

UNIT III

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Location of industry is the geographical spread of economic activity within an economy. However, multitude of factors influence the **location** decisions of firms and **industries**, including proximity to raw material supplies, availability of labour, good communications and nearness to markets.

Factors Influencing the Location of Industries:

Geographical and Non-Geographical Factors

But besides such purely geographical factors influencing industrial location, there are factors of historical, human, political and economic nature which are now tending to surpass the force of geographical advantages. Consequently, the factors influencing the location of industry can be divided into two broad categories i.e.

(I) Geographical factors, and

(II) Non-geographical factors.

I. Geographical Factors:

Following are the important geographical factors influencing the location of industries.

1. Raw Materials:

The significance of raw materials in manufacturing industry is so fundamental that it needs no emphasising. Indeed, the location of industrial enterprises is sometimes determined simply by location of the raw materials. Modern industry is so complex that a wide range of raw materials is necessary for its growth.

Further we should bear in mind that finished product of one industry may well be the raw material of another. For example, pig iron, produced by smelting industry, serves as the raw

material for steel making industry. Industries which use heavy and bulky raw materials in their primary stage in large quantities are usually located near the supply of the raw materials.

It is true in the case of raw materials which lose weight in the process of manufacture or which cannot bear high transport cost or cannot be transported over long distances because of their perishable nature. This has been recognised since 1909 when Alfred Weber published his theory of location of industry.

The jute mills in West Bengal, sugar mills in Uttar Pradesh, cotton textile mills in Maharashtra and Gujarat are concentrated close to the sources of raw materials for this very reason. Industries like iron and steel, which use very large quantities of coal and iron ore, losing lot of weight in the process of manufacture, are generally located near the sources of coal and iron ore.

Some of the industries, like watch and electronics industries use very wide range of light raw materials and the attractive influence of each separate material diminishes. The result is that such industries are often located with no reference to raw materials and are sometimes referred to as 'footloose industries' because a wide range of locations is possible within an area of sufficient population density.

2. Power:

Regular supply of power is a pre-requisite for the localisation of industries. Coal, mineral oil and hydro-electricity are the three important conventional sources of power. Most of the industries tend to concentrate at the source of power.

The iron and steel industry which mainly depends on large quantities of coking coal as source of power are frequently tied to coal fields. Others like the electro-metallurgical and electro-chemical industries, which are great users of cheap hydro-electric power, are generally found in the areas of hydro-power production, for instance, aluminium industry.

As petroleum can be easily piped and electricity can be transmitted over long distances by wires, it is possible to disperse the industry over a larger area. Industries moved to southern states only when hydro-power could be developed in these coal-deficient areas. Thus, more than all other

factors affecting the location of large and heavy industries, quite often they are established at a point which has the best economic advantage in obtaining power and raw materials.

Tata Iron and Steel Plant at Jamshedpur, the new aluminium producing units at Korba (Chhattisgarh) and Renukoot (Uttar Pradesh), the copper smelting plant at Khetri (Rajasthan) and the fertilizer factory at Nangal (Punjab) are near the sources of power and raw material deposits, although other factors have also played their role.

3. Labour:

No one can deny that the prior existence of a labour force is attractive to industry unless there are strong reasons to the contrary. Labour supply is important in two respects (a) workers in large numbers are often required; (b) people with skill or technical expertise are needed. In our country, modern industry still requires a large number of workers in spite of increasing mechanisation. There is no problem in securing unskilled labour by locating such industries in large urban centres. Although, the location of any industrial unit is determined after a careful balancing of all relevant factors, yet the light consumer goods and agro-based industries generally require a plentiful of labour supply.

4. Transport:

Transport by land or water is necessary for the assembly of raw materials and for the marketing of the finished products. The development of railways in India, connecting the port towns with hinterland determined the location of many industries around Kolkata, Mumbai and Chennai. As industrial development also furthers the improvement of transport facilities, it is difficult to estimate how much a particular industry owes to original transport facilities available in a particular area.

5. Market:

The entire process of manufacturing is useless until the finished goods reach the market. Nearness to market is essential for quick disposal of manufactured goods. It helps in reducing the transport cost and enables the consumer to get things at cheaper rates.

It is becoming more and more true that industries are seeking locations as near as possible to their markets; it has been remarked that market attractions are now so great that a market

location is being increasingly regarded as the normal one, and that a location elsewhere needs very strong justification.

Ready market is most essential for perishable and heavy commodities. Sometimes, there is a considerable material increase in weight, bulk or fragility during the process of manufacture and in such cases industry tends to be market oriented.

6. Water:

Water is another important requirement for industries. Many industries are established near rivers, canals and lakes, because of this reason. Iron and steel industry, textile industries and chemical industries require large quantities of water, for their proper functioning.

7. Site:

Site requirements for industrial development are of considerable significance. Sites, generally, should be flat and well served by adequate transport facilities. Large areas are required to build factories. Now, there is a tendency to set up industries in rural areas because the cost of land has shot up in urban centres.

8. Climate:

Climate plays an important role in the establishment of industries at a place. Harsh climate is not much suitable for the establishment of industries. There can be no industrial development in extremely hot, humid, dry or cold climate.

The extreme type of climate of north-west India hinders the development of industries. In contrast to this, the moderate climate of west coastal area is quite congenial to the development of industries. Because of this reason, about 24 per cent of India's modern industries and 30 per cent of India's industrial labour is concentrated in Maharashtra-Gujarat region alone.

Cotton textile industry requires humid climate because thread breaks in dry climate. Consequently, majority of cotton textile mills are concentrated in Maharashtra and Gujarat. Artificial humidifiers are used in dry areas these days, but it increases the cost of production.

II. Non-Geographical Factors:

Now-a-days alternative raw materials are also being used because of modern scientific and technological developments. Availability of electric power supply over wider areas and the increasing mobility of labour have reduced the influence of geographical factors on the location of industries.

The non-geographical factors are those including economic, political, historical and social factors. These factors influence our modern industries to a great extent. Following are some of the important non- geographical factors influencing the location of industries.

1. Capital:

Modern industries are capital-intensive and require huge investments. Capitalists are available in urban centres. Big cities like Mumbai, Kolkata, Delhi, and Chennai are big industrial centres, because the big capitalists live in these cities.

2. Government Policies:

Government activity in planning the future distribution of industries, for reducing regional disparities, elimination of pollution of air and water and for avoiding their heavy clustering in big cities, has become no less an important locational factor.

There is an increasing trend to set up all types of industries in an area, where they derive common advantage of water and power and supply to each other the products they turn out. The latest example in our country is the establishment of a large number of industrial estates all over India even in the small-scale industrial sector.

It is of relevance to examine the influence of India's Five Year plans on industrial location in the country. The emergence of suitable industries in south India around new nuclei of public sector plants and their dispersal to backward potential areas has taken place due to Government policies.

The state policy of industrial location has a greater hand in the establishment of a number of fertiliser factories, iron and steel plants, engineering works and machine tool factories including

railway, shipping, aircraft and defence installations and oil refineries in various parts in the new planning era in free India.

It can be concluded that the traditional explanation of a location of industry at a geographically favourable point is no longer true. Location of oil refinery at Mathura, coach factory at Kapurthala and fertiliser plant at Jagdishpur are some of the results of government policies.

3. Industrial Inertia:

Industries tend to develop at the place of their original establishment, though the original cause may have disappeared. This phenomenon is referred to as inertia, sometimes as geographical inertia and sometimes industrial inertia. The lock industry at Aligarh is such an example.

4. Efficient Organisation:

Efficient and enterprising organisation and management is essential for running modern industry successfully. Bad management sometimes squanders away the capital and puts the industry in financial trouble leading to industrial ruin. Bad management does not handle the labour force efficiently and tactfully, resulting in labour unrest. It is detrimental to the interest of the industry. Strikes and lock-outs lead to the closure of industries. Hence, there is an imperative need of effective management and organisation to run the industries.

5. Banking Facilities:

Establishment of industries involves daily exchange of crores of rupees which is possible through banking facilities only. So the areas with better banking facilities are better suited to the establishment of industries.

6. Insurance:

There is a constant fear of damage to machine and man in industries for which insurance facilities are badly needed.

Definitions of the Size of a Firm:

In an industry there are firms of varying sizes. The costs of production in these firms of different sizes vary. Economists are concerned with the best size of a business unit, that is, a firm in which the average cost of production per unit is the lowest.

But while taking decision about the size of a business unit or scale of operations often the various terms such as the plant or the establishment, the firm and the industry are used in a confused way. To have clear understanding of the concept of the size of a business unit it is advisable to keep in mind the differences between these terms, i.e., the plant, the firm, and the industry.

The Plant:

Plant or establishment means a factory, a mill, a shop or an establishment. It refers to a place where goods are produced such as a cement pipe factory or wherefrom goods are distributed such as a department store or wherefrom the services are supplied such as the transport depot. The term plant includes not only the machinery and equipment installed in the factory building but also the workers employed therein.

The Firm:

The term 'firm' refers to the business unit or undertaking which owns the plant (the factory, the shop, the warehouse or transport depot), controls and manages it. Thus this term (firm) is broader in its scope. It is essentially a unit of control, ownership and management.

The firm owns the land on which the plant or establishment is situated, the building along with the machines and equipment installed in it and the raw materials, the semi-finished and finished goods of the plant.

It controls the workers employed in the plant, finances the needs of the plant, arranges for the marketing of goods produced (or purchased in case of a selling shop) and bears the risks involved. It may be noted that a firm may own only one plant or more than one plants.

Again, the various plants owned by a firm may be engaged in the production of the same product such as a number of cotton textile mills or different plants may be engaged in the production of different goods.

The Industry:

The term 'industry' is wider in coverage than the term firm. It includes all the firms owning, controlling and managing plants engaged in the production of similar products. For example, by

sugar industry is meant all the firms which are engaged in the production of sugar; cotton textile industry is the aggregation of all the firms which own the plants producing cotton yarn and cloth.

Measures of Size:

The following are the factors determining the size of a firm:

1. Capital Invested:

The Amount of capital invested is one measure of size that can be used to compare the size of like and unlike firms. But as Kimbal and Kimball point out “the main difficulty of this measure is that accurate data concerning capitalisation are difficult to obtain. Due to the variation in the capital requirements of different units and their methods of financing this measure is not much reliable.”

2. Value of the Product:

The second measure is the value of the products in terms of rupees turned out by a firm. This measure has the advantage of making all comparisons in terms of rupees, which is convenient.

But difficulty arises in case of the fluctuating value of the product or if the comparison is over two periods of time, one of the rising prices (boom) and the other of the falling prices (depression), because inspite of large volume of output during depression the value may be small whereas during the boom period even with relatively small output value may be big.

3. The Number of Wage-earners Employed:

The third measure is the number of wage-earners employed by each firm. This measure is much used and is advantageous in the comparison of the firms of similar nature. However, in case of its application to unlike firms results may be misleading. Also, it can be used only for the firms at the same stage of development because as firms grow in size all of them may not employ increasing number of workers, some may actually install more machines for increased production rather than increasing their labour force.

4. Power Used:

The amount of power used per unit is also “an index of the size and growth” of firms engaged in manufacturing. However, the amount of power consumed may be more or less even due to the

factors other than the scale of operations of a firm. Therefore, it may not always prove to be a reliable measure.

5. Amount of Raw Materials Consumed:

In case of the firms whose output are of similar nature the annual consumption of raw materials by a firm may be a good measure.

6. Volume of Output:

This is a good measure of size in case of firms producing products which are uniform or homogeneous in nature or characteristics. But it will not give perfect picture in case of the firms which produce variety of goods such as is the case with the cotton textile industry.

7. Productive Capacity of the Plant:

This is a good measure of size especially for the industries producing a variety of products. For example, number of plants in case of iron and steel industry with their productive capacity may provide a good standard of measure

8. Entrepreneurial Skill:

The most important factor of comes is the skill, initiative and resourcefulness of the entrepreneur. Everything depends on his judgment and ability. An entrepreneur of outstanding ability will be able to procure as much finance as he may need, hire the requisite labor force and build up a huge business. But an entrepreneur of moderate ability will run business on a moderate scale and a man of limited entrepreneurial skill will be content with a small business

9. Managerial Ability:

For running the routine part of the business, managers are appointed. If a firm is lucky enough to have a manager of great ability, the size of the firm will grow to considerable dimensions. On the other hand, a mediocre manager will have a small-sized firm to manage.

Large scale Units

The term "**large-scale industry**" refers to unitss that combine at least three characteristics: use of machinery, employment of wage labor, and the application of regulatory measures such as the

Factory Act or Disputes Act. A business can range from a single proprietor enterprise to a large corporation which employs thousands of workers across multiple countries. Based on the scale of business, organizations are classified as micro-enterprises, small-scale enterprises, large scale industries, public enterprises, and multinational corporations.

Industries which requires huge infrastructure and manpower with an influx of capital assets are Large Scale Units. In India, large-scale units are the ones with a fixed asset of more than one hundred million rupees or Rs. 10 crores. The Indian economy relies heavily on such units for economic growth, generation of foreign currency, and the creation of job opportunities for millions of people.

a) Advantages of Large Scale Units:

The following are the merits of large scale units:

1. Internal Economies

Internal economies arise within the firm because of the expansion of the size of a particular firm. They are called the economies of scale.

2. External Economies

External economies arise with the expansion of the industry. These are generally the result of large scale production and are associated with the advantages of localisation.

3. Division of Labour

The large scale production is always associated with more and more division of labour. With the division of labour per worker output increases. Hence, per unit labour cost is reduced in large scale production.

4. Use of machines

The large scale production always makes use of machines. So, all the advantages of the use of machinery are available.

5. More Production

The large scale industries can produce more goods. For instance, a big sugar factory can use molasses to make spirits and thus can reduce the cost of production of sugar.

6. Economies of Organisation

With an increase in the size of the firm, the cost of management is reduced.

7. Low Cost of Production

The large scale production gives many types of economies. Suppose, there are two different factories, each producing 500 units of a commodity. For these two factories, there must be two managers. But if the scale of production is enlarged and in one factory we start producing 1000 units of the same commodity, the work can be supervised by one manager. In this way, in the large scale production, the salary of one manager is saved. So, the cost of production is reduced.

8. Cheap and Easy Loans

A large business can secure credit facilities at cheaper rates, because these firms enjoy credit and reputation in the market due to their fixed assets. Banks and other financial institutions willingly advance loans to these enterprises at a very low rate of interest.

9. Ancillary Industries

With the development of large scale production, there arise many small industries which use its by-products or supply inputs to it. Suppose, when the production of steel is increased, many other auxiliary industries develop. The development of auxiliary industries contributes to the industrialisation of the area and the industry itself.

10. Standard Goods

The production of standardised goods is possible on account of the large-scale production. Only a big motor company can produce standardised motor parts. Besides, it is possible to sell and transport these goods to distant places only by big business houses.

11. Advertisement and Salesmanship

A big concern can afford to spend large amounts of money on advertisement and salesmanship. Ultimately, they do bear fruit. The amount of money spent on advertisement per unit comes to a

low figure when production is undertaken on a very large scale. The salesmen can make a careful study of the individual markets and thus acquire a hold on new markets or strengthen it on the old ones. Thus, a large scale producer has a greater competitive strength.

12. Research

The large scale production is conducive for the development of technology also. With larger amount of capital and financial resources, the large scale firms can afford to spend more on research and experiments which ultimately lead to the discovery of new machines and cheaper techniques of production.

13. Economy of Buying and Selling

A large concern usually buys things in large quantities and therefore, at low rates. It also sells things in large quantities and can secure better terms.

14. Economies of Indivisibility

Many factors of production are not perfectly divisible. For instance, assume that one machine can produce 100 units of a commodity, but we are producing only 50 units by that machine. The machine is indivisible. If the scale of production is increased and we start producing 100 units, per unit cost will be reduced. This is the economy of the indivisible machines.

(b) Disadvantages of Large Scale Units

The following are the demerits of large scale production:

1. Evils of Factory System

The large scale production is accompanied by all the evils of the factory system like overcrowding, density, pollution, bad morals, etc. Dirty habits of drinking and gambling spread very easily.

2. Danger of Over-Production

The large scale organisation results in over production at times, so demand cannot be properly estimated. At last, prices fall and depression sets in.

3. Less Supervision

A large scale producer cannot pay full attention to every detail in various departments. Costs often rise on account of the dishonesty of workers. Thus, due to inefficient and inadequate supervision, the cost of production goes up.

4. Monopoly

The large scale production results in the localisation of industries. As a result, the bigger fish swallows the smaller ones, and cut-throat competition and monopolies result.

5. Class Struggle

The large scale production gives rise to class struggle, the struggle between the labourers and the capitalists. Their interests cannot go together, as they are very different from each other. As a result, there is a struggle between the two groups.

6. Dependence on Foreign Markets

A large producer has generally to depend on the foreign markets. The foreign markets may be cut off by wars, etc. This makes the business risky.

7. Possibility of War

The large scale production increases the possibilities of wars. Big producers make attempts to sell their goods in the foreign markets and try to capture them by fair and foul means, thereby exposing the world to wars and struggles.

8. Lack of Adaptability

As huge capital is invested in the large scale production, it is very difficult to bring about a change in the scale of production according to the circumstances.

9. Individual Tastes Ignored

The individual tastes and interests stand completely ignored in large scale production. Goods of uniform quality are turned out irrespective of

roduction. The rich become richer and the poor become poorer. f the requirements of the individual customers. Individual tastes are not, therefore, satisfied. This results in the loss of customers to other competitors.

10. Unequal Distribution of Wealth

All wealth and incomes of the country get concentrated in the pockets of big producers due to large scale production. There is unequal distribution of wealth and resources on account of the large scale p

Definition of Modern Office

According to Mills & Standingford “The office is the administrative center of a business. The purpose of an office has been defined as the providing of a service of communication and record”.

As per Random House of Dictionary “An office is a place where business is transacted or professional services are available”.

Importance of Offices

An office is an important unit of the whole organization which is also regarded as the mainspring of a watch. It has its equal importance in the government sector as well as in the private sector. It is essential for the office to perform a number of administrative as well as clerical functions in the process of achieving the organizational objectives.

Information Center: The office serves as an information centre. It collects information from sources like invoices, letters, memos, agreements, vouchers etc., and protects them in safe mode on the basis of their importance for future reference.

Proof of Existence: The office is the evidence for existence and survival of business. As office coordinates the functions of different departments of an organisation, without office no business house can survive. People tent to generalize about the existence of business only with the help of regular functioning of an office.

Channel of Communication: The office is the channel of communication between different people and department of business. The staffs working at various levels of managerial hierarchy are linked with one another through office. Office transmits the information about the functioning of different departments such as personnel, finance, production and marketing with each other.

Co-Ordination of Work: Business is divided into department and sub-units for bringing simplicity in the operation. The office will work as a coordinator to maintain the relationship between departments. It develops productivity relationship to achieve common goals of an organisation.

Centre for Formulation and communication of plan and policies: A business is established with the objective of attaining the certain result. To achieve this result top level manager formulate plans and policies from office. These plan and policies are communicated to related person through the office. Therefore, the office is a centre for the formulation and communication of plans and policies.

Managerial Control: The process of developing performance standard and comparing with actual performance in order to take corrective action for deviations if any is called controlling. The office helps in controlling the activities of different people and department of an organisation. Through controlling it ensures that the various activities of business are performed with much accuracy.

Memory Center: Office protects important information of past in a safe manner. The departments and people generally collect needed data from the office as and when they are required. It provides information storage facilities in the form of files and devices on the basis of their importance for future reference. Therefore, the office is considered as memory center.

Service Center: The office works as a service centre for different units and departments of an organisation. It provides clerical services like mailing, filing, typing, printing, supplying resource etc., to all people working in different departments of an organisation.

Functions of Modern Office

I. BASIC FUNCTIONS

- Receiving And Collecting Information
- Recording Information
- Arranging And Processing Of Information
- Storing Of Data
- Communication Of Recorded Data

II. ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

- Management Functions
- Office Systems And Procedures
- Designing And Purchasing Of Office Forms And Stationery
- Selection And Purchase Of Office Furniture, Equipments And Machinery
- Public Relation Function
- Retention Of Records
- Safeguarding Of Office Assets
- Controlling Office Cost

I. Basic Functions (or) Routing Functions:

Following are some of the routine functions performed in office.

Receiving and collecting information: It is the primary function of office to receive and collect the information for timely business decisions. Information is generally collected both from Internal sources such as letters, memos, circulars, notices etc., issued by different departments, sections and External sources like government departments, financial Institutions, banks, suppliers, customers, universities, general public etc.

Recording of information: The collected Information has to be recorded for future reference in a suitable form. This recorded information is needed for preparing future plans, policies and taking decisions.

Arranging (or) Processing of Information: All the information received cannot be used as it is. Office has to convert the collected information in the form of notes, reports, diagrams, graphs etc., depending upon the nature of information for easy access and understanding.

Storing Data: The recorded information should be protected for future reference. The degree of necessity of data will determine the duration for protecting the same. Based on the importance of data, office will store them in a separate file.

Communication of Recorded Data: Office has to supply the right information at the right time to different departments and also to outside bodies who are related in some way or the other for prompt and sound business decisions.

II. Administrative Management Functions

For the smooth functioning of the office there are certain administrative functions needed to be performed. These functions are outlined below:

Management Functions: Office work has to be properly planned, organized and executed according to the plan. For efficient functioning of an office the manager has to perform the following function such as.

- Planning.
- Organising.
- Staffing.
- Directing.
- Communication.
- Controlling.
- Co-ordination.

□ Motivation.

Developing Office Systems and Procedures: Most important function of the office is to plan and set up suitable systems and procedures for the major activity of office. For the efficient and economical performance of office operations, each major work of the office is to be carefully planned and also the routine procedures for performing them to be determined beforehand itself.

Form Designing and Control: A form is a standardise record, which is used to accumulate and transact information for reference purposes. These forms serve as a storehouse of information. Since the office work is largely paper work, the form used should be designed so as furnish the required information in an appropriate manner. It is the duty of the office to design the forms that can be used in various departments.

Purchasing and Supply of Office Stationery: Majority of office work are paper work. Consequently adequate supply of office stationery of suitable quality is of prime importance for the systematic and efficient performance of office work. It is the task of office to look after the standardisation, selection, and purchase of office stationery and its distribution to different departments.

Selection and Purchase of Office Furniture, Equipment and Machines: The office has to select and purchase the right type of furniture, equipment and machines in right quantities, so that office work can be carried out according to the planned system and routine without any interruptions and must also ensure their fullest utilisation in the organisation.

Public Relations Functions: An office has not only maintained relations with the other departments, it also needs to maintain a good dealings with the outside world such as suppliers, customers, bankers, government departments and the public at large. Maintaining good relations with these stakeholders increases the reputation and goodwill of the company.

Retention of the Records: Records are those documents which serves as objective evidence of activities performed, events occurred, results achieved, or statements made. They are created /received by an organization in routine transaction of its business or in pursuance of its legal obligations. Office retains records such as correspondence, invoices, orders, financial and cost records, and minutes etc., for future reference.

Safeguarding Assets: It is one of the functions of office to safeguard the assets of the organisation, such as immovable assets like buildings, plants, machinery, office equipments, lighting and air conditioning equipments, and movable assets like furniture, office machinery, title deeds, records and documents, or cash, etc., against loss or damages from unforeseen conditions.

Controlling office Costs: With the adoption of scientific methods in office management, a modern office discharges the function of controlling office costs through

- Mechanization of the office.
- Adopting time and labour saving devices in the office.
- Using better forms.
- Analyzing the existing office routines and adopting improved ones.

Meaning of Office Layout

Office layout means the systematic arrangement of office equipment, machines and furniture and providing adequate space to office personnel for regular performance of work with efficiency.

Definition of Office Layout

According to Littlefield, "Office layout is the arrangement of equipment within the available floor space".

Objectives of Office Layout

The main objectives of office layout are as follows:

1. **Effective utilization of available floor space** and smooth flow of work.
2. Both power and telephone service is made available whenever necessary.
3. **Office supervision is made more easy** and convenient.
4. **Good working conditions** should be provided to each employee
5. The reception room should be very near to the main gate or entrance so that the visitors may feel easy and convenient.

6. A **sense of belonging** and loyalty should be made in the minds of office employees.
7. **Employee's satisfaction** should be the outcome of proper office layout.
8. There should be a **free flow of communication** among employees.
9. All the sections can not work independently. Hence, the office layout ensues the **interlinking of each sections** according to their needs.
10. There must be an **adequate space between desks**, tables and chairs for free movement of employees.
11. Noise and disturbing operations should be segregated within the office.
12. Some sections require **privacy**. The sections may be interview section and inquiry section. Interview section is dealing with recruitment of staff and inquiry section is dealing with progress and performance of the existing staff.
13. **Frequent mutual consultation** and interference between clerks should be avoided.
14. The room of the manager should be arranged in such a manner that he can easily observe the activities of staff for exercising control on them.
15. The external noise and disturbance should be avoided by fixing double glazed windows and doors.
16. Changes may be made in the office layout if the volume of work is increased in future and requires facilities.
17. Staff doing **confidential work should be provided** adequate privacy.
18. There must be **sufficient, natural or artificial light**.
19. Adequate **safety of valuable documents and records** should be ensured.

Advantages of an Efficient office Layout

The following advantages can be derived by having planned layout.

1. No waste of time and energy of office personnel.
2. Promotes efficiency of staff.
3. Proper utilization of floor space.
4. Easy supervision.
5. Speed in inter – communication.
6. Better use of office machines and equipment.

The contents in the E-Material have been prepared from the Text books and Reference books given in the Syllabus.