

LESSON 15

COMPETENCY BASED HRM / TRAINING

Friends,

After reading previous lessons of this unit now you have understood the various steps in systematic training process and Training needs Identification process.

The modern Industry practices of HRM and HRD Competency based HRM plays a crucial role.

After reading this lesson you will be able to

- 1. Explain you what is Competencies,**
- 2. What is competency based HRM,**
- 3. How is helps in HRD and Training process.**
- 4. Have knowledge of overview of Development and Application to Public and Private Sectors.**

Competencies

Competencies and competency-based human resources management (CBHRM) are in common practice in many private sector areas and on the rise in many Canadian federal government departments and agencies. While organizations have used the idea of competencies for over fifty years, the expansion of the competency movement within the private sector and, now, into the public one, has resulted in a proliferation of definitions, tools, models and applications. All of which are not universally understood and applied.

This paper is a review of the competency literature and an attempt to shed some additional light on the field. It addresses some of the issues associated with the validity and quality of CBHRM implementation. It outlines the pros and cons of competency use through a discussion of the efficacy of competency models and the advantages and disadvantages of CBHRM.

The findings of the paper suggest CBHRM is most effective when competencies are linked closely to proven strategic planning processes and measurable organizational performance standards. In the current planning environment of the public sector, there is a concern that CBHRM may reinforce inappropriate HRM approaches and, therefore, not support the broader objectives of the government of Canada in the areas of globalization, social diversity, governance, and the knowledge economy. More work remains to be done to validate competency utilization in the Canadian federal public sector.

Introduction

This paper examines competencies and competency use in competency-based human resource management (CBHRM). Considerable confusion has arisen with respect to the use of competencies in both the private and public sectors. Several researchers (Antonacopoulou & Fitzgerald, 1997; Austin et al., 1996; Lado & Wilson, 1994) have expressed concern about the lack of clarity with respect to specific competency issues. What follows is a discussion of these issues and an exploration and clarification of their respective roles in the strategic management of human resources in the public sector.

The paper is intended to be a general inquiry into the competency movement, assessing current and historical practices and theoretical underpinnings, ultimately identifying key issues in the use of competency-based models in the public sector. Given the problematic nature of strategic human resources management in a rapidly changing environment, researching this paper, not surprisingly, uncovered as many questions as it sought to answer.

Competency Definition and Terminology - The Challenge

In studying the competency area, one is immediately struck by the lack of uniform definitions, terminology, and the resulting misunderstanding. The difficulty appears to stem from drawing very fine lines of definition distinction with terms such as competence, competency, competencies, and competences. For example, the New Oxford Shorter Dictionary defines competence as the "power, ability, capacity to do, for a, task", whereas Merriam Webster defines it as "a sufficiency of means for the necessities and conveniences of life." Oxford further states that competence and competency are synonymous as are competences and competencies. It becomes readily apparent that if these two great dictionaries differ with respect to defining competencies then common parlance can't be far behind.

Dubois (1993), a leading expert in the applied competency field, defines competence as "the employee's capacity to meet (or exceed) a job's requirements by producing the job outputs at an expected level of quality within the constraints of the organization's internal and external environments." He goes on to adapt Boyatzis' (1982) definition of competency and states that "a job competency is an underlying characteristic of an employee--i.e., motive, trait, skill, aspects of one's self-image, social role, or a body of knowledge-- which results in effective and/or superior performance in a job."

Competency-based human resource management on the other hand takes the broad term of competence and breaks it into its component parts. CBHRM identifies and assesses different competencies that make up an individual's overall competence and matches them with required job and/or organization competencies. Knowing which competencies are required as compared to which competencies are available to an organization can help

inform and direct HRM interventions related to compensation, recruitment, promotion, **training**, and organizational culture.

Zemke (1982) interviewed several experts in the field to determine "precisely what makes a competency" and he captured his findings thusly:

"Competency, competencies, competency models, and competency-based **training** are all Humpty Dumpty words meaning only what the definer wants them to mean. The problem comes not from malice, stupidity or marketing avarice, but instead from some basic procedural and philosophical differences among those racing to define the concept and to set the model for the way the rest of us will use competencies."

The American Compensation Association defines competencies as ". . . individual performance behaviours that are observable, measurable and critical to successful individual or corporate performance" (Canadian HR Reporter-Press Release, 1996).

Defining competency fully is not as simple as addressing the individual application. Other terms such as organizational competence and core competency emerge which potentially permit improved strategic human resource management but require defining nonetheless. Organizational competence and core competency link an organization's essential values and business to those of its employees. Core competency can refer to either an organization or an individual and resource-based analysis (Lado and Wilson, 1994) suggests a tight link between individual and organization core competencies is a good way to achieve sustained competitive advantage. One definition of employee core competency, for example, suggests "(it is) a principal or critically essential competency for successful job performance for a given job at a given level in an organization hierarchy" (Dubois, 1993).

Fogg (1994) defines organization core competency as "those few internal competencies at which you are very, very good, better than your competition, and that you will build on and use to beat the competition and to achieve your strategic objectives."

The present study is concerned more with establishing the linkages between organizational (core) competencies, individual (core) competencies, and job-specific competencies as these relate to organizational effectiveness and executive control of the human resources (HR) function.

Differences in definitions notwithstanding, Hendry and Maggio (1996) suggest that when competencies are linked to the broader goals of an organization, the following common elements emerge as outcomes of a comprehensive competency model:

- Identification of characteristics and behaviours that differentiate top performers from others in relation to their contribution to strategic objectives;
- Clarification, communication, assessment, and development of characteristics that focus individuals on core organization goals;

- Practical observation help prescribe and validate behavioural descriptions that achieve the desired results;
- Description of skills, attitudes, traits, and behaviours that can be attached to pay, performance measurement, hiring criteria, **training**, organizational staffing, career development, and succession planning.

Origin of Competency Profiling

Furnham (1990) states that "the term competence is new and fashionable, but the concept is old. Psychologists interested in personality and individual differences, organizational behaviour and psychometrics have long debated these questions of personality traits, intelligence and other abilities."

Competency-based methodology was pioneered by Hay-McBer company founder David McClelland, a Harvard University psychologist in the late 1960's and early 1970's (Czarnecki, 1995). McClelland set out to define competency variables that could be used in predicting job performance and that were not biased by race, gender, or socioeconomic factors. His research helped identify performance aspects not attributable to a worker's intelligence or degree of knowledge and skill. McClelland's article, appearing in *American Psychologist* in 1973, entitled "Testing for Competence Rather Than for Intelligence," was a key point of development of the competency movement as an alternative to the intelligence testing movement.

McClelland's (1973) competency methodology can be summed up in two factors: "Use of Criterion Samples" or systematically comparing superior performing persons with less successful persons to identify successful characteristics and "Identification of Operative Thoughts and Behaviours that are Causally Related to Successful Outcomes" or the best predictor of what persons can and will do in present and future situations is what they have actually done in similar past situations.

Competency Profiling

A competency profile is generally composed of five to ten competencies but can include as many or as few as are required to accurately reflect performance variations in the position. For example, a competency model for a public servant might include initiative, cooperation, analytical thinking, and a desire to help the client. Competency-based models are used to recruit, select, train, and develop employees. Unfortunately, the aforementioned lack of rigour in terminology can lead to loosely defined and improperly implemented CBHRM.

Competency profile development can be handled in a number of ways, two of which are the top-down and bottom-up approaches. The top-down approach generally involves picking, based on a strategic analysis of the organization's performance objectives, an array of competencies from a dictionary of competencies and assessing those for a particular position or class of positions. The shortcoming associated with this approach is that the competencies survey is carried out as an additional step separate from the

creation of the profile. The top-down process has the potential to reduce the applied face validity of the profile and, subsequently, reduce employee buy-in.

The bottom-up approach on the other hand involves exploratory checklist surveys and subsequent confirmatory interviews to derive the competencies from employees, thereby increasing the face-validity and simultaneously developing the assessment questions to tap into them. In addition to these potential benefits, bottom-up approaches may result in employees being directly involved in the development of competency profiles that will describe behaviours that are relevant to their tasks. This is useful for gaining employee understanding of, input to, buy-in, and loyalty to the process (North, 1993).

Competency-Based HRM Models

Defining Models in General

Typically, a model is defined as "an imitation or an abstraction from reality that is intended to order and simplify our view of that reality while still capturing its essential characteristics" (Forcese & Richer, 1973). It is a logical structure. Models can be either implicit or explicit. Implicit models do not clearly specify the interrelationships involved in the model but merely assume or imply their presence and, to this extent, are based on intuition. By contrast, an explicit model forces the individual to think clearly about and account for all the important interrelationships involved in a problem.

In good model design it is crucial that both the model and the individual relationships involved be tested or validated. This objective is not met when there is complete reliance on intuition and this has the potential of building a model with poorly specified or, in some cases, erroneously specified relationships. As a result, explicit models are preferred to implicit ones (Pindyck and Rubinfeld, 1976).

Defining Competency Models

Dubois (1993) in defining competency models states that they "provide the adhesion or "glue" that is necessary among the elements of an organization's human resource management system. By this I mean that competency models help organizations take a unified and coordinated approach to designing the human resource management system, including job design, hiring, performance improvement, employee development, career planning or pathing, succession planning, performance appraisals, and the selection and compensation systems for a job. Therefore, any investment an organization makes in competency model development work has benefits beyond the usefulness of the results for HRD purposes."

He further describes a competency model as being able to capture "those competencies that are required for satisfactory or exemplary job performance within the context of a person's job roles, responsibilities, and relationships in an organization and its internal

and external environments" and is ". . . generally very detailed and might include, for example, a description of the job setting, the job tasks and activities, the job outputs, the employee competencies that are required the job tasks, and the quality standards for outputs . . . the contents of the competency model (models) are then converted, in a highly systematic manner, to a curriculum plan."

Dubois (1996) suggests the following minimum standards needed to be established and maintained when competency modelling research and development methods are adopted and practiced:

1. Competency models that result from the research and development processes must be aligned with the organisations's strategic goals and business objectives.
2. Research and development methods used should produce valid and reliable competency models.
3. Organization leaders must consistently endorse and support the use of a competency-driven approach as a key ingredient to the organization's strategic success.
4. Competency models must be sufficiently comprehensive to identify the competencies that distinguish exemplary employee performance.
5. Outputs from the competency model must be technically reliable and valid and acceptable to the client.

Competency-Based HRM - Advantages

Valid and reliable competency-based HRM models can produce a number of positive outcomes. For example, CBHRM models can:

- directly link individual competencies to organizational strategies and goals
- develop competencies profiles for specific positions or roles, matching the correct individuals to task sets and responsibilities
- enable continual monitoring and refinement of competency profiles
- facilitate employee selection, evaluation, **training**, and development
- assist employers in hiring individuals with rare or unique competencies that are difficult and costly to develop
- assist organizations in ranking competencies for compensation and performance management

Competency-based HRM - Disadvantages

However, less valid and reliable competency-based HRM models can result in negative outcomes. For example, they can:

- develop less meaningful competencies in organizations without clear visions of their goals or strategies
- be quite expensive and time-consuming to administer

- reduce core organizational competencies understanding as a result of poor employee buy-in
- preserve the organizational status quo and in adequately address soft, integrative and/or innovative competencies such as intercultural or cross-cultural competency
- add nothing in organizations that have difficulty in differentiating between successful and unsuccessful performance and when the competencies are too "generic"

Competency Experience - General

The American Compensation Association (1996) conducted a major survey of 217 mid to large size organizations to determine their use and experience with competencies. The survey pointed to wide use of competencies, but to varying degrees of rigour and application. The survey found organizations using competencies for:

- Communicating valued behaviours and organizational culture (75% agreed competencies have a positive effect)
- "Raising the bar" of performance for all employees (59% agreed)
- Emphasizing people (rather than job) capabilities as a way to gain competitive advantage (42% agreed)
- Encouraging cross-functional and team behaviour (34% agreed)

The survey authors cautioned that "for many of these goals, however, the jury is still out as to whether competency-based HR applications are doing what senior HR practitioners would like."

Close to 60% of responding organizations with competency-based applications for staffing, **training**, and performance management had the programs in place for less than a year when the survey was conducted in 1996. Sixty-nine percent of competency-based compensation systems were in development or still in their first year of implementation. The report points out that competency-based HR applications are evolutionary rather than revolutionary, in that they are treated as add-ons to existing HR practices. "They are clearly not throwing away their existing systems, they are using competencies as a way to clarify what performance matters."

Respondents in the research study listed senior management, high performers, and functional experts as the top three sources of information to develop competencies. The study also noted that competencies tended to highlight organizational behaviours rather than job-related skills. Zeroing in on those competencies which add real value to the business is key. "If you get the competency model wrong you do not add value . . . organizations must ask themselves if they're being as rigorous as they need to be" (American Compensation Association, 1996).

Competency Experience - Private Sector

Recent surveys indicate widespread use of competency-based human resource models by banks, insurance companies, management consulting firms, technology companies, transportation companies, utility companies, delivery companies, retail eating outlets, manufacturing industries, and mining companies. Industry publications suggest ongoing use of competencies in the private sector, but the extent of use remains uncertain.

For example, North American Life (NAL) used the Hay system in 1995 (Orr, 1995) to link competency, performance management, and pay. They came up with a short list of 10 competencies -- analytical thinking, conceptual thinking, customer focus, developing people, flexibility, information seeking, listening and understanding and responding, performance excellence, team leadership, and teamwork -- specific to NAL using a standardized menu of competencies to survey employees and identify proficiencies relevant to each job

Other private sector initiatives reported by Czarnecki (1995) include the finance department of McDonald's Canada which introduced competency modelling for its 50 employees and Purolator Courier which used a project team to identify 10 to 30 technical competencies (e.g. keyboard, software skills) and five to eight behavioural competencies (e.g. time planning, initiative, telephone presence).

Winter (1996) has described how Guardian Insurance uses competencies to assess and reward individual performance in terms of core competencies that reflect the company's strategic focus and priorities and how Bell Sygma applies the notion of competencies to all aspects of human resources management, starting with the HR plan. In the latter case, gap analysis provides the basis for behavioural-based interviews to select candidates who fit with their core competencies, for an individual development process, for succession planning, and for job definition determined by the competencies an employee applies.

Competency Experience - Public Sector

Current Prospects for the Competency Movement in the Public Sector

A wide variety of generic competency models are available for performance improvement when driven by a strategic planning process in both the private and public sectors (Bryson, 1995; Dror, 1997; Dubois, 1996; Lado and Wilson, 1994; Snell & Youndt, 1995). These models typically link organizational core competencies with employee core competencies, as distinguished from employee job-specific competencies, in order to establish a direct linkage between the organization's priorities and employee behaviours. Creating effective linkages can be problematic and the above mentioned potential advantages and disadvantages of the competency approach also apply to competency programs in the public sector. For example, the British civil service designed a competence checklist to replace its traditional, centrally-controlled selection criteria and it resulted in a pattern of strengths and weaknesses similar to those reported in the North American literature on competencies (North, 1993).

Bryson (1995) describes several methods by which public sector and nonprofit organizations can identify their organizational core competencies as a significant output of the strategic planning process. For example, a strategic consideration of a public sector organization's strengths and weaknesses can identify its organizational core competencies in concrete terms. Improvement of organizational core competencies can then be achieved through coordinated adjustment of HRM administrative policies and practices covering all, or selected, personnel functions. In some cases even in public sector settings, it may be important to ensure that an organization's competency model be explicitly future oriented, rather than implicitly historic, and that it identify levels of superior strategic performance rather than levels of threshold, or minimum, operational performance (Jacobs, 1989). For example, entry level recruitment to government based on the assessment of potential could include future oriented expectations in the priority assigned to different competencies, and in the design of competency assessment instruments.

Using a top-down approach, Dror's (1997) generic strategic analysis of the alternative roles of senior civil services links the core capacities of the organization with the attributes of its individual members. These are equivalent to organizational core competencies and employee core competencies, respectively. Dror's recommended future-oriented core capacities (organizational core competencies) include: intervening in history, energizing, adjusting social architecture, risk-taking, handling complexity, making harsh tragic choices, and mobilizing support for constructive destruction.

A similar typology of functions unique to the public sector provided by Carroll (1997) includes: reconciling differences, achieving agreement, and using legitimate authority to carry agreements into effect. Dror suggest that these core capacities can be actualized through utilization of six attributes -- super-professionalism, innovation-creativity, merit-elitist but society reflecting, virtuous, autonomous but subordinated, and mission-oriented -- (employee core competencies) of the senior executive cadre. Dror believes that these executive core competencies are required to carry out higher order tasks which have strategic importance in determining the relative success of government in an era of globalization and rapid change.

Another, complementary, description of competencies which distinguishes the public sector from the private sector is provided by Sherwood (1997) -- acceptance of the legitimacy of the democratic process and elected officials, an ethic of responsibility to the public at large, and respect for the expertise of other professionals. Taken together and extended, these competencies provide an alternative to the simple emulation of private sector competency models and profiles.

To evaluate the potential for success of the competency movement in the public sector, it is necessary to relate inputs to outputs. At the current juncture in the history of governance, the relationship between elected officials and their bureaucracies is severely strained, resulting in serious constraints on the strategic planning process (Carroll, 1997; Sherwood, 1997). The competency movement in the public sector will probably be less connected to an effective strategic planning process, and thus will be less effective than it

may be in the private sector. Exceptions to this pessimistic forecast may occur in public sector organizations which enjoy both a strong mandate and an effective, ongoing consultation process among all its key stakeholders (Bryson, 1995; Austin et al, 1996).

Public Sector HRM Administrative Practices on Competencies

One of the main criticisms of the current HRM system in the federal public sector is the lack of effective internal integration among the sub-disciplines of the personnel function. Another main criticism is the uneven quality of strategic flexibility of the sub-disciplines (e.g., **training** is flexible, compensation is inflexible). Internal integration of HRM occurs when all of the personnel specialty functions work in a seamless fashion in the explicit pursuit of corporate strategy. Competency-based systems operate effectively at the level of individual employees without regard to their future career within the organization.

Career-based HRM, on the other hand, is more effective when individuals spend most of their career with the same organization, such as the military, police forces, religious organizations, and, to a lesser extent, the foreign service. To date, most successful applications of competency-based approaches have been in the area of human resources development--i.e., staff **training**--oriented to organizational performance improvement.

Some authors suggest caution in the application of competency-based approaches to other HRM practices--e.g., Dubois, 1996, p. 66. Others note the limited diffusion, even in the private sector, of economically viable changes to compensation-related employment practices which result in high performance (Pfeffer, 1996). Nonetheless, the competency-based approach currently is the main available alternative to centralized military-style career management systems for the pursuit of an eventual internal integration of HRM strategies and practices (Miles & Snow, 1984).

In addition to the limited evaluation of competency-based approaches to HRM, there are other barriers to implementation at the level of individual HRM sub-systems and practices. Senior managers are frequently under pressure to imitate practices in other organizations, without being sufficiently familiar with contextual differences and tacit aspects of implementation methods. At the same time, HRM managers are often poorly positioned within the organization to ensure the strategic linkages that are required for success (Pfeffer, 1996; Johns, 1993). This means that the transfer of high performance technologies from one organization to another is a non-trivial affair. Successful implementation demands considerable management attention, expertise, and local contextual confirmation, even when the competency-based approach has been well validated in the original organization. Strategic crisis, regulatory and social policy initiatives, and broad access to detailed contextual information all promote successful innovation (Bryson, 1995, p. 234; Johns, 1993) of competency-based HRM administrative practices.

The Competency Movement and Staffing in the Public Sector

Many public sector organizations are experiencing, or have experienced, major changes in their strategic orientations. Snow and Snell (1993) illustrate how staffing plays a key role in the realization and consolidation of major shifts in strategy and structure, ranging from a job-person match function, to a strategy implementation function, through to a strategy formation function. An effective competency-based staffing model in the public sector will require improved methods for designing and maintaining managerial assessment and selection tools appropriate to its function or transitional state. Consultative methods (e.g. joint consultation), effective documentation, and active strategic monitoring and maintenance is essential for the attainment and long-term viability of functionally appropriate competency-based staffing models in the public sector (Austin et al 1996).

Austin, Klimoski, and Hunt (1996) have recently designed a micro-level framework that uses stakeholder participation to develop and implement selection systems in the public sector. Their framework is based on the values of fairness, technical adequacy, and feasibility as viewed individually and collectively by political entities, management, labour unions, system designers, and human resource managers. A comparable analysis of key values of different groups of stakeholders could also be optimized for agency or ministry strategic orientation--e.g., (Braithewaite, 1994) to reflect the globalization effects noted by Dror (1997). Social diversity issues affecting merit could be resolved through this methodology, and could result in the identification of new competencies that support diversity while addressing the need to recognize and measure 'soft' competencies (Donnellon & Kolb, 1994).

The operationalization of a new staffing model can be illustrated by Dror's (1997, p. 12) employee core competency of super-professionalism. The particular assessment and developmental opportunities available in each government's historical context are taken as a point of departure for a new competency-based model. The essence of Dror's super-professionalism is based on practical intelligence and tacit knowledge, thus taking the middle ground mapped out by Sternberg (1995) in a recent theoretical debate on competencies. In the Canadian context at least one researcher has attempted to validate a measure of managerial practical intelligence in relation to candidate performance on a managerial assessment centre (Kerr, 1995). This kind of research and policy-based development of new competency frameworks for staffing is not yet widespread in public sector organizations, due in part to some of the constraints on strategic planning previously noted.

Another reason for the lag in development of competency-based staffing is the difficulty of assessing non-managerial and work group contributions to organizational core competencies in public sector organizations. This problem arises in part from the relative difficulty in measuring results and performance and in attributing improvements to changes in competencies, as opposed to other factors. Even if the causal role of competencies in performance can be logically argued, there may be a major time lag and other factors that mediate the relationship between competencies and organizational performance, especially given the increasing and differential impacts of globalization on performance expectations (Bryson, 1995, p.294; Maor & Stevens, 1997; Suedfeld, 1992).

Joint consultative approaches could be used for developing competency models and assessment methods, as an immediate proxy for quantitative, objective measures of results, pending improvements in criterion measurement for performance at individual, team and organizational levels of analysis (Austin & Villanova, 1992). For example, staff union input, among others, to the development of competency-based assessment processes has been shown to be effective in optimizing conflicting goals for the design of a public sector selection system in the United States (Austin et al, 1996).

Theoretical Issues in Competencies

Recent resource-based economic analysis of the theoretical underpinning of CBHRM programs has raised a number of troubling questions (Lado and Wilson, 1994). For example, most competency programs in the private sector have been developed around the notion of a firm developing a sustainable or durable competitive advantage--as manifested by larger profit margins or market share--over its competitors. One characteristic of the competencies associated with this competitive advantage is that they must not lend themselves to easy duplication. Therefore, simple imitation of another organization's successful program is no guarantee of sustained competitive advantage unless the new HR system attributes are unique, causally ambiguous, and synergistic. Competency programs lacking these characteristics are easy for other organizations to imitate exactly and thus obtain the same competitive position (Pfeffer, 1996). Most approaches to competency program design do not deal explicitly and thoroughly with these issues, making their long term success largely a matter of chance, even in the private sector.

Further analytical work is required to adapt these competitive concepts to the values production and governance functions of public sector institutions (e.g., Austin, James & Hunt, 1996; Denhart, 1993; and Dror, 1997) and to the articulation of methods of transferring competency approaches across governmental functions and levels. Standard capitalistic economy theory is premised on the assumption that firms are in business to maximize, or at least make, a profit. Unlike the typical objectives of a public sector organization public sector, this objective is unambiguous. In a rational, economic environment, the competencies that position a firm to reach this objective will be embraced and those that do not will be rejected. Moreover, certain precision tools, such as human resources accounting, can be applied to measure the extent to which this objective is being accomplished. Thus, consideration has to be given to the cost-benefit of extensive competency assessment for a given job versus reliance on generic competency definition. Equivalent accounting and accountability models have not been established for public sector HR activities.

As noted previously, the professional literature is quite persuasive in suggesting that any CBHRM approach should be tied to strategic objectives. The difficulty arises from the reality that while the CBHRM approach is well-founded, its applicability to government is somewhat questionable as governments exist to make private and social valuations coincide. In other words, governments in a democracy do not exist to maximize profits. Instead, they maximize the social welfare function that includes not only measurable

monetary benefits but some benefits that are intangible and cannot be easily measured. These benefits are accounted for by an imputed value. The government may, therefore, engage in activities for other than financial gains. Hence, there is a requirement to link CBHRM to the social welfare function mentioned above as well as to the corporate strategic objectives. As previously suggested, the difficulties of reliably embedding organizational and individual competencies within strategy apply equally to public sector organizations.

A final theoretical and professional consideration in the area of industrial and organizational psychology is the resurfacing of the debate between the competency movement and the standardized testing movement. This renewed debate was published in the journal, *American Psychologist*, over twenty years after the publication of McClelland's original article on testing for competence instead of intelligence (Cowan, 1994; McClelland, 1994; Barrett, 1994; Boyatzis, 1994). The essence of this debate revolves around the professional standards required to ensure that a rigorous valid methodology in defining competencies, in designing the methods for their measurement, and for their use in decision-making. This debate has parallels in other areas of applied psychology related to HRM (Lowe, 1993) and its implications should be carefully considered in designing and implementing any competency-based program.

Conclusion

This paper provides a broad overview of the concept of competencies, its origins, and application in human resource management. A prime issue with CBHRM is that the approach, being relatively recent in the public sector, has not yet been assessed. Empirical data are, as yet, not available to measure program success and to validate underlying models, implicit or explicit. Some desirable characteristics of such programs, however, would be the establishment of clear linkages to strategic corporate objectives, the specification of the models in use, and the anticipation of the on-going need for self-correcting.

Coming part of this lesson will explain you application of competency Mapping.

COMPETENCY MAPPING

Previous part of this lesson has given you insight towards What is competency based HRM/ Training.

After reading this lesson you will be able to apply competency based HRM and design Competency Mapping for your organization.

Getting Competent on Competencies

Now I'm turning my attention to a topic that is increasingly popular within organizations - competency modeling. Interestingly, unlike areas such as training, performance appraisal and personnel selection, there is a distinct lack of academic research on what makes for effective competency models. Even in more practitioner-gearred publications, the information on competency models is far from definitive. This ambiguity can be problematic, given that competencies often serve as the foundation for an organization's entire HR strategy.

Let's take a closer look at competencies...

What are competencies and competency models? No common definition of competencies exists, although the idea that certain competencies are critical for successful job performance is a central concept. For example, competencies for managers in a jet engine manufacturing plant that I worked with included communication, financial acumen and customer focus. Many definitions of competencies include "knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAO's)." KSAO's are the typical output of a process known as job analysis - the breaking down of a job into its component activities and requirements. Competencies often extend traditional job analysis by including some or all of the following: traits, motivations, drives, personality characteristics, values and behaviors. Competencies also differ from traditional job analysis techniques because they often are specifically linked to a department's and/or organization's goals and strategic objectives, as opposed to being focused on the individual employee. Lastly, whereas traditional job analysis focuses primarily on the present - how the job is defined now, competency modeling often focuses on both current and future demands.

Why would an organization use competencies? The jet engine manufacturer mentioned above used competency models because it believed that they encouraged accurate employee-job matching, the development of employees relative to clear performance standards, the provision of ongoing performance feedback and coaching, and the differentiation of superior performers from the "pack." Executives at a large chemical company that I worked with primarily viewed competency models as a way of increasing and improving communication. When organizations create competency models, they essentially recognize and communicate that certain behaviors, skills, traits, etc. are more important than others. This "common language" helps to communicate expectations

about a company's goals and performance standards, reducing confusion both within and across departments.

How are competencies selected? There are a number of tools and techniques that HR professionals can use to determine competencies for a given job. Praendex's PRO tool is an extremely useful way to identify the personality characteristics and behavioral competencies predictive of success in any job. The PI can also be easily integrated with an existing competency framework. For example, a software development project manager may have "finds innovative solutions" as a competency. A candidate with a high A pattern, such as a "Venturer", would be stronger on that competency than would someone with a low A.

Reviewing existing job descriptions yields useful information. Interviews with job incumbents can be used to determine what it takes to be successful in a job. Interviews with senior managers involved in strategic planning can be useful to ensure that competencies are connected to organizational goals and objectives. Remember that different constituencies within the organization will prefer different methods of building competency models. It has been my experience that senior managers often prefer qualitative methods (such as the PRO or interviews) rather than quantitative methods, because they want to make sure that the competencies "make sense" for their organization.

What are the features of good competency models? The following checklist is not meant to be exhaustive, but to be ultimately useful, a set of competencies should be:

- Manageable: Too many competencies will become confusing and inefficient, clouding rather than clarifying an organization's priorities.
- Defined Behaviorally: Competencies should be described in terms of specific, observable behaviors.
- Independent: Important behaviors should be included in just one, not multiple, competencies.
- Comprehensive: No important behaviors should be excluded.
- Accessible: Competencies should be written and communicated in a way that is clear, understandable and useful to those outside of the HR world.
- Current: Competencies should be up-to-date, and reviewed regularly to keep pace with industry and company changes.
- Compatible: Competencies should "fit in" with a company's vision, values and culture.

What is Competency Mapping?

It is about identifying preferred behaviors and personal skills which distinguish excellent and outstanding performance from the average.

A Competency is something that describes how a job might be done, excellently; a Competence only describes what has to be done, not how. So the Competences might describe the duties of a Sales Manager for example, such as manage the sales office and its staff, prepare quotations and sales order processing, manage Key Accounts and supervise and motivate the field sales force. The Competencies which might determine excellence in this role could include Problem Solving and Judgment; Drive and Determination; Commercial Awareness; Inter-personal skills etc, all of which might be described further by Behavioural Indicators relating specifically to that post in that organisation.

The broad concept might be said to be based on the frequently quoted adage: people get hired for what they know but fired for how they behave!

It is about identifying preferred behaviors and personal skills which distinguish excellent and outstanding performance from the average.

A Competency is something that describes how a job might be done, excellently; a Competence only describes what has to be done, not how. So the Competences might describe the duties of a Sales Manager for example, such as manage the sales office and its staff, prepare quotations and sales order processing, manage Key Accounts and supervise and motivate the field sales force. The Competencies which might determine excellence in this role could include Problem Solving and Judgment; Drive and Determination; Commercial Awareness; Inter-personal skills etc, all of which might be described further by Behavioural Indicators relating specifically to that post in that organisation.

The broad concept might be said to be based on the frequently quoted adage: people get hired for what they know but fired for how they behave!

When should they be used

The use of Competencies can include: assessment during recruitment, through specific work-based exercises and relevant, validated, psychometric tests; assessment during further development; as a profile during assessment to guide future development needs; succession planning and promotion; organisational development analysis.

Techniques used to map Competencies include Critical Incident Analysis and Repertory Grid.

Competency mapping is an approach that has the objective of helping an organization align individual development with the strategic objectives of the company. I recommend the following step-by-step process for competency mapping.

Step 1. Development of Core Competencies

In this step, the leadership of the organization meets to brainstorm which core competencies the organization requires in order to achieve its objectives, goals, and vision. Examples of core competencies that are usually essential in organizations are problem solving, teambuilding, decision-making, and communication skills.

Step 2. Assessing Competency Levels Required Across Positions

After the leadership decides which competencies are essential, it's necessary to determine the degree to which, and manner in which, these competencies are required in each type of position (i.e., Sales Manager, Receptionist, and CEO). This assessment can be made through interviews with incumbents of sample positions, using a Position Information Questionnaire (PIQ). A sample is attached.

Step 3. Developing Competency-Based Job Descriptions

Following the interview process, job descriptions can be developed that include not only duties and reporting relationships but the core competency descriptions that are tailored to each position. The same competencies are included in each employee's performance appraisal instrument so that he/she is evaluated on the same criteria that are specified in the job description.

Step 4. Competency-Based Matrix

For career development purposes, new employees (or potential employees) will be interested in career progression options available once they master different competency levels. As career options become more complex and sophisticated, the core competencies are elevated in terms of sophistication as well.

Step 5. Individual Development Planning

Using the job descriptions and the performance appraisal process as a foundation, Human Resources can provide coaching for individuals based on their unique developmental needs. For example, if a sales representative is interested in a position as Sales Manager, Human Resources professional can counsel this person about current strengths and areas for improvement and point out the competency levels required for the higher level position. Then the employee and the HR person can jointly map out a plan for the employee's development (courses, workshops, mentoring, etc.)

31 Core Competencies Explained

Major competencies for which employers look, along with some of the behaviors associated with each.

The following is a summarized list of the 31 competencies listed by "cluster" (similar competencies related to a common skill set). Each competency includes a definition and the observable behaviors that may indicate the existence of a competency in a person.

I. Competencies Dealing with People

The Leading Others Cluster

1. **Establishing Focus:** The ability to develop and communicate goals in support of the business' mission.

- Acts to align own unit's goals with the strategic direction of the business.
- Ensures that people in the unit understand how their work relates to the business' mission.
- Ensures that everyone understands and identifies with the unit's mission.
- Ensures that the unit develops goals and a plan to help fulfill the business' mission.

2. **Providing Motivational Support:** The ability to enhance others' commitment to their work.

- Recognizes and rewards people for their achievements.
- Acknowledges and thanks people for their contributions.
- Expresses pride in the group and encourages people to feel good about their accomplishments.
- Finds creative ways to make people's work rewarding.
- Signals own commitment to a process by being personally present and involved at key events.
- Identifies and promptly tackles morale problems.
- Gives talks or presentations that energize groups.

3. **Fostering Teamwork:** As a team member, the ability and desire to work cooperatively with others on a team; as a team leader, the ability to demonstrate interest, skill, and success in getting groups to learn to work together.

Behaviors for Team Members

- Listens and responds constructively to other team members' ideas.
- Offers support for others' ideas and proposals.
- Is open with other team members about his/her concerns.

- Expresses disagreement constructively (e.g., by emphasizing points of agreement, suggesting alternatives that may be acceptable to the group).
- Reinforces team members for their contributions.
- Gives honest and constructive feedback to other team members.
- Provides assistance to others when they need it.
- Works for solutions that all team members can support.
- Shares his/her expertise with others.
- Seeks opportunities to work on teams as a means to develop experience, and knowledge.
- Provides assistance, information, or other support to others, to build or maintain relationships with them.

Behaviors for Team Leaders

- Provides opportunities for people to learn to work together as a team.
- Enlists the active participation of everyone.
- Promotes cooperation with other work units.
- Ensures that all team members are treated fairly.
- Recognizes and encourages the behaviors that contribute to teamwork.

4. Empowering Others: The ability to convey confidence in employees' ability to be successful, especially at challenging new tasks; delegating significant responsibility and authority; allowing employees freedom to decide how they will accomplish their goals and resolve issues.

- Gives people latitude to make decisions in their own sphere of work.
- Is able to let others make decisions and take charge.
- Encourages individuals and groups to set their own goals, consistent with business goals.
- Expresses confidence in the ability of others to be successful.
- Encourages groups to resolve problems on their own; avoids prescribing a solution.

5. Managing Change: The ability to demonstrate support for innovation and for organizational changes needed to improve the organization's effectiveness; initiating, sponsoring, and implementing organizational change; helping others to successfully manage organizational change.

Employee Behaviors

- Personally develops a new method or approach.
- Proposes new approaches, methods, or technologies.
- Develops better, faster, or less expensive ways to do things.

Manager/Leader Behaviors

- Works cooperatively with others to produce innovative solutions.

- Takes the lead in setting new business directions, partnerships, policies or procedures.
- Seizes opportunities to influence the future direction of an organizational unit or the overall business.
- Helps employees to develop a clear understanding of what they will need to do differently, as a result of changes in the organization.
- Implements or supports various change management activities (e.g., communications, education, team development, coaching).
- Establishes structures and processes to plan and manage the orderly implementation of change.
- Helps individuals and groups manage the anxiety associated with significant change.
- Facilitates groups or teams through the problem-solving and creative-thinking processes leading to the development and implementation of new approaches, systems, structures, and methods.

6. Developing Others: The ability to delegate responsibility and to work with others and coach them to develop their capabilities.

- Provides helpful, behaviorally specific feedback to others.
- Shares information, advice, and suggestions to help others to be more successful; provides effective coaching.
- Gives people assignments that will help develop their abilities.
- Regularly meets with employees to review their development progress.
- Recognizes and reinforces people's developmental efforts and improvements.
- Expresses confidence in others' ability to be successful.

7. Managing Performance: The ability to take responsibility for one's own or one's employees' performance, by setting clear goals and expectations, tracking progress against the goals, ensuring feedback, and addressing performance problems and issues promptly.

Behaviors for employees

- With his/her manager, sets specific, measurable goals that are realistic but challenging, with dates for accomplishment.
- With his/her manager, clarifies expectations about what will be done and how.
- Enlists his/her manager's support in obtaining the information, resources, and training needed to accomplish his/her work effectively.
- Promptly notifies his/her manager about any problems that affect his/her ability to accomplish planned goals.
- Seeks performance feedback from his/her manager and from others with whom he/she interacts on the job.
- Prepares a personal development plan with specific goals and a timeline for their accomplishment.
- Takes significant action to develop skills needed for effectiveness in current or future job.

Behaviors for managers

- Ensures that employees have clear goals and responsibilities.
- Works with employees to set and communicate performance standards that are specific and measurable.
- Supports employees in their efforts to achieve job goals (e.g., by providing resources, removing obstacles, acting as a buffer).
- Stays informed about employees' progress and performance through both formal methods (e.g., status reports) and informal methods (e.g., management by walking around).
- Provides specific performance feedback, both positive and corrective, as soon as possible after an event.
- Deals firmly and promptly with performance problems; lets people know what is expected of them and when.

Communication and Influencing Cluster

8. **Attention to Communication:** The ability to ensure that information is passed on to others who should be kept informed.

- Ensures that others involved in a project or effort are kept informed about developments and plans.
- Ensures that important information from his/her management is shared with his/her employees and others as appropriate.
- Shares ideas and information with others who might find them useful.
- Uses multiple channels or means to communicate important messages (e.g., memos, newsletters, meetings, electronic mail).
- Keeps his/her manager informed about progress and problems; avoids surprises.
- Ensures that regular, consistent communication takes place.

9. **Oral Communication:** The ability to express oneself clearly in conversations and interactions with others.

- Speaks clearly and can be easily understood.
- Tailors the content of speech to the level and experience of the audience.
- Uses appropriate grammar and choice of words in oral speech.
- Organizes ideas clearly in oral speech.
- Expresses ideas concisely in oral speech.
- Maintains eye contact when speaking with others.
- Summarizes or paraphrases his/her understanding of what others have said to verify understanding and prevent miscommunication.

10. **Written Communication:** The ability to express oneself clearly in business writing.

- Expresses ideas clearly and concisely in writing.
- Organizes written ideas clearly and signals the organization to the reader (e.g., through an introductory paragraph or through use of headings).

- Tailors written communications to effectively reach an audience.
- Uses graphics and other aids to clarify complex or technical information.
- Spells correctly.
- Writes using concrete, specific language.
- Uses punctuation correctly.
- Writes grammatically.
- Uses an appropriate business writing style.

11. Persuasive Communication: The ability to plan and deliver oral and written communications that make an impact and persuade their intended audiences.

- Identifies and presents information or data that will have a strong effect on others.
- Selects language and examples tailored to the level and experience of the audience.
- Selects stories, analogies, or examples to illustrate a point.
- Creates graphics, overheads, or slides that display information clearly and with high impact.
- Presents several different arguments in support of a position.

12. Interpersonal Awareness: The ability to notice, interpret, and anticipate others' concerns and feelings, and to communicate this awareness empathetically to others.

- Understands the interests and important concerns of others.
- Notices and accurately interprets what others are feeling, based on their choice of words, tone of voice, expressions, and other nonverbal behavior.
- Anticipates how others will react to a situation.
- Listens attentively to people's ideas and concerns.
- Understands both the strengths and weaknesses of others.
- Understands the unspoken meaning in a situation.
- Says or does things to address others' concerns.
- Finds non-threatening ways to approach others about sensitive issues.
- Makes others feel comfortable by responding in ways that convey interest in what they have to say.

13. Influencing Others: The ability to gain others' support for ideas, proposals, projects, and solutions.

- Presents arguments that address others' most important concerns and issues and looks for win-win solutions.
- Involves others in a process or decision to ensure their support.
- Offers trade-offs or exchanges to gain commitment.
- Identifies and proposes solutions that benefit all parties involved in a situation.
- Enlists experts or third parties to influence others.
- Develops other indirect strategies to influence others.
- Knows when to escalate critical issues to own or others' management, if own efforts to enlist support have not succeeded.

- Structures situations (e.g., the setting, persons present, sequence of events) to create a desired impact and to maximize the chances of a favorable outcome.
- Works to make a particular impression on others.
- Identifies and targets influence efforts at the real decision makers and those who can influence them.
- Seeks out and builds relationships with others who can provide information, intelligence, career support, potential business, and other forms of help.
- Takes a personal interest in others (e.g., by asking about their concerns, interests, family, friends, hobbies) to develop relationships.
- Accurately anticipates the implications of events or decisions for various stakeholders in the organization and plans strategy accordingly.

14. Building Collaborative Relationships: The ability to develop, maintain, and strengthen partnerships with others inside or outside the organization who can provide information, assistance, and support.

- Asks about the other person's personal experiences, interests, and family.
- Asks questions to identify shared interest, experiences, or other common ground.
- Shows an interest in what others have to say; acknowledges their perspectives and ideas.
- Recognizes the business concerns and perspectives of others.
- Expresses gratitude and appreciation to others who have provided information, assistance, or support.
- Takes time to get to know coworkers, to build rapport and establish a common bond.
- Tries to build relationships with people whose assistance, cooperation, and support may be needed.
- Provides assistance, information, and support to others to build a basis for future reciprocity.

15. Customer Orientation: The ability to demonstrate concern for satisfying one's external and/or internal customers.

- Quickly and effectively solves customer problems.
- Talks to customers (internal or external) to find out what they want and how satisfied they are with what they are getting.
- Lets customers know he/she is willing to work with them to meet their needs.
- Finds ways to measure and track customer satisfaction.
- Presents a cheerful, positive manner with customers.

II. Competencies Dealing with Business

The Preventing and Solving Problems Cluster

16. Diagnostic Information Gathering: The ability to identify the information needed to clarify a situation, seek that information from appropriate sources, and use skillful questioning to draw out the information, when others are reluctant to disclose it

- Identifies the specific information needed to clarify a situation or to make a decision.
- Gets more complete and accurate information by checking multiple sources.
- Probes skillfully to get at the facts, when others are reluctant to provide full, detailed information.
- Routinely walks around to see how people are doing and to hear about any problems they are encountering.
- Questions others to assess whether they have thought through a plan of action.
- Questions others to assess their confidence in solving a problem or tackling a situation.
- Asks questions to clarify a situation.
- Seeks the perspective of everyone involved in a situation.
- Seeks out knowledgeable people to obtain information or clarify a problem.

17. **Analytical Thinking:** The ability to tackle a problem by using a logical, systematic, sequential approach.

- Makes a systematic comparison of two or more alternatives.
- Notices discrepancies and inconsistencies in available information.
- Identifies a set of features, parameters, or considerations to take into account, in analyzing a situation or making a decision.
- Approaches a complex task or problem by breaking it down into its component parts and considering each part in detail.
- Weighs the costs, benefits, risks, and chances for success, in making a decision.
- Identifies many possible causes for a problem.
- Carefully weighs the priority of things to be done.

18. **Forward Thinking:** The ability to anticipate the implications and consequences of situations and take appropriate action to be prepared for possible contingencies.

- Anticipates possible problems and develops contingency plans in advance.
- Notices trends in the industry or marketplace and develops plans to prepare for opportunities or problems.
- Anticipates the consequences of situations and plans accordingly.
- Anticipates how individuals and groups will react to situations and information and plans accordingly.

19. **Conceptual Thinking:** The ability to find effective solutions by taking a holistic, abstract, or theoretical perspective.

- Notices similarities between different and apparently unrelated situations.
- Quickly identifies the central or underlying issues in a complex situation.
- Creates a graphic diagram showing a systems view of a situation.
- Develops analogies or metaphors to explain a situation.
- Applies a theoretical framework to understand a specific situation.

20. Strategic Thinking: The ability to analyze the organization's competitive position by considering market and industry trends, existing and potential customers (internal and external), and strengths and weaknesses as compared to competitors.

- Understands the organization's strengths and weaknesses as compared to competitors.
- Understands industry and market trends affecting the organization's competitiveness.
- Has an in-depth understanding of competitive products and services within the marketplace.
- Develops and proposes a long-term (3-5 year) strategy for the organization based on an analysis of the industry and marketplace and the organization's current and potential capabilities as compared to competitors.

21. Technical Expertise: The ability to demonstrate depth of knowledge and skill in a technical area.

- Effectively applies technical knowledge to solve a range of problems.
- Possesses an in-depth knowledge and skill in a technical area.
- Develops technical solutions to new or highly complex problems that cannot be solved using existing methods or approaches.
- Is sought out as an expert to provide advice or solutions in his/her technical area.
- Keeps informed about cutting-edge technology in his/her technical area.

The Achieving Results Cluster

22. Initiative: Identifying what needs to be done and doing it before being asked or before the situation requires it.

- Identifying what needs to be done and takes action before being asked or the situation requires it.
- Does more than what is normally required in a situation.
- Seeks out others involved in a situation to learn their perspectives.
- Takes independent action to change the direction of events.

23. Entrepreneurial Orientation: The ability to look for and seize profitable business opportunities; willingness to take calculated risks to achieve business goals.

- Notices and seizes profitable business opportunities.
- Stays abreast of business, industry, and market information that may reveal business opportunities.
- Demonstrates willingness to take calculated risks to achieve business goals.
- Proposes innovative business deals to potential customers, suppliers, and business partners.
- Encourages and supports entrepreneurial behavior in others.

24. Fostering Innovation: The ability to develop, sponsor, or support the introduction of new and improved method, products, procedures, or technologies.

- Personally develops a new product or service.
- Personally develops a new method or approach.
- Sponsors the development of new products, services, methods, or procedures.
- Proposes new approaches, methods, or technologies.
- Develops better, faster, or less expensive ways to do things.
- Works cooperatively with others to produce innovative solutions.

25. Results Orientation: The ability to focus on the desired result of one's own or one's unit's work, setting challenging goals, focusing effort on the goals, and meeting or exceeding them.

- Develops challenging but achievable goals.
- Develops clear goals for meetings and projects.
- Maintains commitment to goals in the face of obstacles and frustrations.
- Finds or creates ways to measure performance against goals.
- Exerts unusual effort over time to achieve a goal.
- Has a strong sense of urgency about solving problems and getting work done.

26. Thoroughness: Ensuring that one's own and others' work and information are complete and accurate; carefully preparing for meetings and presentations; following up with others to ensure that agreements and commitments have been fulfilled.

- Sets up procedures to ensure high quality of work (e.g., review meetings).
- Monitors the quality of work.
- Verifies information.
- Checks the accuracy of own and others' work.
- Develops and uses systems to organize and keep track of information or work progress.
- Carefully prepares for meetings and presentations.
- Organizes information or materials for others.
- Carefully reviews and checks the accuracy of information in work reports (e.g., production, sales, financial performance) provided by management, management information systems, or other individuals and groups.

27. Decisiveness: The ability to make difficult decisions in a timely manner.

- Is willing to make decisions in difficult or ambiguous situations, when time is critical.
- Takes charge of a group when it is necessary to facilitate change, overcome an impasse, face issues, or ensure that decisions are made.
- Makes tough decisions (e.g., closing a facility, reducing staff, accepting or rejecting a high-stakes deal).

III. Self-Management Competencies

28. **Self Confidence:** Faith in one's own ideas and capability to be successful; willingness to take an independent position in the face of opposition.

- Is confident of own ability to accomplish goals.
- Presents self crisply and impressively.
- Is willing to speak up to the right person or group at the right time, when he/she disagrees with a decision or strategy.
- Approaches challenging tasks with a "can-do" attitude.

29. **Stress Management:** The ability to keep functioning effectively when under pressure and maintain self control in the face of hostility or provocation.

- Remains calm under stress.
- Can effectively handle several problems or tasks at once.
- Controls his/her response when criticized, attacked or provoked.
- Maintains a sense of humor under difficult circumstances.
- Manages own behavior to prevent or reduce feelings of stress.

30. **Personal Credibility:** Demonstrated concern that one be perceived as responsible, reliable, and trustworthy.

- Does what he/she commits to doing.
- Respects the confidentiality of information or concerns shared by others.
- Is honest and forthright with people.
- Carries his/her fair share of the workload.
- Takes responsibility for own mistakes; does not blame others.
- Conveys a command of the relevant facts and information.

31. **Flexibility:** Openness to different and new ways of doing things; willingness to modify one's preferred way of doing things.

- Is able to see the merits of perspectives other than his/her own.
- Demonstrates openness to new organizational structures, procedures, and technology.
- Switches to a different strategy when an initially selected one is unsuccessful.
- Demonstrates willingness to modify a strongly held position in the face of contrary evidence.

POINTS TO PONDER:

Competencies....

- Identifying competencies is the basis for HR planning.
- It provides the framework for individual training and development, career planning and training needs analysis.

Competency Mapping

- Competency mapping identifies an individual's strengths and weaknesses in order to help them better understand themselves and to show them where career development efforts need to be directed.
- It is a process of identifying key competencies for an organization and/or a job and incorporating those competencies throughout the various processes (i.e. job evaluation, training, recruitment) of the organization.

Process

- "Role Profiling" or job analysis tools help companies extract knowledge of core competency requirements from internal experts and allows the company to have any number of job expert raters contribute ratings on a standard competency scale for any job title or position.
- The accumulated ratings are transformed into a composite template defining the ideal competency set for that position.
- Employees or job applicants then complete a self-report version and their results are "mapped" against the template.

Competency Mapping with end result of Job evaluation

- Conduct a job analysis by asking applicants to complete a position information questionnaire(PIQ). This can be provided for applicants to complete, or can conduct one-on-one interviews using the PIQ as a guide.
- Using the results of the job analysis, develop a competency based job description.
- After careful analysis competencies are compared against the standard ones.

- Using competencies will help guide one to perform more objective evaluations based on displayed or not displayed behaviors.
- The results of evaluation helps to identify in what competencies individuals need additional development or training. This will help you focus your training needs on the goals of the position and company and help your employees develop toward the ultimate success of the organization.

Strengths

- Helps the companies to determine gaps.
- Contacts between employees and employers may increase mutual appreciation.
- Integrates activities of all the departments towards a common goal.

Weaknesses

- Time-consuming to review each department.
- Not Assessing the Results Accurately.
- Believing the Map is the Ultimate Goal.

Conclusion..

- Competency Mapping is useful not only from the individual but also from organisations point of view as it defines the competencies required for the position.
- It can be undertaken through psychological testing.
- However it is an area which is least explored in India and thus many Indian companies are unaware of this trend.

ACTIVIY AND ASSIGNMENT:

1. Explain What is competency.

2. Explain how competency based HRM helps in HRD

3. Explain What is competency.

4. Explain what do you understand by Competency based HRM..

5. List down core competency of HR manager.

6. Explain core competency of Soft Skill Trainer and Also define various levels of the competencies.

7. Design a Competency mapping for a Car Manufacturing Unit employee 500 employees.

THE NEXT LESSON WILL GIVE YOU MORE INSIGHT ON COMPETENCY MANAGEMENT