting in the dark and hoping to hit the bull's eye. – An expensive mistake when you consider the fact that the corporate battlefield is getting fiercer and less forgiving to those who miss the target.

Secondly, in absence of standard or pre defined set of qualities on which to judge the performance of an employee, managers end up bringing in their own subjective judgment as well as likes and dislikes in the performance management process. This creates a feeling of either complete lack of transparency or at best an unfair treatment in the mind of the employee which acts as a huge demotivator, ultimately leading to attrition.

Thirdly, in absence of the above, even the employee development becomes a challenge since the organization has no clear cut idea about the areas on which the employee development efforts need to focus. Thus the organization ends up spending its resources on developmental activities that may not be the best suited to the real need of

the individual as well as the organization. This could produce the results that may not be valuable to the organization and would end up returning very little on the investment on development.

To overcome these challenges, more and more organizations are now adopting a Competency Based Approach to Talent Management as a more scientific, systematic and also efficient way of accessing and developing talent. A competency based approach of talent management helps an organization in clarifying job and work expectations, hiring the best possible people, maximizing productivity, adapting to change & aligning behavior with strategy.

Though the word competency is derived from and interchangeably used with the word competence, it takes a slightly different meaning when taken in an organizational context. One of the commonly used definitions of Competency is "A cluster of related knowledge, skills and attitudes that affects a major part of one's job (a role or responsibility) that correlates with performance on the job, that can be measured against well accepted standards and that can be improved via training & development. Simply put, a Competency is a skill or behavioral pattern that, if performed consistently and regularly, can produce the desired results in the mission critical areas for an organization.

An organization generally defines two types of competencies in its competency framework- Functional Competencies & Behavioral Competencies. While functional competencies are akin to function specific skills or 'hard skills' and would vary for each function, the behavioral competencies are akin to behavioral patterns or 'soft skills' and are common across different functions.

There are various ways in which an organization decides the Competencies that it wants to adopt. These typically flow from the strategic business

plan as well as vision / mission of the organization. Factors such as competitive and business environment, the stage of growth the organization is passing through or even a diagnostic study undertaken to conduct SWOT analysis could also provide valuable inputs in helping an organization decide its Competency Framework.

Once the competency framework is in place, the same is expanded in terms of levels and behaviors so that it becomes clear, simple and practicable to the employees. Based on the complexity of a function and also the span of control that different roles have, the organization may define various levels or 'stages' for each competency for employees at different levels of organizational hierarchy. Typically the competency levels are defined for 3 levels of employees known as Leader of Self (Individual Contributor), Leader of Others (Team Manager) & Leader of Leaders (Senior Manager). Once levels are defined and mapped to various roles in an organization, the organization also prescribes the behaviors corresponding to each competency level. This step is the crucial link between a competency definition at a conceptual level and its applicability at a practical level. These behaviors clearly guide the employee as well as the manager about what exactly would be the observable actions that signifies the presence or absence of that particular competency in an employee. These behaviors also serve the purpose of creating a common understanding between an employee and a manager and bring in more transparency in the entire talent management process by removing any ambiguity.

For Example an organization could include a competency like 'Innovative Approach' in its framework. The corresponding behaviors for various levels could be 'Develops unique ideas to address business challenges or issues' (Level 1), 'Encourages self and team to develop unique

ideas and re-apply effective solutions from other units' (Level 2), & 'Creates a work environment where self and team are encouraged to generate and implement breakthrough ideas' (Level 3).

Some of the common behavioral competencies featuring in the competency framework of various organizations are

- Leadership
- Coaching
- Analytical Skills
- Decision Making
- Self Management
- Interpersonal Skills
- Negotiation Skills
- Persuasiveness
- Teamwork
- Drive for Results
- Perseverance
- Learning Ability
- Creativity
- Critical Thinking
- Relationship Management
- Execution and Control
- Communication Ability
- Strategic Orientation
- Customer Orientation
- Conviction
- Accountability

The list could be endless as there is no 'basket of competencies' from which an organization has to choose its competency. Organizations typically define not more than 5 to 7 competencies in their Competency Framework. An organization may very well choose to create its own competency and the related behaviors.

Once in place, the competency framework can help the organization in many of its talent management processes, if not all. Some of the

common areas in which the competency framework finds its application are

- a) **Recruitment and Selection:** An Organization can deploy the competency framework to assess candidates during the recruitment process. At a basic level an interviewer could focus the interview questions around the competency framework and at a more advanced level the organization may even custom design an assessment tool which gauges a candidates' competency levels on the ones that are important for the role and also map them to the 'job guide' or desired levels to determine the suitability of a candidate for that particular job. This would help the organization find the best fit candidate for a particular job and also avoid the subsequent expenses in training & development for the person.
- b) **Performance Management:** The organization that has a clearly defined competency framework can structure its performance management process around the same. In the periodic performance review sessions, the manager can conduct the performance evaluation as well as feedback discussion on the observed competency behaviors rather than 'general' or 'overall' comments. This makes the entire process more objective and transparent as well as helps the employee focus his / her energies in the right direction. Also the assessment of an employee's performance on the competency framework would help the organization to achieve better focus in its developmental activities.
- c) **Training & Development :** With an increasing demanding set of expectations from the Training & Development efforts, more and more organizations strive to maximize the return on their training spends by expecting the training effectiveness to move from Level 1 (Reaction) of the Kirkpatrick Model to Level 4 (Business Results) or Level 5 (Return on Investment). In such a case, the competency framework acts as an invaluable input while designing and implementing various learning and employee development initiatives. The training needs analysis could throw up patterns in competency gaps which then can be address through the Training & Development activities. Also the organization would be able to deploy its developmental resources in an optimal manner by linking them to the competencies.
- d) **Succession Planning:** Faced with the dual challenge of increased internal demand for talent due to growth in business and increased attrition due to growth in economy, it is vital for any organization to have a robust succession planning process to ensure a strong talent pipeline in the organization. The competency framework becomes a valuable analysis and planning tool for creating the same. The competency framework helps the organization define its talent needs in terms of skill sets and move away from becoming a system that is dependent on individuals. Also the gaps between competency levels required for a role and the competency level demonstrated by an employee can help in deciding the timeframe by which the employee would be ready to be considered as a capable successor for his / her manager.

As Alvin Toffler said "*The illiterate of the 21st century will not be those who cannot read and write, but those who cannot learn, unlearn, and relearn*". We can safely conclude that is not only important but also necessary for any organization that wants to emerge victorious in the war of talent, to learn and adopt Competency Based Approach for Talent Management.

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BOOK REVIEW

Majumdar, Ramanuj. Consumer Behaviour: Insights from Indian Market, New Delhi, PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd., 2010, pp. 350

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The book under review titled "Consumer Behaviour: Insights from Indian Market" is authored by Ramanuj Majumdar, Professor of Marketing, at the Indian Institute of Management, Calcutta. The book is divided into six parts, consists of thirteen chapters and seven interesting cases. The contents expose the reader to a total picture of the consumer behavior from the Indian perspective. Each chapter begins with spelling out the learning objectives, and chapter outline and ends with the conclusion and recommended reading.

Part-I is the introductory chapter, which lays the foundation of consumer behavior. Backed by a series of Indian examples it presents an overview of the subject.

Part-II is labeled as Consumer as an Individual. It comprises of five chapters, covering the psychological factors that affect consumer behavior like motivation, perception, belief and attitude, and personality and self image.

Part-III is titled as Consumers in their Social and Cultural settings. The three chapters in this part deal with the effect of personal factors, reference groups, and culture on consumer behavior.

The consumer decision making process forms the content of part-IV. This part is incorporated into two chapters. The chapter on Consumer's Decision - Making deals with the steps in the consumer decision making, various types of buying decisions, various decision making criteria, and the external influences to decision making. Six consumer behavior models have been explained exhaustively in the next chapter.

Part-V has two chapters. They very lucidly with examples take a reader through the diversity of the Indian market and the changing Indian consumer behavior.

Part-VI is devoted to case studies. Cases are on well known companies, some of them leaders in their market segment.

The book is a well written piece of work, providing insights into the field of study. Through real life examples it exposes the reader to a total picture of consumer behavior. There was a felt need in the market for a book with an Indian perspective that would lay a solid theoretical foundation backed by Indian examples for understanding of the subject area. This offering has fulfilled the need by delving into the consumer psyche with practical insights. The CD-ROM provided with the book is one of the attractions. The book contains various tables and exhibits which help grasp the contents easily. Basically it is a handy book for MBA students and practitioners. The book would be more enriched if there were case studies from the service sector and a few more on consumer durable industry. The book could do with review questions at the end of the chapters.

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(c) Books should be referred to as follows: Porter, Michael E., *Competitive Advantage*, The Free Press, 1985, p.6

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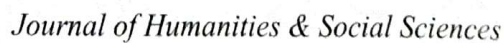
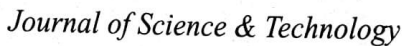
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