COURSE
GUIDE

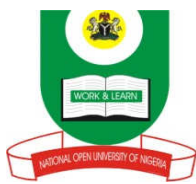**PAD 712**
ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

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NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

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INTRODUCTION

This course, PAD 712: ADDMINISTRATIVE THEORY is a two credit unit compulsory course for students studying Public Administration at masters level in the Faculty.

The course has been conveniently arranged for you in distinct but related units of study activities. In this course guide, you will find out what you need to know about the aims and objectives of the course, components of the course material, arrangement of the study units, assignments, and examinations.

The discipline and theory of administration passed, and are still passing, through several stages of development both as an academic discipline and as an activity or process. The development manifested due to differences and changing needs of the society and the world dynamics towards perfection. In the earlier forms of human society, like in the primitive societies where the people were engaged in hunting and fruits gathering, the focus of administration was on security and defence. In the immediate post-revolutionary, France, the concern of public administration was principally the maintenance of law and order in the society. This was informed by the anarchy nature in the society which by extension calls for law and order to prevail after the revolution. The industrial revolution of 17th and 18th centuries in Europe had brought a dramatic change to the nature and process of administration and production.

The development of a distinct discipline of public administration is perhaps the recent development where the contemporary scholars are trying to attribute new conceptualisation and explanation to the study of public administration. It is out of the impact of what has been described above that different schools of thoughts, by different scholars at different times emerged in order to address the problem of production and effective realisation of goals. Problems of this nature were described and identified by scholars as impediment or hitches to the progress of organisation productivity and efficiency.

The theories of these different schools of thoughts are centered on administrative techniques and methods towards the process of production in organisation. These administrative methods are based on various analyses of thoughts, which comprises of administrative techniques, administrative psychology, administrative behaviour, administrative socialisation and host of others.

In connection with this, it is important to note that every organisational

activity is highly determined by a proper administrative techniques being applied by the organisation so as to enable it attain full realisation of goals. Thus, to attain and achieve full realisation of goals, the organisation has to allow administration to take control of all other aspects in the administrational activities. These administrative postulations of different schools of thoughts developed as theories, which seeks to discover and explain new ways upon when on efficient and effective means of realisation of goals can be achieved through making use of minimum possible cost. These schools of thoughts include:-

a.   The principles of management – by Henri Fayol
b.   The scientific management – by Fredrick Taylor & Co.
c.   Bureaucracy – by Max Weber etc.

Each of these theories had contributed greatly to the modern public administration today. It is also pertinent to note that the contribution of these theories so far, came as a result of various attempts of researchers, experiments and the impact of experiences acquired from the factories, companies and industries. It must, of course be remembered that as there are processes of administration in government, so there are in the world of business.

THE COURSE AIM

The course is aimed at acquainting you with what Administrative Theory is, and getting you understands the practical aspects of the theories in terms of their applications in organisations. To ensure that this aim is achieved, some important background information will be provided and discussed, including:

• introducing you to basic concepts of administrative theory
• exposing you to types of theories – Scientific Management, Classical, Neo-Classical, Modern Theories etc
• helping to understand Theories of Motivation
• providing you the Theories of Decision Making
• giving you insight into behavioural aspects of the Theories.

THE COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the course you should be able to:

• appreciate the uses and importance of Administrative Theories
• apply the theories to achieve results in an organisation.

- identify organisational politics in the context of the theories.
- explain with the application of the theories in Nigerian environment
- state the various principles contained in the theories
- describe the procedures involved in their application.

COURSE MATERIALS

The major components of the course including the following:

1. Course Guide
2. Study Units
3. Textbooks and references
4. Assignment file
5. Tutor-Marked Asignment

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STUDY UNITS

There are sixteen study units in this course as follows:

Module 1   The Concepts of Administration, Management Theory

Unit 1   Concepts of Administration and Management
Unit 2   Concept of Theory

Module 2   Scientific Management and Classical Administrative Theory

Unit 1   Early Development of Administration and Management
Unit 2   The Scientific Management Theory.
Unit 3   The Main Classical (Henry Fayol, Urwick, Luther Gulick)
Unit 4   Bureaucratic Theory

Module 3   Neo-Classical or Human Relations Theory

Unit 1   The Hawthorn Experiment and Other Contributors
Unit 2   Administrative Leadership Theory

Unit 3   Decision Making Theory.
Unit 4   Communication in an Organisation
Unit 5   Organisational Conflict

Module 4   Modern Theories of Administration

Unit 1   Behaviourism and Motivation
Unit 2   Other Motivation Theories
Unit 3   Systems Theory, Contingency Theory and New Public
                Management
Unit 4   Management by Objectives (MBO)

ASSIGNMENTS

Each unit of the course has a self- assessment exercise. You will be
expected to attempt them as this will enable you understand the content
of the unit.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

The Tutor-Marked Assignments at the end of each unit are
designed to test your understanding and application of the
concepts learned. It is important that these assignments are
submitted to your facilitators for assessments. They make up 30 percent
of the total score for the course.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

At the end of the course, you will be expected to participate in the final
examinations as scheduled. The final examination constitutes 70 percent
of the total score for the course.

SUMMARY

This course, PAD 712: ADDMINISTRATIVE THEORY is ideal for
administrative and organisational progress both in the public and in
the private sectors. It will enable you understand the whole principles
involved in efficient administration and management in both sectors.
Having successfully completed the course, you will be equipped with
the latest global knowledge on administrative theories and principles.
Enjoy the course.

MAIN COURSE

CONTENTS   PAGE

MODULE 1   THE CONCEPTS OF ADMINISTRATION, MANAGEMENT AND THEORY

Unit 1   Concepts of Administration and Management
Unit 2   Concept of Theory

UNIT 1   THE CONCEPTS OF ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The basic concepts of what administration is and does are undergoing a number of significant changes. There was a time when the administrator thought he should be able to do the work in the more important departments of the organisation better than anyone else. His qualifications for administration were limited to superiority in the same abilities as were required of his major subordinates. He was likely to exert authoritarian control for he had great confidence in his own judgment and believed that his position was proof of his right to order the policies of his organisation and the activities of its workers. He administered in a relatively stable socio-economic framework which was conducive to long-term planning. Today the administrator finds that clear thinking and the ability to understand and lead people are more important than technical competence. He finds, too, that he is administering in a volatile, rapidly changing socio-economic-political environment where open-mindedness and flexibility in thinking are essential characteristics of the leader.

It is sometimes misconceived that the study of theory of administration is only useful to the administrator or to the manager. In fact it is as useful to the administrator as it is to the lawyer, to the engineer, the doctor and many others engaged in different occupations. For one thing, it is an obvious fact that no individual car work or practice his profession in isolation i.e. excluding other human beings. And the more you interact with individuals and/or groups the more you draw yourself toward administration.

The terms "Management theory" and "Organisation theory" are often used interchangeably, in the study of theory of administration, although many writers often confine "organisation theory" to explanation of and prescriptions for organisation structure. We use management theory on the other hand, to explain and prescribe (improve) the managerial job. Hence, organisation theory is one part of management theory and forms a portion of the total body of knowledge that managers/administrators apply to their real life situation.

The theory of administration has been developing for years and still is far from complete. Inputs come from diverse fields–psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, political science and mathematics and from practice experiences of administrators and managers. Therefore management or organisation theory is initially eclectics; it draws from many sources and is gradually evolving into a cohesive and defined field of its own.

A theory is the end result of a search for generalisation and is a plausible or scientifically acceptable general principle offered to explain phenomena. So a theory explains and/or predicts. Hence the more precise a theory is and the broader its scope, the better the theory. This is the situation where a reasonably large sample size is used in data collection in the process of formulation of the theory, and that avoids type one or type two errors.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the of this study unit, you should be able to:

- define the concepts of administration and management
- identify the characteristics of administration
- explain the principles of management
- describe management as a system
  state the universality of management.

3.0   MAIN CONTENTS

3.1   The Concept of Administration

The word "administer", derived from the Latin words **adminis** and **trare**, means to care for or to look after people to manage affairs. Administration is a universal process permeating all collective efforts, be it public or private, civil or military, large scale or otherwise. It is a cooperative efforts directed towards the realisation of a consciously laid down objective. To Professor Dwight Waldo, 1956, Administration is organisation and management of human and material resources to achieve a stated objective. If the objective is public oriented, then it is public administration, and if the objective is private oriented, then it is private administration. Specifically, if the set objective is profit maximisation, then it is business administration. Thus Administration is the umbrella covering organisation and management. Organisation is the structure, the skeleton, the anatomy of administration while management is the process, the flesh and the physiology of administration. Hence Administration = Organisation + Management. None of them in isolation can form administration without the other.

Despite the above given definition out of many others, Administration is one of the most controversial concepts because it has no universal definition. In common parlance the word 'administration' appears to bear at least four different meaning according to the context in which it is used: First, administration is a synonym of the word 'cabinet' or some such other body of persons in supreme charge of affair as, for example, when we say that the first Nehru administration included the leaders of all the major political parties in India. Second, the name of a branch of learning or intellectual discipline, e.g., when we say that public administration is one of the social sciences. Third, the sun-total of the activities undertaken to implement public policy or policies, or to produce some service or goods as, for example, when we speak of the 'Nigerian administration,' 'railways administration', 'educational administration' etc. Fourth, the art of management, e.g., when we say that so and so has no capacity or aptitude for 'administration'. The four meanings differ from one another so widely that it is difficult to combine them into a single definition of administration.

Dismissing the first of the meanings noted above as unimportant for our purposes, we are left with the remaining three. The purport of these would seem to be that administration is a study or branch of learning, and also an activity which constitutes the subject-matter or content of that study. So far, we are on commonly agreed ground. When we

however enquire as to what activity or activities are comprised in 'administration', we are faced with a controversy. According to some, 'administration' is the sum-total or the whole complex of activities, manual, clerical, technical, and managerial which are undertaken to realise the objective in view, i.e, the implementation of the policy or policies in a given field, while according to others 'administration' is not the sum-total of the activities undertaken in pursuance of a purpose but just one of them concerned with management, which unites and controls the rest of them as parts of a coordinated endeavour. This shade of meaning of administration is enshrined in the word 'administrator' who is supposed to be a functionary in charge of management   functions. We do not call a peon, or a clerk an 'administrator'.

We may call the above two views regarding the nature of administration as 'the integral' views and 'managerial' views respectively. The difference between the two is fundamental. If we accept the 'integral view' of administration as the sum-total of activities to achieve the various common purposes, them not only would the entire personnel of the enterprise, from the errand boy to the manager, be considered as engaged in administration, but administration would also differ from one field (say public health) to another (say education) according to the subject-matter. If on the other hand, we accept the managerial view then only the superior and supervisory personnel with management functions would be considered to be engaged in administration, and administration itself would mean only the management techniques and methods such as planning, organised, co-ordination, direction, financial control, etc., which are the common core of all co- operative endeavour and do not differ according to-subject-matter fields.

The difference between the two points of view may be clarified by taking a concrete example. Suppose there is a textile mill. It employs a large number of people with different duties. There is the board of directors to decide questions of policy, the manager to direct and co-ordinate the execution of the policy, the heads of the various departments controlling and supervising the blocks of activities into which the work is divided, the supervisors and foreman, the clerical staff, the operations or workers who do the spinning and weaving and scores of other operations, and finally the messengers, peons, watchmen, gatekeepers, etc, Do the activities of all these persons constitute the administration of the enterprise or only of certain categories of them? If we accept the integral view, we will have to regard the work of every one of them as part of administration and perhaps also to call every one of them an administrator. If, on the

other hand, we look at things from the point of view of the managerial theory of administration, then the work of only the manager, heads of departments, and foremen and supervisor would be called administration and what the labourers, clerks, messengers, etc., do, would be excluded. Henry Fayol was, however, of opinion that administration, in varying measures, enters as a part of the duties of every employee, however humble. "Our of a hundred hours spent by the up by administrative questions, such things as sundry information passed on to the foremen, discussion about wages or the hours or arrangements of work, time given to meetings of sick funds, societies etc. The foreman receives and transmits the result of the workman's observations, and sees to the carrying out of orders, makes observations himself, and gives advice, and clearly gives more time to administration. The time taken up by administrative questions; increases with the employees' level in the industrial hierarchy.

He gives a table to show how much of administration does a part of the duties of various grades of employees constitutes. This is shown below:-

Table 1: Time Spent in Administrative Activities According to Job Grade.

Staff	Administration	Other managerial Activities	Technical work
Workman	5%	10%	85%
Foreman	15%	25%	60%
Shop Manager	25%	30%	45%
Departmental Head	35%	35%	30%
Plant Manager	40%	45%	15%
General Manager	50%	30%	10%

The distinction between the works of two categories is related to the difference between management and operation, or in ordinary words, between getting things done and doing things. According to the managerial theory, only managerial or supervisory activities constitute administration, not the operations. In other words, according to it, administration is not doing things, but getting them done. An administrator is a functionary who gets things done by others by directing and supervising their work.

The above fundamental difference of approach is reflected in the definitions of administration given by various writers. A few samples will illustrate the point. According to Simon, Smithburg

and Thompson, "in its broadest sense administration can be defined as the activities of groups cooperating to accomplish common goals. "The real core of administration is the basic service which is performed for the public such as; police and the protection, public works, education, recreation, sanitation, social security, agricultural research, national defence and others. For example, public administration consists of doing the work of government whether it be running an X-ray machine in a health laboratory or coining money in the mint.

In simplest terms administration is determined action taken in pursuit of a conscious purpose. Administration is concerned with the 'what' and 'how' of the government. The 'what' is the subject-matter, the technical knowledge of a field which enables the administrator to perform his tasks. The 'how' is the technique of management, the principles according to indispensable together they form the synthesis called administration.

The trend of the above definition obviously is in the direction of the integral view of administration conceived as the totally of activities undertaken for the accomplishment of some end or purpose. On the contrary, the following set of definitions leans towards the managerial view of administration. First, administration has to do with getting things done with the accomplishment of defined objectives. Second, administration is the organisation and use of men and materials to accomplish a purpose. It is the specialised vocation of managers who have skills of organising, and directing men and materials just as definitely as an engineer has the skill of building structures or a doctor has the skill of understanding human ailments.

The term administration is also used in a narrower sense to refer to those patterns of behaviours that are common to many kinds of co-operating groups and that do not depend upon either the specific goals towards which they are co-operating or the specific technological methods used to reach these goals.

3.2   Characteristics of Administration

There are four basic characteristics of administration which include; coordination, search for better ways, functions, and control

3.2.1 Co-ordination, Not Specialisation

The first essential for administration is the recognition of the fact that it is something more than expertness and superiority in a specialised area. An administrator need not be a better specialist in each area than those he directs; in fact, the really wise administrator seeks to

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surround himself with specialists, each of whom may be superior to himself in his assigned area of responsibility.

However, some administrators fear this policy; they think their power of direction depends on being able to "show up" each subordinate occasionally. Consequently, such an administrator attracts and retains inferior subordinates; his methods get rid of those who can do anything that the administrator thinks important better than he can. He finds himself busy most of the time doing the tough jobs for his subordinates. Of course, that makes him feel important and keeps others catering to him. But it kills administrators before their time (at least chronologically); it fails to prepare subordinates to take over; and it limits the expansion of the organisation's services because the administrator believes that he must be able to give personal attention to all administrative emergencies.

The modern administrator does nothing he can get others to do. His major job is coordination of capable specialists, some of whom are potentially able to take over his job. His usefulness is not measured by his indispensability or by the seriousness of what would happen if he should step out of the picture, but rather by the outstanding capacity of his subordinates and the smoothness of their operations. Today it is specialised that the basic qualifications for administration are separate from, they are different from, and they are over and above experience and abilities in specialised areas.

3.2.2 The Search for Better Ways

A second requirement is the tendency to continuously look for improvements. The president of a large corporation states that this is the "first and most important responsibility of administration." It is one of the most difficult characteristics to find in older persons, particularly those who have assumed that their positions are held by virtue of superiority in one or more specialised fields. All they expect of their subordinates is that they should "do about as well." That is why some older persons of long experience are supplanted by younger persons who believe that even the good performance of the past can be improved, not necessarily through their own superior knowledge and experience, but through the process of constantly challenging "old ways," and combining the critical thinking of the best obtainable associates in looking for better ways.

3.2.3 Functions

A third characteristic of this new type administrator is that he thinks in terms of functions rather than in terms of specific operations, and

specific methods, which should be the responsibilities of subordinates. The successful administrator thinks fundamentally in terms of:

i)   Objectives and goals
ii)   Planning of work (services), resources and facilities
iii)   Guiding policies
iv)   Principles of sound organisation structure and relationships
v)   Selection, assignment, and development of key personnel vi) Wholesome human relations and morale
vii)   Executive direction largely through consultative management (democratic administration)
viii)   Co-ordination
ix)   Controls as represented by reports, audits, appraisals, and remedial actions rather than by repressive measures
x)   Public relations

A good way for an administrator to test whether he is doing his job or his associates' jobs is to keep a careful record for a month of what he actually does. Not more than one-third of his time should be spent on checking up on regular operations-assigned to others and that third should be spent mainly in coordination and control -not in actually making the decisions or doing the work of his employees. A second third may be required to do those things which no subordinate is supposed to do, such as maintaining relationship which cannot be deputized-with the board of directors and representatives of the public or with professional groups. The final third of his time should be available for thinking, looking ahead, revising objectives and goals, mailing new over-all plans, and mailing improvements -preferably in personnel and policies, seldom in specific methods of operation. "It's nice work if you can get it," says the practical-minded administrator whose work day is overcrowded with the necessity of making decisions for hesitant subordinates and checking up to see that they have done what they should and in the way they should. Such an administrator is likely to say, "Democracy is fine, but I can't get people to accept responsibility and to make decisions.

Even when they do, they don't do it right. It's all their (the subordinates') fault." That may be a factual statement today for some administrators. The point is, it doesn't need to be true tomorrow if the administrator selects his employees more carefully, and systematically develops them, gives them clearly stated policies, puts them together in sound organisation relationships, builds and maintains morale, and exercises executive direction through consultative management (democratic administration) . This new type of administrator not only conceives his job differently -he thinks differently. He thinks in terms of what can be

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done to equip the employee to do his job better, rather than in terms of what shall I do to improve the operation. He thinks in terms of policies and the development of persons rather than in terms of specific operations and methods. He thinks in terms of administrative functions not in terms of his subordinates specialisations. He rises above what he used to do well as a department head and does well what he is now supposed to do as an administrator.

3.2.4 Control

A fourth characteristic of the administrator is the way he exercises control. Too often the word "control" means "prevention" or "restriction" by a person who has authority and power over others. The old "boss" in industry had considerable control and the authoritarian type of administrator in non-profit institutions has copied many of the control attitudes and methods of the economic organisations.

Today, however, the concept of control is undergoing radical changes. There is space here merely to mention, not to develop, the fact that authoritarian restrictive control is giving way in industry and even in the military organisations to the more effective influences of leadership. At the same time, the concept of control is moving from the negative basis of restriction and prevention to the more positive concept of "knowing what is going on, as compared to plans and standards, in time to take remedial action where needed to prevent unsatisfactory results." Control then is: first, being informed of progress; second, interpretation of trends and prediction of results; and, third, knowing where, when, and how to initiate remedial action in time. The new administrator exercises this kind of control with a minimum of restriction and he does it quite differently than did the old authoritarian. The   latter, and he still exists in disturbing numbers, tends to exercise control by: making practically all decisions; requiring that others secure his approval of their decisions; declining to state policies and standard procedures in writing because that would make it difficult for him to "change his mind" (and because he fears loss of control); encouraging a few selected persons to act as "undercover men" and report to him unofficially.

Consequently, the authoritarian type of administrator finds himself constantly bedevilled by the necessity of deciding, approving, and checking up on specifics. His subordinates fear him because they cannot predict his actions. They seldom embarrass him with initiative or by taking responsibility. He feels very indispensable, very important, and too often he likes it. The modern administrator is critical of himself whenever he has to act for a subordinate. He uses entirely different methods to exercise control and, incidentally, he has greater

control with a lot less effort and worry. His control methods include utilisation of:

i)   Clear-cut policies and standards of performance which guide employees in making most of the required decisions regarding repetitive operations without consulting or even getting approval.

ii)   Cleat-cut delegation of authority so that each worker knows when he can decide without incurring displeasure.

iii) Standard, periodic reports which keep the administrator constantly informed, both as to how achievement compares with plans and what results are anticipated.

iv)   Services of persons who are capable of acting within policies, plans, and standards and who are encouraged to tale initiative and exercise responsibility within delegated authorities.

v)   Administrative decisions which deal principally with special problems rather than with routine, repetitive, day-by-day operations. These control methods result in fewer mistakes by employees because they know what to do, how it should be done, when to decide, and when to get approval. They encourage initiative and the taking of responsibility which means increased productivity down the line. They develop persons for future promotions. They serve the administrator's time and reduce his worries. There is one additional tool of administration which is related to control but it is more than a control mechanism. It is a way of exercising administrative direction and co-ordination. Some call it consultative or participative management; others speak of it as democratic administration.

In conclusion, the above definitions show that the weight of authority is on both the sides of the controversy between the integral and managerial views of administration and that it is difficult to give a dogmatic conclusion on the point at issue. Perhaps, the best thing would be to say that considered as a concrete activity, administration includes all types of work necessary to achieve the goal in view, but considered as a skill or art it implies adeptness in the functions of management which are common to all rational group- endeavour. As a complex of activities, administration assumes myriads of shapes and forms in the various subject-matter fields, but considered as a skill or art it is everywhere the same. According to Fayol it is the same administrative skill that is required in industry, government as well as home management, and the administrative process is universally identical.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   What do you understand by the term "Administration"?
2.   Outlined and discuss various characteristics of modern administration

3.3   The Concept of Management

Different meanings have been attributed to the word "Management". Some people see it as referring to a group of people. They think of a management team or a group of individuals in an organisation. Management is also seen as a process demanding the performance of a specific function. Here management is a profession.

To a student and others, management is an academic discipline. In this instance, people study the art of managing or management science. According to the American Institute of Management, it is used to designate either a group of functions or the personnel who carry them out; to describe either an organisation's official Hierarchy or the activities of men who compose it: to provide antonym to either labour or ownership.

Therefore, management can be defined as "getting things done through others." It can be more scientifically defined as the co-ordination of all the resources of an organisation through the process of planning, organising, directing, and controlling in order to attain organisational objectives. Management is the guidance or direction of people towards organisational goals or objectives. It can also be seen as the supervising, controlling and coordinating of activity to attain optimum results with organisational resources.

Management is a comprehensive activity, involving the combination and co-ordination of human, physical and financial resources, in a way which produce a commodity or a service which is both wanted and can be offered at a price which will be paid, while making the working environment for those involved agreeable and acceptable. According to Yalokwu (2002) "management can be defined as the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the efforts of organisational members and using all other organisational resources to achieve set goals".

Furthermore, management involves the achievement of goals set for the organisation. This means that managers of any organisation – a commercial bank, a university, or the Nigerian Stock Exchange -try to attain specific ends. These ends are unique to each organisation. The set goal of a university might be to equip students with balanced education that will enable them to earn a living. The main goal of a commercial bank might be to provide quality financial services to the people at a profit.

Whatever is the goal of the organisation concerned, management is the process by which the goals can be attained.

The foregoing definitions of management are in compatibility with Badeian (1993) that "management is a process by which we achieve desired results through efficient utilisation of human and material resources".

Similarly, management can be viewed as the act of getting people together to accomplish desired goals and objectives using available resources efficiently and effectively. Since organisations can be viewed as system, management can also be defined as human action, including design, to facilitate the production of useful outcomes from a system. This view opens the opportunity to manage oneself, a pre-requisite to attempting to manage others.

Planning

Controlling 15
Organising

Directing
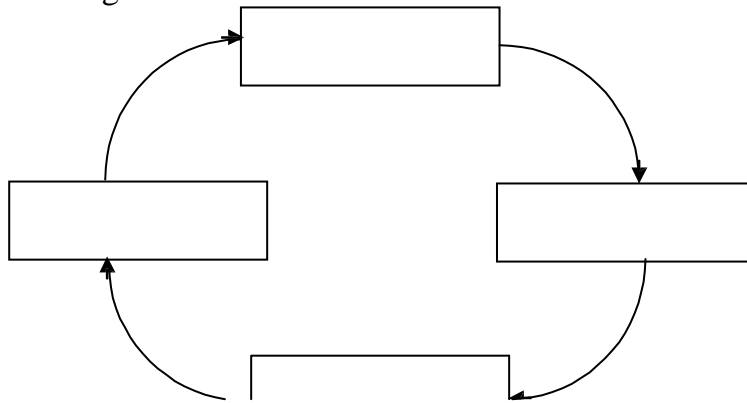
Source: Adopted from www.Boundless,com

Management functions include: Planning, organising, staffing, leading or directing, and controlling an organisation (a group of one or more people or entities) or effort for the purpose of accomplishing a goal.

There are several different resource types within management. Resourcing encompasses the deployment and manipulation of: human resources, financial resources, technological resources, and natural resources.

3.4   Management as an Art

According to Henry M. Boettenger, art is the imposition of a pattern, a vision of a whole, on many disparate parts so as to create a representation of that vision; art is an imposition of order on chaos. The artist has to have not only the vision that he or she wants to communicate; but also skills or craft with which to present the vision. This process entails choosing the correct art form, the correct techniques. In good art, the result is a blending of vision and craft that involves the viewer, reader, or listener without requiring that he separates the parts in order to appreciate the whole.

Art requires technical skill, and conceptual ability. An artist must possess the know-how in order to create a desired object. To be a successful or creative artist, one has to understand the fundamental principles governing it. In the same manner, to be a successful manager, or top flight executive, one has to master the art of managing. When one sees management as an art, one thinks of creative ability and special aptitude to design or effect a desired result.

There are special areas of management that are not subject to the rigours of science. The manager as a result has to depend on past experience and judgment instead of depending on any testable technical knowledge as is the case in engineering, physics or survey. In special areas as human behaviour instances abound where the manager will rely on experience collected over the years through practical experience. The application of this knowledge to individual situation is seen as art for the acquisition was not subject to the rigours of science.

3.5   Management as a Science

Frederick W. Taylor is known as the father of scientific management. This title he earned by his pioneering efforts in attacking the traditional approach to management that tended to depend on intuition, past experiences or hunches. Scientific management uses the methods of science in making decisions and evaluating its consequences. Science attempts through systematic procedure to establish the relationships between variables and the underlying principles. Management is a science when it employs systematic procedure or scientific methods to obtain complete information about a problem under consideration and the solution is subjected to rigorous control procedures to ensure the correctness and establish validity.

It must be observed that the two are not mutually exclusive but complementary. A good manager must know the concepts and principles of management (management science) and also how to apply

them in unique situations. A successful manager blends experience with science in order to achieve a desired result. One decision could involve both science and art in order to attain total result desired. The ability to use both judiciously makes for a successful manager.

3.6   Principles of Management

Principles are best seen as fundamental or general truth on which other truths depend. This implies a dependent and independent relationship. It is either descriptive, prescriptive or normative. Thus, a principle describes a relationship or what should be done if something else happens.   It is often difficult to formulate principles in management because of the difficulty in conducting controlled experiments. One of the most important variables — people, is not easy to control. Most of the principles of management in use today were developed by observation and deduction. The major reason being that management principles are subject to change and interpretation than are the laws in the physical   sciences. One of the principles of management, "unity of command," states that "each subordinate should be accountable to one, and only one superior." Sometimes   this principle is violated especially when an organisation has established well-defined superior - subordinate relationships. There is a need for principles of management because it helps to increase efficiency since the manager uses established guidelines to help solve his everyday problems.

Principles of management help in subordinate development. Without these principles, development would depend on trial and error. A course in management development stresses the time tested principles formulated over the years by experience and experimentation. Fayol, after more than 40 years of practical business experience drew up his principles of management. The same is true of Taylor, Chester Barnard and   Alvin   Brown.   Without   principles,   the   understanding   and development of management would be an arduous task.

One of the most important impacts of principles is that it has helped to promote research in management. Management is not an exact science; it deals with people whose behaviour is unpredictable and complex. Research is often difficult without some established principles. Most researches in management deal with tested facts to establish validity and reliability.

3.7   Management as a System

The systems approach to management encourages management to perceive the internal and external environmental factors as an integrated whole. As a result of this systems concept, the manager views the physical, human, environment and psychological facets of the job as linking to form an integrated whole. An example of a system is the motor car. The parts are assembled in a manner to produce a unified whole. Every system is made up of sub-systems. For the system to function effectively, the subsystems must function effectively. In a general sense, the human being is a complex system made up of sub-systems such as the circulatory system, the auditory system, the locomotive system, and so on. These sub-systems are inter-dependent. When any of them fails to function effectively, the entire system experiences a severe setback.

The systems concept is often used in business to highlight the interrelationship between the functional areas of managment. These functional areas such as production, marketing, finance, procurement and personnel could be seen as the sub-systems. These functions must be properly coordinated for the enterprise to attain its desired objectives. The functions of the manager could be perceived as managing the system. He is to create and define the objective of each sub-system and integrate the sub-systems. The success of a manager goes beyond the effective management of any of the functional areas — (finance, marketing, or production). He must not only strive to achieve the objectives of each of the functional areas, but also attain integrated balanced company objectives. Failure to recognise this fact could make each system pull in the opposite direction and a common objective could not be attained. The interrelationship in a system could be demonstrated by a simple illustration. For the sales department to meet delivery dates promised to customers, it has to rely on the production target, the purchases department must order enough raw materials. For the purchases department to order enough raw materials, the accounts department must make enough money available in time for the order to be placed and received on schedule.

The success of any system depends on the relationship between the system and its sub- systems. In a business organisation, factors such as goal clarity, authority relationships and the structuring of the sub-systems could affect the performance of the entire system.

The system approach to management recognises that management system is a complex formal system organised to functional effectively and efficiently to achieve a desired goal. Where the system does not function as expected as a result of poor communication, personal clashes, poor or lack of goal congruency, the entire organisation suffers.

3.8   Universality of Management

Management function is identical in all formal organisations whether it is a profit-making organisation or a non-profit making organisation. All people who occupy management positions perform the same type of functions. They plan, organise, staff, direct and control. They get things done through and with subordinate. Their principal responsibility is to achieve organisational objectives through group efforts.

The concept of the universality of management implies that all managers irrespective of their position in the organisational hierarchy perform at one time or the other identical functions. The concept also connotes that management know-how is transferable from one organisation to another. Managers seldom perform the actual activities themselves. Their functions are managerial, not technical.

What managers do in organisations are the same as the following:-

1.   Managers make decisions.
2.   Managers focus on objectives
3.   Managers plan and set policies
4.   They organise and staff
5.   They communicate with subordinates, colleagues and superiors.
6.   The direct and supervise by securing actual performance from subordinates
7.   They control organisational activities

It is as a result of all these multiple functions that management has grown into a big profession. The professional manager who occupies an important position in an organisation is concerned about the corporation and its health and growth. The chief executive is, for example, a professional manager who owes no allegiance to a function or speciality for his function is to guide and direct the company as an integrated unit, not in managing its separate parts.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Administration has been part and parcel of human life right from the time of Adam and Eve. Hence in our own families there is administration; in our group hunting there is administration; in our football game there is administration. Thus administration is a sum total of activities involving directing and control of human beings to achieve stated goal with available resources. Administration is made up of organisation and management.

5.0 SUMMARY

In the study unit we understand that the concept of Administration has different meanings according to the context in which it is used. It is referred to as the 'cabinet'; referred to as a discipline of learning; referred to as the sum-total of the activities undertaken to implement policies and so on. In the unit, we also learnt about the characteristics of Administration to include direction and control. Administration in broader terms is considered as the organisation and management of human and material resources to achieve a stated goal.

Management is therefore seen as an Art and as a Science. The art of management is the processes involved in carrying out activities to achieve the policy goal while the science of management refers to the principles guiding the practical operations contained in management and the rational methods by which these principles are developed.

There is no human endeavour that does not require proper management for its proper functioning. All types of organisations — government establishments, business enterprises, hospitals, cooperatives, churches, whether profit making or non-profit making, require good management to function effectively.

Managing is one of the most important human activities that permeate all organisations. Whenever people work together for the attainment of a predetermined objective, there is a need for management that is charged with the responsibility of ensuring that the aims and objectives of the organisation are realised It is the manager's responsibility to ensure that every member of the group contributes his best. To get people put in their host efforts, the manager has to understand people, their emotional, physical and intellectual needs. He has to appreciate that each member of the group has his own personal needs and aspirations and that these are influenced by such factors as the ethnic, social, politi- cal, economic and the technological environment of which he is a part.

However, not all people can manage effectively or aspire to management position. Whenever people work together, there is generally a heed for the co-ordination of efforts in order to attain expected results in reasonable time, and with minimum amount of money, discomfort or energy. All people who oversee the function of other people who must work in subordinate position are managers. Managers are people who are primarily responsible for the achievement of organisational goals. Any organisation that fails to realise its objective often blames it on management. In those enterprises that the

stock- holders feel that they do not attain their objectives, there is a tendency to blame it on those responsible for piloting the affairs of the organisation — management. Thus management is often accused of lack of initiative, ineptitude, misconduct or are said to be unqualified and are called upon to resign. The manager is an individual that provide the dynamic force or direction. He is •the person in charge or expected to attain results.

The manager does not spend all his time managing.   He is like, a football coach.   He does not play the game but directs the players on how to play. Like a vice-chancellor of a university, he does not have to teach in the classroom but must plan admission, 'develop committees, represent the university, have budgets and reports prepared and ensures that students are properly fed and housed. A manager that fails to achieve the objectives as expected, is either dismissed or asked to resign. In large organisations, such as the civil service or government corporations, there are often many instances of dismissals, transfers, demotions and promotions. A manager is expected to possess special talents or abilities quite different from non-managers. In all countries, management has emerged as a leading group in our economic society. They are a class by themselves, distinct from ownership and labour. According to Peter Drucker, "rarely, if ever, has a. new basic institution, or new lending group, a new central function, emerged as fast as has management since the turn of the century.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain in further details what constitute the anatomy and physiology of administration.

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READINMG

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UNIT 2   CONCEPT OF THEORY

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Theories are bodies of information (or, as psychologists and linguists sometimes say, bodies of knowledge) about a particular domain. Such theories have been posited to explain numerous psychological capacities: linguistic competence results from a theory of the grammar of English or Urdu; mental state attribution results from a theory of mind; even visual perception results from a theory of how 3-D objects in space behave in relation to the observer. But theories are not just any body of information held in memory.

Gopnik and Meltzoff (1997) give what is probably the most comprehensive set of conditions on theories. These conditions fall into three categories: *structural*, *functional*, and *dynamic*. Structurally, theories are abstract, coherent, causally organised, and ontologically committed bodies of information. They are abstract in that they posit entities and laws using a vocabulary that differs from the vocabulary used to state the evidence that supports them. They are coherent in that there are systematic relations between the entities posited by the theory and the evidence. Theories are causal insofar as the structure that they posit in the world to explain observable regularities is ordinarily a causal one. Finally, they are ontologically committed if the entities that they posit correspond to real kinds, and also support counterfactuals about how things would be under various non-actual circumstances. Some of these conditions are also advanced by Keil (1989), who proposes that causal relations are central to theories, especially where they are homeostatic and hierarchically organised.

Functionally, theories must make predictions, interpret evidence in new ways, and provide explanations of phenomena in their domain. The predictions of theories go beyond simple generalisation s of the evidence, and include ranges of phenomena that the theory was not initially developed to cover. Theories interpret evidence by providing new descriptions that influence what is seen as relevant or salient and what is not. And crucially, theories provide explanations of phenomena, understood as an abstract, coherent causal account of how the phenomena are produced and sustained. Theories are essentially related to the phenomena that make up their domain; hence in Keil's developed view, there is a key role for associative relations in providing the raw data for theoretical development as well as a 'fallback' for when theories run out (Keil, 1989).

Finally, theories are not static representations, but have dynamic properties. This follows from the fact that they develop in response to, and may gain in credibility or be defeated by the empirical evidence. The sorts of dynamic properties that characterise theories include: an initial period involving the accumulation of evidence via processes of experimentation and observation, the discovery of counterevidence, the possible discounting of such evidence as noise, the generation of ad hoc hypotheses to amend a theory, the production of a new theory when an old one has accumulated too much contrary evidence or too many ugly and complicated auxiliary amendments.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, should be able to:

- define theory
- enumerate the characteristics of theories
- state the importance of theories
- explain the development of theories.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Definition of Theory

A theory, according to Reuben, is a statement of assumed causal relationship between two or more variables. It is the substitution of variables of a model for real life corresponding and explaining the relationships. (A model is a system or objects that stand in place of another usually more complicated or systematic object).

The Advanced Learners Dictionary of current English defines a theory as explanation of the general principles of an art or science (contrasted with practice)" or "reasoned supposition put forward to explain facts or events" or simply defined as "an idea (not necessarily based on reasoning)" Examples of theories are:

1.   Darwin's theory of evolution – (explaining events)
2.   Wearing hats makes men bald (an idea)
3.   The theories of motion and gravity (explaining principles)

The theory of administration has been developing for years and still is far from complete. Inputs come from diverse fields – psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, political science and mathematics and from the practice experience of managers. Therefore management and organisation theory is initially eclectics; it draws from many sources and is gradually evolving into a cohesive and defined field of its own.

A theory is the end result of a search for generalisation and is a plausible or scientifically acceptable general principle offered to explain phenomena. So a theory explains and/or predicts, the more precise a theory is and the broader its scope, the better the theory.

Hence a theory is coherent statement or set of ideas that explains observed facts or phenomena, or which sets out the laws and principles of something known or observed.

A theory attempts to explain "why". It consists of a set of definitions stating clearly what we mean by various terms, and a set of assumptions about the way in which the world behaves. The next step is to follow a process of logical deduction to discover what is implied by these assumptions. These implications are the predictions of our theory which can be tested by the process of observation and statistical analysis of the data. If the theory passes the test no consequent action is made necessary. If the theory is refuted by the fact, it is either amended in the light of newly acquired facts or is discarded in favour of a superior competing theory. For example, in economics we seek by the use of theory to explain, understand and predict phenomena in the real world, and our theory must therefore be related to, and tested by empirical observation of the world around us.

Ernest Nagel defines theory "as a set of statements, organised in a characteristic way, and designed to serve as partial premises for explaining as well as predicting an indeterminately large (and usually varied) class of phenomena." Theory involves generalisation s which are statements of general tendencies or uniformities of

relationships among various elements of phenomena. A generalisation is the establishment of a general truth on the basis of particular experiences. For example, the generalisation that demand is an inverse function of price expresses a relationship between price and demand, other things remaining the same. If other things remain the same, the law of demand holds valid. If other things do not remain the same, it stands refuted.

3.2 Theory Construct

The various steps required to construct a theory of are detailed below.

1. Selecting the Problem

The first step in the formulation of a theory is the selection of the problem which must be stated clearly and correctly. The problem to be explored may be very wide like poverty, unemployment, inflation, etc., or it may be narrow relating to an industry. The narrower the problem, the better it would be for a researcher to conduct his enquiry satisfactorily. It is desirable that investigators should concentrate upon narrow problems – narrow in area or period or aspect of a problem – and the scope for further intensive rather than extensive work should be an important criterion for selecting a problem.

2. Collection of Data

The second step is to collect data or facts pertaining to the problem to be explored. If the problem is simple, the data can be easily collected. However, complicated problems may require many months or even years to collect the necessary data. Sometimes, 'facts' can be known only after careful observation.

3. Classification of Data

After collection, the data are enumerated, classified and analysed. Classification is a way of knowing things. It is the grouping of data or facts according to their resemblances and differences, and to note comparisons and contrasts. For instance, if the problem is to study the trend in population growth, the census data may be collected and classified by sex, age groups, literacy, marital status, occupational distribution etc. Thus enumeration, classification and analysis of data are crucial to scientific theory.

4. Formulation of Hypothesis

The next step is to formulate hypothesis about the phenomena to be analysed. A hypothesis is a suggested answer to a problem by the aid of which we endeavour to explain facts by discovering their orderliness. The hypothesis arises from the observed facts, experience or previous knowledge of the researcher. At this stage, simplifying assumptions may be introduced so that a particular hypothesis may be developed fully. It is these special assumptions which become formulated consciously as a hypothesis. For example, the assumption that producers aim at maximising their profits is a plausible hypothesis on which the theory of business behaviour can be constructed.

5. Testing of Hypothesis

The next step is the testing of the hypothesis formulated. The hypothesis formulated should be such that deductions can be drawn from it and a decision reached as to whether it explains the facts considered or not. The hypothesis should be tested by well- established techniques of logic and statistics which may then be subjected to confirmation. Further, the hypothesis should provide the answer to the problem which led to the enquiry. This requires prediction. Prediction may refer to past, present or future events so long as it is not known previous to or at the time of prediction. A hypothesis is said to be verified, and not proved, through the successful prediction it makes. Of the various hypothesis formulated that hypothesis should be referred "which can predict what will happen, and from which we can infer what has already happened, even if we did not know what has happened when the hypothesis was formulated." A successfully tested hypothesis is a theory.

6. Verification of Theory

The tested hypothesis or theory should be verified. If, it turns out to be true, the theory is said to be confirmed or verified. The process of verification may be carried out by observation or by checking the consistency of the theory with related facts that are believe to be true. If a theory is proved to be wrong, it stands rejected. But it is a gross error to suppose that a theory which is rejected is useless. Rather, a wrong theory may direct our attention to unsuspected facts or new facts and lead to the amendment of the theory.

Once the theory is verified and proved true, possible solutions or suggestions to the problem under investigation are to be formulated. This is essential in the case of social sciences like economics "because economics tend to be socially oriented, and do not like spending their energies on trivial irrelevant issues."

3.3   Characteristics of Theories

The characteristics of theories are as follows:

1.   Theories interrelative concepts in such a way as to create a different way of looking at a particular phenomenon.
2.   Theories are logical in nature.
3.   Theories are generalisable
4.   Theories are the bases for hypotheses that can be tested.
5.   Theories increase the general body of knowledge within the discipline through the research implemented to validate them.
6.   Theories are used by the practitioners to guide and improve their practice.
7.   Theories are consistent with other validated theories, laws, and principles but will leave open unanswered questions that need to be investigated

3.4   Importance of Theories

The important of theories are as follows:

1.   Theories provide concepts to name what we observe and to explain relationships between concepts. Theories allow us to explain what we see and to figure out how to bring about change. Theories are tools that enable us to identify a problem and to plan a means for altering the situation.
2.   Theories are to justify reimbursement to get funding and support -need to explain what is being done and demonstrate that it works -theory and research.
3.   Theories are to enhance the growth of the professional area to identify a body of knowledge with theories from both within and without the area of distance learning.
      That body of knowledge grows with theory and research. Theory guides research.
4.   Theories also help us understand what we don't know and, therefore, they are the only guide to research. Relating to theory, it increases its ability to solve other problems in different times and different places (Moore, 1991).

3.5   Development of Theories

Theory is constantly revised as new knowledge is discovered through research. Three stages of theory development are as follows:

1.   **Speculative**
        Theory attempts to explain what is happening.

2.   **Descriptive**
        Theory gathers descriptive data to describe what is really happening.

3.   **Constructive**
        It revises old theories and develops new ones based on continuing research.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXECISE

A theory expresses a casual relationship between cause and effect. It attempts to explain "why". It consists of a set of definitions stating clearly what we mean

What are the characteristics of good theories? Answer:
1.   Theories interrelates concepts in such a way as to create a different way of looking at a particular phenomenon.
2.   Theories are logical in nature.
3.   Theories are generalisable
4.   Theories are the bases for hypotheses that can be tested.
5.   Theories increase the general body of knowledge within the discipline through the research implemented to validate them.
6.   Theories are used by the practitioners to guide and improve their practice.
7.   Theories are consistent with other validated theories, laws, and principles but will leave open unanswered questions that need to be investigated

3.6   Scientific Research as a Base for Theory

To regard any study as complete research, we must be able to find in it several definite factors. The first of these is a problem to be solved. The second is evidence, consisting usually of provable facts and occasionally of expert opinion. The third is a careful analysis and classification of the evidence by means of which the evidence is arranged in a logical pattern and tested with regard to its application to the problem. The fourth is the use of reason and logic to arrange the evidence into argument or factual supporters leading to a solution to the problem. The fifth is a definite solution, and answer to the question which the scholar's problem poses.

3.6.1 What is research?

Ordinarily research means seeking for knowledge; hence it is described as a process of discovery. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines research as "an investigation undertaken in order to discover new fact and get additional information". This definition seems to have limitation. In the first place it has not mentioned how the facts or additional information is gathered. Secondly, it raises the question of "what next after the additional information?

In the Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences, research has been defined as "the manipulation of things – concept or symbol - for the purposes of generalisation   and to expand correct or verified knowledge whether that knowledge is in the construction of a theory or in the practice of an art."

To Adetoro (1986), "research can be described as a process of discovery. It must follow certain rules of conducting investigations. It is generally based on scientific enquiry where available facts are closely examined or investigated". Nachmias (2007) also consider research as "a process of finding out a solution to a problem. The action word is finding out or put in other words the searching for something. It is not a purposeless action but action aimed at contributing to or constituting the solution of a real problem.

Research is the process of systematic inquiry by which we increase our knowledge of how things are, why things are the way they are, and how they might be changed. It is an ordered and logical study of a subject or problem aimed at learning new facts and testing existing propositions. Research is the operational application of the scientific method to discover reliable knowledge. (UNESCO, 2002).

We can summarise by saying that a research is a useful inquiry or examination to discover new information or relation and expand or verify an existing knowledge. It involves a systematic and objective process of gathering, recording , and analysing data in order to arrive at a conclusion on either the causes or consequences of a problem, the state of being or behaviour of an object, situation or of a given phenomena.

3.6.2 Methods of Seeking for Knowledge

Method of Tenacity
This involves knowing or believing that something has always been done that way, or it has always been the truth perhaps due to frequent

repetition or occurrence of the truth or out of experience. An example is the weather, annual rainfall, spring summer, autumn and winter which have been occurring during specified months of the year.

Method of Authority
Here, the knowledge is got from a well specialised or established authority, say the Holy Qur'an or the Bible or a statement from a professor who is a specialised authority in a certain field of learning, or a statement of exact state of affairs from a person of political or administrative authority. Other examples are statements made by Heads of State or Presidents, Ministers, Governors, Heads of Service, Secretary to the Government etc.

Method of Intuition or a-Priory Method
In this case, facts are accepted on the assumption that they are agreeable to reason or "self evidence" the fact in this case are believed upon and accepted without verification. Examples are customary and traditional practices and laws inherited from grandparents or copied from a well-respected community leader.

The Mystical Method
This is a method of seeking for knowledge where facts are accepted from supernatural being or prophets. This method depends on the manifestation of supernatural science and the psychological state of the person accepting the knowledge or facts. Examples are the supernatural power of Prophet Isa (Jesus Chris) of raising the dead, curing the blind and the death; the supernatural power of Prophet Muhammad of commanding a tree to come to him and the moon landing on the earth and the supernatural power of Prophet Musa (Moses) of turning his stick into a large snake and using it to pave the way into River Nile for his people to cross. These supernatural powers are extra human that emanate from their supreme creator.

The scientific method
This is a knowledge got through a systematic and refined use of specialised tool and procedure to provide a more adequate solution to a problem. Here something is not to be believed until it is investigated by the use of refined tools and procedures. Even the solution got is not taken to the final. So, scientific research is a systematic, controlled and empirical investigation of hypothetical conclusion about the presumed relationship of natural phenomena.

Obviously academic research refers to the scientific research and not that of tenacity, authority, mystical etc., although method of authority is always used as a reliable source of information under scientific research.

3.6.3 Types of research (Scientific Research)

Fact Finding/ Exploratory Research: This consists, of a research for facts without any attempt to generalised or use these facts to solve a problem. E.g. investigation of theft in an office or theft of NEPA installations.

Critical Interpretation /Descriptive Research
This makes use of largely the method of logical reasoning to arrive at the solution of problems, and is applied usually when ideas rather than facts are to be dealt with. e.g. finding and stating out the nature of a problem in an organisation.

Complete Research /Causal Research
This aims at solving problem and stating generalisation after a thorough search for the pertinent fact, an analysis and logical classification of all the evidence found, and the development of a reasonable pattern of support for the conclusion reached.

Anything other than one of these three types of research, while not necessarily wasted effort in terms of scholarship, is nevertheless no research.

3.6.4 Research Process

The steps in research process are highly interrelated and each step leads to the next. The stages in research process often overlap. Disappointment encountered at one stage may mean returning to previous stages, or even starting over.

The process of research, often follow a generalisedd pattern of stages:

(1)   The first of these is *a problem* to be solved. This is the problem definition stage.

(2)   The second is *evidence*, consisting usually of provable facts and occasionally of expert opinion
  •   this stage involves planning of the research design,
  •   selection of a sample,
  •   data collection

(3)   The third is a careful analysis and classification of the evidence, by means of which the evidence is arranged in a logical pattern and tested with regard to its application to the problem.

(4)   The fourth is the use of reason and logic to arrange the evidence into argument or factual supporters leading to a solution to the problem.

(5)   The fifth is a definite solution, and answer to the question which the scholar's problem poses.
  i.   This is the stage of drawing of conclusion and preparing of final report,
  ii.   The report is in form of thesis, dissertation, research project, committee research reports etc

As good examples; let us consider criminal investigation in the society, marketing research and astronomy. They all take the form of systematic enquiry into (the happening of the society, the market place and the stars and planets). They all make use of step-by-step approaches to gaining knowledge.

All the steps mentioned here are broken down into chapters as shown in Part One of this text (i.e from chapter one to chapter six). In the next Part we shall have a detailed discussion of these processes as contained in the chapters

4.0   CONCLUSION

A theory is made up of a set of principles which can sometimes be referred to as laws. We also leant about theory construct involving muting of ideas about relationships between variables, data collection and analysis to test and verify the relationship before generalisation . Hence a theory is considered as the end result of a search for generalisation   out of a scientific enquiry.

5.0   SUMMARY

We have got to understand that a theory is scientifically, generally, acceptable set of principles used to explain a phenomenon. A phenomenon, in one case refer to object of perception - something perceived or experienced, especially an object as it is apprehended by the five human senses of hearing, sight, feeling, smelling and touching.

Theory formulation has a laid down steps. The first step in the formulation of a theory is the selection of the problem which must be stated clearly and correctly. The narrower the problem, the better it would be for a researcher to conduct his enquiry satisfactorily. Collection of data is the second step If the problem is simple, the data can be easily collected. Classification of data comes nest and it involves grouping of data or facts according to their resemblances and

differences, and to note comparisons and contrasts. The next step is to formulate hypothesis about the phenomena to be analysed. A hypothesis is a suggested answer to a problem and it is surrounded by simplifying assumptions which help to develop the hypothesis fully. The hypothesis formulated has to be tested which leads to deductions and a decision to accept the hypothesis or not. The tested hypothesis or theory should be verified by observation or by checking the consistency of the theory. It it is proved right, it becomes solidified into a law.

Other aspects of theory considered in the study unit are characteristics of theories, importance of theories, development of theories and types of theory.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain fully the bolded portion of the definition of a theory as "**a   scientifically, generally acceptable set of principles**" used to explain a phenomenon.

'Scientifically' means the theory is formulated through a scientific process of discovery of new set of principles or rediscovery of old ones by observation, experimentation and measurements. The problem identification, the muting of the idea to conduct a research on the problem, the data collection, the hypotheses formulation, data testing and analysis, drawing inferences etc all follow the scientific process.

'Generally acceptable' means majority of the objects of the experiments (sample size) testify to the solid nature of the theory. Majority, in this context, may mean 51 percent plus of say, questionnaire respondents testify positively in favour of the hypothesis contained in the theory.

'Set of principles' means a theory is made up of principles, rules, laws which serve as guide to the phenomenon in question.

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MODULE 2   SCIENTIFIC   MANAGEMENT   AND CLASSICAL   ADMINISTRATIVE THEORIES

Unit 1   Early Development of Administration and Management
Unit 2   The Scientific Management Theory
Unit 3   The Main Classical (Henry Fayol, Urwick, Luther Gulick)
Unit 4   Bureaucratic Theory

In the first instance, we have to be aware that all about theories of administration boil down to how human and material resources are effectively organised and managed to produce the best output.

The classical school of management thoughts traces its ancestry to Henry Fayol. On the other hand, all the principles developed by Henry Fayol and others have their origin from the army, the church and conomics. Together with the scientific management movement the classical school laid down the foundation upon which modern organisation and management are built. The theorists laid down some principles of organisation, and they earned the word classical largely because their principles are of comparatively long standing i.e. they are the dominant principles in the field of administration. The Classical school is also referred to as: the machine theory, mechanical theory etc. mostly because it is purely guided by rigid application of economic principles, leading to profit maximisation and efficient resource utilisationn.

In the seventeenth century, concurrent with the cottage system and eventually superseding it as the dominant form of production, the factory system slowly began to take form. The industrial revolution is usually considered to have begun around 1700, and the technological progress that defines the industrial revolution provided the means for a vastly increased scale of production.

Although the industrial revolution started in Europe, the United State also participated from the beginning. While there was a rough sequence to the occurrence of the handicraft, cottage, and factory systems of production in Europe, in the United States these systems existed concurrently for a long time, with each system contributing in a major ways to the total production of goods, it was really not until the civil war that factories captured a commanding position in manufacturing.

Prior to the American civil war, the exploitation of slaves on Southern Plantations contributed to the development of trade and textile manufacturing particularly in new England. Slavery did not

become an important factor in the national economy until after the invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney in 1793. However, with the cotton gin providing an easy technological ways to separate the cotton fibre from the seeds, producing cotton became very profitable.

Management and working conditions in the new factories were generally bad. Many of the early factories, even some in the Nineteenth century, were appropriately called sweatshops; that is, the employees worked long hours under abominable conditions, received low wages, could be fired at any time, and had to provide for their own care in case of sickness or injury.

For example, imagine that you are a factory worker back around 1820 and that you are about to begin a typical workday. You have to be up on time to be at work by sunrise. On the job, you must work steadily until lunchtime; no coffee breaks. If you damage any machinery, you have to pay for it, and if you are hurt on the job, the assumption is that you work at your own risk. After a lunch period of twenty minutes, you continue working until the sun sets. In the summer, however, you might have to eat dinner (brought from home by you) at the plant and then continue working until dark. Your employer may require employees to attend church, in addition to forbidding any profanity, smoking; or drinking on or off the job. Even Wednesday night prayer meeting sometimes is mandatory.

The working relationships in factories in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, made some people to begin thinking and analysing the positions of both management and workers.

Robert Owen (1771 – 1858) one of the pioneer industrialists, and a Scottish textile manufacturer had views and practices that contrasted those of the majority of entrepreneurs in that period. He took a genuine interest in the welfare of his workers.

Owen was critical of manufacturers who were preoccupied with machines improvement, labour specialists and cost minimisation while on the other hand were parochial to understand and invest in the human element. He, therefore advised other manufacturers to devote as much attention to their vital machine (i.e. Workers) as they did to their inanimate machines.

However, Owen was similar to other entrepreneurs in that he considered workers somewhat like children who must be continually trained and molded by very tight disciplines. To him the authority of the employer was supreme and the workers needed to be guided and

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protected like children.

Andrew was one of the early men who gave some thought to management of people in factories. Andrew Ure was a spokesman; for the prevailing believe of members of the entrepreneurial class during the first half of the nineteenth century, that workers left to them were lazy and ignorant. He believed that factory employment of the industrial revolution did improve the workers' morale and health and gave them higher wages than could be obtained in agriculture or cottage production. This depicts his views of seeing the worker as being satisfied only by his economic needs. He, however, denounced any combination of workers (that is, unionisation) as a product of agitators who caused violence and crime.

Adam Smith in his book the wealth of nations – 1776 emphasised that if each individual worked for his own economic self interest, the greatest good would accrue to society. This is a classical economic thinking linked with capitalism meaning the individual, being selfish in nature, would always like to maximse his efforts in order to gain much or the more gains to the worker, the more he increase his efforts. Here, there is no consideration of natural human limitations of fatigue that can halt human efforts no matter how much he can gain.

Charles Babbage – (1792 to 1871), in addition to Adam Smith's ideas, concentrated upon developing such principles of manufacturing as the division of labour. He emphasised mutuality of interests between employers and workers. He believed that hard work and high productivity were a source of good wages for the worker and high profits for the employer. He finally devised a profit sharing scheme. Like Ure, Babbage was opposed to union of working men.

UNIT 1 EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Administrative and management principles have their origin in the army, economics (system of production) and the church. These are organisations that operate, by nature, on principles for efficient results. Their growth over the years as human organisations planted these principles which were later adopted by the administrative organisation in all facets of life.

The materials in this study unit are adapted (with minor modifications and deletions) from **Shafritz, J. M. (2007),** Introducing Public Administration, Fifth Edition, Pearson Longman, New York.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the origin of Public Management
- identify the origin of Classical Organisation Theory
- appreciate the influence of Ancient Rome in the growth of the administrative principles.
- analyse the link between the Military and Public Administration
- compare military and civilian principles.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Origins of Public Management

Civilisation and administration have always gone hand in hand. Since ancient times, a city was defined by the walls created for its defence. Even today many municipalities will award someone a key to the city in symbolic remembrance of when the only way into a city was through a locked gate in the wall. This meant that once primitive tribes gathered in cities—when they literally became civilised (meaning to live in cities)—they had to be sufficiently organised for war to build their stronghold and defend it from attackers. This necessitated a sophisticated system of administration. Cities without walls only became possible in relatively recent times, when an overarching state authority was able to impose peace over a large area.

Thus the profession of management began and developed as the profession of arms. To the extent that the history of the world is the history of warfare, then it is also the history of public administration— because war at the state level is quite literally not possible without an effective system of public administration behind it. Military officers were the first public administrators. Societies beyond the extended family only became possible with the rise of an officer class. Thus the first armies were mobs with managers.

Only gradually did these mob managers develop the organisational skills to command large armies and rule large areas. These early martial skills constitute the most basic elements of all administrative processes. Hierarchy, line and staff personnel, logistics, and communications were all highly developed by ancient armies. Even reform is of military origin. After all, it means to once again (the "re") organise the ranks (the "form") for an additional assault—whether on another army or on a difficult management problem. And there is hardly any core concept in modern strategic thought that had not been anticipated by Sun-Tzu[1] in ancient China. The word strategy itself comes from the ancient Greek, meaning "the art of the general."

Sun-Tzu (fourth century B.C.E.) The ancient Chinese writer whose essays, traditionally published as The Art of War, have influenced all Western military analysts since they were first available in European editions in the late eighteenth century.

The vocabulary of public administration is so heavily indebted to its military origins that the field would be literally tongue-tied without it.

3.2   The Continuing Influence of Ancient Rome

In his landmark 1941 book The Managerial Revolution, James Burnham contended that as the control of large corporations passes from the hands of the owners into the hands of professional administrators, the society's new governing class would be the possessors not of wealth but of technical expertise. But Burnham was seen to be two millennia off in his analysis because this managerial changeover from those of wealth and power to those of professional expertise first occurred in the ancient Roman army where long-service unit leaders drawn from the best of the enlisted army ranks, formed the first body of professional fighting officers known to history." This middle-management class transmitted from generation to generation the technical skills and discipline by which Rome dominated the world for five centuries. They were the managers who allowed the patrician governing class to exercise actual command. They were motivated by loyalty to their legion, pride in their profession, regular pay, and retirement payments that were an additional inducement to good behaviour. Here is the beginning of the modern merit system.

The regulating of pay and pensions in ancient Rome was the key to maintaining the army - and to this end the first civil service was created (by the Emperor Augustus Caesar)^2 to raise the taxes necessary to support the legions. Thus out of military necessity was born civilian public administration. The same Augustus would boast that "I found Rome a city of bricks and left it a city of marble." While spoken by an emperor, these are also the words of a proud municipal public works administrator.

While many ancient kingdoms, such as Egypt and China, had sophisticated administrative institutions, the core features of modern public administration in the Western world were first found in the Roman Empire. The Roman state was depersonalized. It had existed independent of any political leader or king; it was not "owned" by anyone. Significantly, the state's public finances were separate from the private funds of its leadership. Second, it made use of a centralised hierarchical structure.

At the top was the central government, then the province, and finally the diocese. These Augustus Caesar (63 B.C.K.-14 c.K.) The nephew of Julius Caesar who became the first Roman emperor after defeating his rivals Mark Anthony and Marcus Brutus in the civil war that followed his uncle's assassination in 44 B.C.E.

structures are still familiar, still in use. Finally, the Romans introduced

several units of functional specialisationn that form the heart of most modern public administrative systems. They had organisational units for military affairs, finance, justice, and police. This last function was so broadly conceived that it included transportation, health, education, agriculture, and commerce.

Ever since the time of ancient Rome; young men have viewed a stint of service as a military officer as a logical prelude to larger public service or to greater political office. Indeed, during the days of the Roman Republic it was a condition of elective office that a candidate has a decade of military service. Not only was this a seasoning period for youths, it was the only social institution that offered systematic training in administration. It was thought reasonable that those who could demonstrate the ability to command and administer should be considered legitimate candidates. This is still true today. Most U.S. presidents and countless lesser politicians have used their military experience as a springboard for their political careers.

When Governor Bill Clinton of Arkansas announced he would be running in the 1992 presidential race, the very legitimacy of his candidacy was called into question because he not only lacked military experience but conspicuously sought to avoid it during the Vietnam War. While many who opposed the war thought that Clinton's legal avoidance of the draft was a more honourable course of action than serving in this unpopular war, the depth of reaction to his lack of prior military service continued to make it difficult for him to function as commander in chief well into his presidency. Even those who did serve in the military may fall prey to criticism regarding the quality of their service. John Kerry's bid for the presidency was undermined by a group of his fellow Vietnam veterans, who called his valour into question. Thus the ancient Roman attitude toward the desirability of youthful military service as preparation for later public office still strongly affects modern American politics and administration.

3.3   The Military Heritage of Public Administration

The history of the world can be viewed as the rise and fall of public administrative institutions. Those ancient empires that rose and prevailed for a while were those with better administrative institutions than their competitors. Brave soldiers have been plentiful in every society, but they are ultimately wasted if not backed up by administrators who can feed and pay them.

Rome, like Egypt, Persia, and other empires before it, conquered the ancient world because it had an organisational doctrine that made its soldiers far more effective than competing forces — and because its

legions were backed up by a sophisticated administrative system of supply based on regular if not equitable taxes. The Roman Empire only fell when its legions degenerated into corps of mercenaries and when its supply and tax bases were corrupted. …….. Strict discipline is what makes a mob an army. And a disciplined military, obedient to the leaders of the state, is a precondition for civilisation. This is the classic chicken-and-egg problem. Which of these comes first — effective public administration or an effective military? The rise and fall of ancient Rome proved that you could not have one without the other.

Early bureaucrats in ancient Rome and modern Europe literally wore uniforms that paralleled military dress. After all, the household servants of rulers traditionally wore livery. It indicated that the wearer was not free but the servant of another. Government administrators are still considered servants in this sense; they are public servants because they, too, have accepted obligations which means; they are not commander in chief completely free. Indeed, until early in the twentieth century, many otherwise civilian public officials in Europe — most notably diplomats — had prescribed uniforms.

Both victorious soldiers and successful managers tend to be inordinately admired and disproportionately rewarded as risk takers. True, the specific risks and rewards are different, but the phenomenon is the same. They both may have to put their careers, and sometimes significant parts of their anatomy as well, *"on the line"* to obtain a goal for their state or organisation. Notice again the military language, for *"the line"* originally referred to the line of battle where you faced the enemy. This is why line officers today are still those who perform the services for which the organisation exists.

Authoritarian or traditional management is the classic model of military governance applied to civilian purposes. Managers under an authoritarian doctrine value order, precision, consistency, and obedience. To them, the power that flows from structure is supreme. Relationships are hierarchical, based on dominance and dependence. This authoritarian style has gradually given way to less centralised, more participative management styles — not because management developed an altruistic desire to be nice to the workers but because participation has proved to be more competent than authoritarianism when dealing with sophisticated workers. This change takes nothing away from the fact that at earlier time authoritarianism was the most competent management posture.

Since antiquity, the military has evolved principles about how their authoritarian organisations are best managed. While there are many

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versions of the principles of war that reflect local conditions, they all contain the same basic elements. Those elements having civilian applications have been incorporated into principles of management. *Thus concepts once military — such as span of control and unity of command — are now thoroughly civilian as well.*

3.4 Comparing Military and Civilian Principles

There is no royal road to administrative wisdom. There are no generally accepted principles of management, no one list on which there is general agreement. However, there is a principles approach that has its origins in the principles of war.

Both victorious soldiers and successful managers tend to be inordinately admired and disproportionately rewarded as risk takers. True, the specific risks and rewards are different, but the phenomenon is the same. They both may have to put their careers, and sometimes significant parts of their anatomy as well, "on the line" to obtain a goal for their state or organisation. Notice again the military language, for "the line" originally referred to the line of battle where you faced the enemy. This is why line officers today are still those who perform the services for which the organisation exists.

While these precepts can be traced back to ancient times, for comparison's sake it is convenient to use the nine principles of war currently used by the U.S. Army:

1. *Objective:* Direct every military operation toward a clearly defined, decisive, and attainable objective.
2. *Offensive:* Seize, retain, and exploit the initiative.
3. *Mass:* Concentrate combat power at the decisive place and time.
4. *Economy of force:* Allocate minimum essential combat power to secondary efforts.
5. *Maneuver:* Place the enemy in a position of disadvantage through the flexible application of combat power.
6. *Unity of command:* For every objective, ensure unity of effort under one responsible commander.
7. *Security:* Never permit the enemy to acquire an advantage.
8. *Surprise:* Strike the enemy at a time and/or place and in a manner for which he is unprepared.
9. *Simplicity:* Prepare clear, uncomplicated plans and clear, concise orders to ensure thorough understanding,

All nine principles are not always important. But in any large-scale operation they are always all there. Which ones dominate at any given time is a function of context, of the evolving situation. These principles are inherently interrelating and reinforcing. They represent

the distilled science of war as it has evolved over thousands of years. But they are merely the colors with which the commander paints.

If he or she is artful in execution, then victory, promotion, and acclaim will follow. If clumsy, then removal by death or disgrace will. Note that the principles of war (and management) are not really designed for experienced officers. These are instructions for the inexperienced. Military historian John Keegan even called them "words to the unwise."

There are a large number of formulations of the principles of management from which to choose. The following are from Catheryn Seclder-Hudson[3], who wrote them in 1955 when she was dean of the School of Government and Public Administration at the American University. Her 12 principles, distilled from the literature of business and public administration and presented in her book Organisation and Management came with a warning label: "It should never be assumed that principles of organisation are immutable laws to be applied automatically."

1. Policy should be defined and imparted to those who are responsible for its achievement.
2. Work should be subdivided, systematically planned, and programmed.
3. Tasks and responsibilities should be specifically assigned and understood.
4. Appropriate methods and procedures should be developed and utilized by those responsible for policy achievement.
5. Appropriate resources (men, money, and material) in terms of availability and priority should be equitably allocated.
6. Authority commensurate with responsibility should be delegated and located as close as possible to the point where operations occur and decisions need to be made.
7. Adequate structural relationships through which to operate should be established.
8. Effective and qualified leadership should head each organisation and each subdivision of the organisation.
9. Unity of command and purpose should permeate the organisation. Catheryn Seckler-Hudson (1902-1963} A pioneer in developing the "nuts and bolts" of public management technology, she was the author of many groundbreaking works on public sector planning, budgeting, and organisation.
10. Continuous accountability for utilisationn of resources and for the production of results should be required.
11. Effective coordination of all individual and group efforts within the organisation should be achieved.

12.   Continuous reconsideration of all matters pertaining to the organisation should be a part of regular operations.

These principles represent the received wisdom of public administration at mid-century by one of its most acknowledged scholars. Yet when they are compared with the principles of war, they seem mushy and vacillating — hardly any guidance for leadership at all. Part of the reason for this is that these are guidelines for administrators, not for leaders. Her guidelines and principles try to be so all-encompassing that they defeat themselves by their complexity. Herbert Simon gained much of his early reputation by attacking the principles approach in his 1946 article condescendingly titled "The Proverbs of Administration." He denounced the whole principles approach to public administration that then dominated administrative thinking. He found the management principles of his era inconsistent, conflicting, and inapplicable to too many of the administrative situations facing managers. He concluded that they were little more than proverbs. Simon would later write in his memoirs that this article, which "secured my instant and permanent visibility in public administration," came "almost purely from the logical structure and internal inconsistency of the principles themselves. No experience of organisation was required to detect it."

Simon's criticism of these "proverbs" was valid only to a point. Principles of either kind — military or management — were never meant to be dogma. Even Napoleon warned that "no rule of war is so absolute as to allow no exceptions." But rules can be, nevertheless, very useful. As Bernard Brodie wrote, "It may be well that the consideration of a catalog of numbered principles (usually fewer than a dozen) with the barest definition of the meaning of each may be necessary to communicate to second- order minds (or minds too busy with the execution of plans to worry much about the specific validity of the ideas behind them) some conception of what the business is all about."

What is striking about the two lists is how the military list is more policy oriented, more leadership directed, than the civilian list. The latter seems obsessed with the routines of administration—as opposed to breaking new ground with innovation. The military principles are far more proactive and appropriately aggressive. But strangely enough, aggression is back in fashion in contemporary management thinking. The thrust of the military approach with its emphasis on strategy can be found, for example, in the philosophic underpinnings of the reinventing government and total quality management movements of the 1990s. Far from being of mere historical interest, they seem almost fresh when compared with the staid principles of management — and

certainly relevant. *When used with common sense and attention to experience, the principles of war can be extremely useful to those public managers who would join the never-ending battle against the evil trinity of waste, fraud, and abuse.* This is all the more true for those public sector organisations forced to compete with private sector competitors. Competition by creating "enemies" clarifies objectives.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

How would you equate military principles to the principles of administration?

3.5   The Principles Approach

The principles approach to management, whether of the civilian or military variety, was a pivotal development in the advancement of management as a profession. Why? Because it seeks to make a science out of what was once considered only-art. Antoine-Henri Jomini was the Swiss bank clerk turned Napoleonic era general who wrote dozens of books explaining why some generals (mainly Napoleon) and some armies (mainly the French) were consistently more successful than their rivals. The answer was to be found in scientific principles of strategy. Jomini proved in literally dozens of major books that victory went to those who instinctively followed the principles that he had distilled from historical accounts and years of experience campaigning with Napoleon — simply put, victory went to the general who used massive forces in an offensive action against a decisive point. Yet Jomini was keenly aware that art had a major role to play in this science. As he wrote in The Art of War, "It is almost always easy to determine the decisive point of a field of battle, but not so with the decisive moment; and it is precisely here that genius and experience are everything, and mere theory of little value."

While simple enough and mostly common sense, Jomini's principles were enormously influential. Because Jomini was the military theorist of the nineteenth century, his ideas were widely disseminated. His basic teaching,his doctrine, was that the management of war could be taught — just study the principles and how they are applied in specific situations. (Today this technique is known as the case study method.)

Many of the activities of war – planning, training, logistics, and so on – are more management than fighting, hence the application of similar principles to management.

The timing was certainly right because the mid-nineteenth century saw the beginning of large-scale industrial enterprise, especially railroads, the scope of which was similar to managing a large array of army.

By the time business administration emerged as an academic field toward the end of the nineteenth century, it seemed only natural to take a principles approach to teaching management. But these early efforts at developing and teaching principles were authoritarian in that they were premised on the notion that all direction and innovation came from the top — that the people in power, while not necessarily having a monopoly on brains in the organisation, had the only brains that mattered. Thus success or failure was a function of how smart the boss was. Bosses would certainly be more effective if they adopted principles, but they were inherently limited by their own abilities.

The explosion of textbooks and self-improvement and "how-to-succeed" books on management that take a principles approach began early in the twentieth century and has never abated. Many authors of the best- and would-be best-sellers of management books premise their works on the belief that management is a skill that can be taught.

3.6   Classical Organisation Theory

Classical organisation theory, as its name implies, was the first theory of its kind, is considered traditional, and continues to be the base on which other schools of organisation theory have been built. Its basic tenets and assumptions, however, which were rooted in the industrial revolution of the 1700s and the professions of mechanical engineering, industrial engineering, and economics, have never changed. They were only expanded upon, refined, and made more sophisticated. Thus an understanding of classical organisation theory is essential not only because of its historical interest but also, more importantly, because subsequent analyses and theories presume knowledge of it.

The fundamental tenets of organisation theory can be summarised as follows:

1.   Organisations exist to accomplish production-related and economic goals.
2.   There is one best way to organise for production, and that way can be found through systematic, scientific inquiry.
3.   Production is maximse d through specialisationn and division of labour.
4.   People and organisations act in accordance with rational economic principles.

The evolution of any theory must be viewed in context. The beliefs of early management theorists about how organisations worked or should work were a direct reflection of the societal values of their times. And the times were harsh. It was well into the twentieth century before the industrial workers of the United States and Europe began to enjoy even limited "rights" as organisational citizens. Workers were not viewed as individuals but as the interchangeable parts in an industrial machine whose parts were made of flesh only when it was impractical to make them of steel.

The advent of power-driven machinery and hence the modern factory system spawned our current concepts of economic organisations and organisation for production. Power- driven equipment was expensive. Production workers could not purchase and use their own equipment as they once had their own tools. The memorable phrase for being fired—"get the sack"—comes from the earliest days of the industrial revolution, when a dismissed worker literally was given a sack in which to gather up his tools. Increasingly, workers without their own tools and often without any special skills had to gather for work where the equipment was — in factories. Expensive equipment had to produce enough output to justify its acquisition and maintenance costs,

Under the factory system, organisational success resulted from well-organised production systems that kept machines busy and costs under control. Industrial and mechanical engineers—and their machines—were the keys to production. Organisational structures and production systems were needed to take best advantage of the machines. Organisations, it was thought, should work like machines, using people, capital, and machines as their parts. Just as industrial engineers sought to design "the best" machines to keep factories productive, industrial and mechanical engineering-type thinking dominated theories about "the best way" to organise for production. Thus the first theories of organisations were concerned primarily with the anatomy or structure — of formal organisations. This was the milieu, or the environment, the mode of thinking, that shaped and influenced the tenets of classical organisation theory.

3.7   Adam Smith and the Pin Factory

Centralisation of equipment and labour in factories, division of specialised labour, management of specialisation, and economic paybacks on factory equipment all were concerns identified by the Scottish economist Adam Smith (1723-1790) in his work An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations. Smith and James "Watt (1736-1819), the inventor of the steam engine, are the two

people who are most often named as being responsible for pushing the world into industrialisation.

Smith, considered the "father" of the academic discipline of economics, provided the intellectual foundation for laissez-faire capitalism. But Smith's The Wealth of Nations devotes its first chapter, "Of the Division of Labour," to a discussion of the optimum organisation of a pin factory. Why? Because specialisationn of labour was one of the pillars of Smith's "invisible hand" market mechanism in which the greatest rewards would go to those who were the most efficient in the competitive marketplace.

Traditional pin makers could produce only a few dozen pins a day. When organised in a factory with each worker performing a limited operation, they could produce tens of thousands a day. Smith's chapter, coming as it did at the dawn of the Industrial Revolution, is the most famous and influential statement on the economic rationale of the factory system, even though factory systems had been known since ancient times. For example, in 370 B.C.E., Xenophon described the division of labour in a shoe factory. But it was not until centuries later that the popularity of Smith's 1776 book revolutionized thinking about economics and organisations. *Hence, 1776 is the year that is traditionally considered the starting point of organisation theory as an applied science and academic discipline*. Besides, 1776 is easy to remember as it was a good year for other events as well.

All formal organisations, whether Smith's eighteenth-century factory or the most sophisticated modern corporation, are force multipliers in the sense that they allow the combined individual efforts to be far greater than the sum of their parts. Smith's pin makers acting individually could make a few dozen pins a day at best; as a team, they could make many thousands. Proper organisation thus means that two plus two does not equal four; it probably equals 100.

The Importance of Proper organisation of persons for effective result is illustrated by a story playwright George Bernard Shaw thus:

"More than 50 years ago I was marching in a procession which numbered at least a thousand men. It was broken up and scattered in hopeless confusion and-terror by 20 pale nervous policemen armed with nothing more deadly than their clubs. Not one of the thousand knew what to do or what any of the others would do; so they all ran away, except those who were overtaken and knocked on the head." The policemen, because they were effectively organised, had their force multiplied. "Each of the 20 policemen knew what the other 19 were going to do, and had the law on his side. He had a uniform, a helmet,

and a weapon, and could depend on the cooperation of 19 uniformed, helmeted, weaponed comrades. It was a triumph of expected behavour over mistrust and anarchy." It was a triumph of good organisation over bad organisation. The leaders of the demonstration organised their men to march but did not provide any guidance on what to do when the police arrived. In the absence of leadership, in the absence of organisation, they ran away.

The military uses the term *force multiplier* to refer to any new technology that makes a soldier more effective on the battlefield. Thus the machine gun is a force multiplier because it means that one soldier with it is as effective as, say, a hundred soldiers with traditional rifles. Modern computers and word processors are force multipliers in a civilian context because one word processor operator can be as effective as dozens of traditional typists. But as both Smith and Shaw have shown, it is not just technology that can be a force multiplier. Good organisation is a technology in its own right, is as powerful a force multiplier as any machine — and far cheaper, too!

4.0   CONCLUSION

Administrative theories especially the classical theories had their origin from the military. The military is a regimented organisation that exists to face war, hence it is characterised by the application of rigid rules and regulations, discipline, strict obedience to commands, etc. In the military organisation the soldiers at war front need supporting staff that are not actually shooting the gun but assist those line soldiers to be effective. This range from supply of food, medical attention, and payment of salary, promotion, etc with the persons involved carrying out more of administrative jobs than military, even though they are all in the military organisation wearing the same uniform as soldiers.

Many languages and principles of administration today like: line and staff, strategy, unity of command, span of control, law and order, etc have their origin from the military. Some ancient civilisations like that of Egypt and Rome contributed in the transition from military perspective of the principles to purely administrative principles. Scholars like Adam Smith, Catheryn Seckler-Hudson and Antoine Henry Jomini are well specialised with their contributions in this respect.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this study unit, we have got to know the origins of Public Management starting with the knowledge that civilisation and

administration have always gone hand in hand since ancient times. The profession of management began and developed as the profession of arms. To the extent that the history of the world is the history of warfare, then it is also the history of public administration — because war at the state level is quite literally not possible without an effective system of public administration behind it.

The managerial changeover from those of wealth - (industrial owners) and power - (the army) to those of professional expertise - (administrators) first occurred in the ancient Roman army where long-service unit leaders drawn from the best of the enlisted army ranks, formed the first body of professional fighting officers known to history." This middle-management class transmitted from generation to generation the technical skills and discipline by which Rome dominated the world for five centuries. The regulating of pay and pensions in ancient Rome was the key to maintaining the army - and to this end the first civil service was created (by the Emperor Augustus Caesar) to raise the taxes necessary to support the legions. Thus out of military necessity was born civilian public administration.

While many ancient kingdoms, such as Egypt and China, had sophisticated administrative institutions, the core features of modern public administration in the Western world were first found in the Roman Empire. The Roman state was depersonalised. It had existed independent of any political leader or king; it was not "owned" by anyone. Significantly, the state's public finances were separate from the private funds of its leadership. Thus the ancient Roman attitude toward the desirability of youthful military service as preparation for later public office still strongly affects modern American politics and administration.

The history of the world can be viewed as the rise and fall of public administrative institutions. Those ancient empires that rose and prevailed for a while were those with better administrative institutions than their competitors. Rome, like Egypt, Persia, and other empires before it, conquered the ancient world because it had an organisational doctrine that made its soldiers far more effective than competing forces — and because its legions were backed up by a sophisticated administrative system of supply based on regular if not equitable taxes. The Roman Empire only fell when its legions degenerated into corps of mercenaries and when its supply and tax bases were corrupted.

Strict discipline is what makes a mob an army. And a disciplined military, obedient to the leaders of the state, is a precondition for civilisation. This is the classic chicken-and-egg problem. Which comes first; effective public administration or an effective military?

In the study unit, we equally got to know that, there are no generally accepted principles of management; however, there is a principles approach that has its origins in the principles of war. The military language, for "the line" originally referred to the line of battle where you faced the enemy. This is why line officers today are still those who perform the services for which the organisation exists. Many of the activities of war – planning, training, logistics, and so on – are more management than fighting, hence the application of similar principles to management.

This unit also revealed to us that, the evolution of any theory must be viewed in context. The beliefs of early management theorists about how organisations worked or should work were a direct reflection of the societal values of their times. And the times were harsh. It was well into the twentieth century before the industrial workers of the United States and Europe began to enjoy even limited "rights" as organisational citizens. Workers were not viewed as individuals but as the interchangeable parts in an industrial machine whose parts were made of flesh only when it was impractical to make them of steel.

Under the factory system, organisational success resulted from well-organised production systems that kept machines busy and costs under control. Industrial and mechanical engineers—and their machines—were the keys to production. Organisational structures and production systems were needed to take best advantage of the machines. Organisations, it was thought, should work like machines, using people, capital, and machines as their parts. Just as industrial engineers sought to design "the best" machines to keep factories productive, industrial and mechanical engineering-type thinking dominated theories about "the best way" to organise for production. Thus, the first theories of organisations were concerned primarily with the anatomy or structure — of formal organisations. This was the milieu, or the environment, the mode of thinking, that shaped and influenced the tenets of classical organisation theory.

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Traditional pin makers could produce only a few dozen pins a day. When organised in a factory with each worker performing a limited operation, they could produce tens of thousands a day. Out of Smith's

work in industrial organisation in 1776, the year is traditionally considered the starting point of organisation theory as an applied science and academic discipline.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

The origin of administrative theories is the military and economics. Discuss

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Sharma, M. P. *et al.* **(2012),** Public Administration in Theory and Practice. New Delhi: Kitab Mahal.

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UNIT 2   THE SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT THEORY

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Scientific Management is defined as the use of the scientific method to define the "one best way" for a job to be done. Frederick Winslow Taylor is popularly identified as the father of Scientific Management among other contributors. In 1878, an intense young man who had been forced to drop out of college because of illness (bad eye sight) went to work for the Midvale Steel works in Philadelphia as a common labourer. This was how Frederick W. Taylor launched his fascinating career as pioneer in the development of scientific management. Advancing from labourer through a series of jobs at the factory, Taylor became the chief engineer of Midvale by 1889.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of the study unit, you should be able to:

•   state the history and evolution of Scientific Management Theory
•   identify the fundamental principles of the theory
•   explain the available criticisms of the theory
•   conduct time and motion studies for administrative excellence.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Evolution of Scientific Management

In his various jobs at Midvale Steel Works, Frederick Winslow Taylor observed what he considered to be shortcomings of factory operations. He saw, for example, that management had no clear concept of worker management responsibilities; that virtually no effective work standards were applied; that no incentive was used to improve labourers' performance; that systematic soldering existed on every hand; that managerial decisions were based on hunch, intuition, past experience, or rule of thumb evaluation; that virtually no overall studies were made to incorporate a total flow concept of work among departments; that workers were ineptly placed at tasks for which they had little or no ability or aptitude, and finally that management apparently disregarded the obvious truth that excellence in performance and operation would mean a reward to both management and labour.

Taylor has been portrayed as a cold, calculating individual whose only interest in workers was to obtain more production from them through various clever schemes. It is true that he was interested in increasing production and efficiency, but he also displayed remarkable insight into the behaviour of workers.

For example, Taylor observed that workers at Midvale engaged in systematic soldering that is, pretending to work or loafing. He pointed out a reason for this behaviour in the principles of scientific management that workers who soldered often were not acting out of innate laziness. Rather they were reacting to management actions. If management for example cut a piece rate when management felt that the workers were beginning to make too much money, the workers would react by vowing never to overextend them again. Hence there would be soldering for there was no motivation for hard labour.

Taylor's work with a gang of shovelers at the Bethlehem Steel workers illustrates his approach. He observed that the men worked hard and that there was no loafing. He also observed that they shovelled different kinds of materials throughout the day, from very light to very heavy materials such as iron ore. And they used the same kind of shovel all the time, even though their shovel loads varied from four pounds to thirty eight pounds.

Taylor hypothesised that there must be an ideal load for a shovel that would maximse production and minimise fatigue. He began to experiment by selecting two of the best workers and varying the loads on their shovel as they worked away at various intervals. He kept track

of many possibly significant items relating to the work, but his most important finding was that the greatest productivity occurred when the shovel load was 21 ½pounds. To implement this finding, shovels of various sizes were provided for different materials, larger shovels for light material and smaller shovels for heavy materials.

In this and other experiments, Taylor demonstrated the importance of standard methods of working, output quotas, wage incentives regulated rest periods, and of the proper selection and of the proper selection and training of workers for each type of job. His success is indicated by the fact that the shovelling experiment findings, when implemented resulted in an increase in product of over 300 percent, and increase in pay for the workers, and a reduction in unit costs of over 50 percents.

All through his work, Taylor advocated the substitution of scientific methods for rule of thumb methods. The scientific method as he practiced it, focused on careful observation, experimentation, and measurement all intended to find the best way of doing a task. He modified this prescription in his writings by warning that scientific management in itself was not any efficiency devices, not a device of any kind of securing efficiency nor is it any bunch or group of efficiency device.

Taylor was trying to look beyond mere techniques, beyond piecework systems, incentive bonus systems, time studies, motion studies, and all the other techniques for increasing efficiency. He said the techniques were mere adjuncts to scientific management that while scientific investigation was necessary to assure the establishment of equitable methods, procedures, and workloads, the most important of success was the recognition by all parties that co-operation rather than discord was the only means by which the full fruits of production could be achieved. This was the complete mental revolution that Taylor felt scientific management required. Full cooperation in working together and in using scientific methods would provide the greatest return to management, to the foremen, and to the workers.

3.2   The Fundamental Principles of Scientific Management

Taylor believed that if the principles of scientific management were applied to the simplest individual acts as well as to the work of the great corporations, the results would be truly extending. The fundamental principles that he developed are as follows:

1.   ***The development of a true science of work:*** By this he pointed out that since there is no definite knowledge or clear agreement

of what constitutes a fair day's work, a boss has unlimited opportunities for complaining about his workers inadequacies. And a worker never really knows what is expected of him. This can be remedied by the establishment, after scientific investigation of a large daily task as the amount to be done by a suitable worker under optimum conditions. For this he would receive a high rate of pay much higher than the average worker would receive in unscientific factories. He would also suffer a loss of income if he failed to achieve this performance.

2.   ***The scientific selection and progressive development of the workman:*** to earn this high rate of pay a workman would have to be scientifically selected to ensure that he possesses the physical intellectual qualities to enable him to achieve the output. Then he must be systematically trained to be a first class man. Taylor believes that every worker could be a developed worker, offering opportunities for advancement which would finally work for which he could become first class man.

3.   ***The Bringing together of the science of work and the scientifically selected and trained men:*** it is the processes that cause the mental revolution in management and Taylor maintains that almost invisibly the major resistance to scientific management comes from the side of management. The workers, he finds are very willing to cooperate in learning to do a good job for a high rate of pay. Thus management should ensure that the work is being done in accordance with the principles of the scientific method that has been developed.

4.   ***The constant and intimate cooperation of management and men:*** There is an almost equal division of work and responsibility between management and workers. The management takes over all the work for which they are better fitted than the workmen, i.e. The specification and verification of the methods,time, place and quality standards of the job, and the continuous supervision and control of the worker doing it. There is hardly a single act…. Done by any workman in the shop which; is not preceded by and followed by some act on the part of the men in management. With this close personal cooperation the opportunities for conflict are almost eliminated, since the operation of this authority is not arbitrary.

Taylor had trouble getting his message across to management. Meanwhile labour criticised him for alleged speed up attempts. Taylor on the other hand, claimed that he was not opposed to labour unions but that there would be no need for labour to organise if management and labour both adopted the principles of scientific management.

Despite all the confusion and misunderstanding that plagued Taylors work before and after his death the fact remains that he made a great and solid contribution. He and others identified with the movement - Henry Gantt, Frank and Lillian Gilbrech, Henry R. Towne, and Harrington Emerson DC advocated and justified research and experimentation, planning, training the setting of standards and cooperation, controls for checking results against standard and cooperation between management and workers.

The contributions of F. W. Taylor were spelt out clearly in the following principles:-

- Time Study Principles: Human efforts and work done should be measured with standard time.
- Piece – Rate Principles: Reward should be according to effort put in
- Separation of Planning from performance principles: Management should decide on policies while work/task to be done by the workers.
- Management Control Principles: Need for development is necessary
- Scientific method of work principle: Responsible and accountable leadership
- Functional Management Principles: There should be flexibility in running of organisation.

He gave the following principle to guide management.

1. Each worker should have a clear defined task.
2. Standard conditions are needed to ensure task is more easily accomplished.
3. High payment to be made for successful completion of task.
4. There should be loss in case of failure. That no one should fail in his tasks where nobody does such a failing worker must pay for it.

3.3   The Contribution of Frank Gilbreth

Frank Gilbreth made immense contributions in the scientific management movement. In 1886, Frank Gilbreth took up a job as apprentice bricklayer. He later developed bricklaying techniques so that production increased from 120 to 360 bricks per man hour.

Within a few years he advanced to become general superintendent and in 1895 started his own construction company. Successful from the start

Gilbreth eventually built factories, dams, canals and mills all over the world. He invented a new method for water proofing basements, a new type of concrete mixture, and new types of conveyors, and became the first manager ever to use a cost-plus-mixed sum contracts.

Gilbreth conducted some of his experiments with his wife. They were interested in studies of fatigue and training, so they started with that and even did studies, in their home of bathing, brushing teeth, and touch typing using their children as subjects, the whole family was the subject first of a book and the many years later of a movie – **Cheaper by the Dozens**. The Gilbrethes were interested in the employee as an individual whose productivity depended on attitude, opportunity and physical environment as much as on the use of correct methods and ideal equipments.

He also conducted *Time and Motion Study:* the purpose of time and motion studies is to help workers at every level to get the best out of themselves.

3.3.1 Time and Motion Studies

The purpose of time and motion studies was to help workers at every level to get the best out of themselves. It aims at removing (a) wasteful or ineffectual movement in doing the work, (b) fatigue cause by the accumulation of waste products in the body and (c) defects in the physical environment such as poor lighting, excessive humidity, inadequate heating etc.

Time Study
The time study seeks to arrive at the optimum time for each separate operation that goes to make up a job and by adding these together to arrive at a sound optimum time for the operation taken as a whole. It thus provides an objective for measuring the effectiveness of individual work.

Motion Study
The motion study, on the other hand, aims at finding the best way in which any given operation of related sequence of operations can be done. It analyses the whole sequence of movement needed for the job and eliminates lost or unproductive movements. The various steps needed in such a study are (i) the job is classified into basic steps and motions, (ii) the most efficient way of doing the job is evolved with proper allowances for equipment, work place and work floor (iii) precise time values are obtained from detailed time reading by stop watch or micro motion studies, and (iv) standard time- output ratio are computed by accumulating time reading for all job elements, arranging

and synthesising times and applying leveling and normalizing factors to compensate for unusual work conditions and for non productive time caused by fatigue, rest periods and flow delays.

The major contribution of Frank and Lillian Gilbreth was notably the time and motion studies in brick laying among others. This study is remembered for laying down the basis of pay incentive schemes. That apart, Gilbreth has to be remembered again for his three position plan of promotion which was designed to attract desirable applicants. Each worker, he said, should be considered to occupy three positions namely his past, present, and next higher positions. Part of his work, then would be teaching the man below him and learning from the man above hm. In that way he would qualify for promotion, himself and help to provide a successor for his present job.

Although both Taylor and Gilbreth belong to the scientific management movement, Taylor's findings received a lot of criticisms from Gilbreth. The first criticism was on Taylor's time study which according to Frank and his wife Lillian Gilbreth was considered to be unethical, wasteful, and inaccurate, employing questionable methodology, thereby costly and finally developing useless data.

Gilbreth also disagreed with Taylor about labour unions. Although Taylor sympathized with unionisation in campaigns which had not adopted scientific management, he felt that there would be no need for unions once scientific management was introduced. The Gilbreth, on the other hand wrote "we do not agree with Taylor that the necessity of the labour union disappears under any consideration". In addition Gilbreth criticised Taylor's system for absolute lack of the human element which he believed his system supplied.

3.4   Attributes of the Scientific Management

According to Tayor and other scientific management theorists' increase in productivity and efficiency could be achieved and improved whenever the organisation absorbs and establishes the following measures:-

1.   **Management Selection -** A good management should make a careful and thorough study in order to select an able and committed employed (worker) in the organisation. Management should apply a more scientific selection technique on employment and placement of resources to enhance increase in productivity and standardisation.

2. **Training** - Employees should be thoroughly trained in order to improve and develop their skills in performing the job. The management should make a careful study of the employees' capability and advance them to training. Through the training, it is possible to advance the employees interest that is to fix him or place him on the position that fits him accordance to his natural ability.

3. **Management Research:** The management should have to intensify on scientific method of research and experiment on its production methods. Management should therefore gather and source all the previous traditional methods, (rules of thumbs) analyses and quantify them with a view to improve on them. This can give way to the development of high standard process of production and efficient means of realisng goals.

4. **Financial Incentives Plans:** The management should pay reward, compensation and salary with their low unit production cost. Wages and salaries should be commensurable to the work done. The higher the pay, the more of the employee's willingness to under takes hard work. Bonus should also be introduced to induce employees' interest.

5. **Development of Friendly Co-operation**: - Management should ensure and encourage close hearty friendly relationship among the employees on one hand, and that between the management and the employees on the other hand. The cooperation would cement and encourage consistency in stability and continuity of the working environment.

6. **Development of Careful System of Control**: - Management should develop a careful system of control of the employees so as to ensure efficiency and discipline within the organisation.

There should be a system of rules and regulations, which should be imposed on every individual employee. Workers have to be coerced to work in the organisation. This introduced the appointment of supervisors and foreman factories.

3.5   Achievement and Consequence of Scientific Management Approach

The scientific management theorists were able to achieve greatly by making productivity to increase more than prior to the time of scientific management era. The approach has encouraged and fostered efficiency

and increase in output. Terms like output and efficiency become more popularly uses in most organisations.

1.   With the scientific management approach, people tend to become more proficient in their work, which subsequently led to the increase of workers productivity and efficiency. This was enhanced by specialisation through the division of labour or division of work principles.

2.   The scientific management approach served as a basis for encouraging other scholar's researches and experiment on increase in productivity in an organisation. It is part of the impacts of scientific management that other theories emerged to fill in the gap of the remaining imbalances, which the scientific management approach left unsolved.

By World War I,, the initial momentum of scientific management had run down while the technique motion and time study, fatigue studies incentive plans and the philosophy were still widely applied, particularly at the shop level. We now realise that the means to high productivity and job satisfaction are far more complex that Taylor envisioned as a result of his mental revolution.

3.6   Weakness/Criticisms of the Scientific Management Approach

1.   The scientific management theory and approach is mechanically oriented. It is a theory that automatically viewed and reduced man, individual employee to the status of a machine. The theory failed to understand the illusive of human mind. It violates the psychological aspect of man.

2.   The idea of financial incentives plan, popularised by the scientific management theories, is not always consistence to provide solution for inducing the employees to work. There exist many other factors not necessary in financial terms that can serve as a motivating factor.   Such factors include; acceptance, break, rest, refreshment, ventilation e.t.c.

3.   The idea of friendly hearty cooperation between employee and the management had never been materialised. It rather serves to widen the gap and perpetuate inequalities associated to the growing scientific advancement in the modern contemporary time.

The above criticisms were eminent because the scientific management approach to organisations in a nutshell was founded on what is often called machine theory. This is because it gives consideration to finding the best possible and efficient ways of making good use of scarce resources to get the best result. Some of the theorists therefore concentrated on the operational level of the organisation their scope of activities encompassing the workers and the first line supervisors only. They are highly achievement oriented and always attach special significance to money reward. They are therefore strong believers in steeply increasing financial rewards as motivators for greater accomplishment.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In spite of the above mentioned critics and the ever growing weakness of the scientific management approach, one could yet benefit from some ideas preached by the theory. It is as laid down fact, that scientific management. Approach, if properly implemented could help in the smooth running of the modern complex organisations. The Scientific Management Theory can still be specialised for bringing to lime light the following:

1.   Management is a separate and distinct activity
2.   First line supervision is basic
3.   Management function include: examining variables involved in the task, developing the most effective methods, selecting workers according to the psychological and physiological requirement of the job, training workers in the most effective methods
4.   Productivity increase means higher wages for the workers.

5.0   SUMMARY

Scientific Management is defined as the use of the scientific method to define the "one best way" for a job to be done. At the turn of the century, the most notable organisations were large and industrialised. Often they included ongoing, routine tasks that manufactured a variety of products. The United States highly priced scientific and technical matters, including careful measurement and specification of activities and results. Management tended to be the same. Frederick Taylor developed the "scientific management theory" which espoused this careful specification and measurement of all organisational tasks. Tasks were standardised as much as possible. Workers were rewarded and punished. This approach appeared to work well for organisations with assembly lines and other mechanistic, reutilised activities. Taylor wanted to create a mental revolution among the workers and

management by defining clear guidelines for improving production efficiency. He started the Scientific Management movement, and he and his associates were the first people to study the work process scientifically. They studied how work was performed, and they looked at how this affected worker productivity. Taylor's philosophy focused on the belief that making people work as hard as they could was not as efficient as optimising the way the work was done. In 1909, Taylor published "The Principles of Scientific Management." In this, he proposed that by optimising and simplifying jobs, productivity would increase. He also advanced the idea that workers and managers needed to cooperate with one another. This was very different from the way work was typically done in businesses beforehand. A factory manager at that time had very little contact with the workers, and he left them on their own to produce the necessary product. There was no standardisation, and a worker's main motivation was often continued employment, so there was no incentive to work as quickly or as efficiently as possible. Taylor believed that all workers were motivated by money, so he promoted the idea of "a fair day's pay for a fair day's work." In other words, if a worker didn't achieve enough in a day, he didn't deserve to be paid as much as another worker who was highly productive. With a background in mechanical engineering, Taylor was very interested in efficiency.

While advancing his career at a U.S. steel manufacturer, he designed workplace experiments to determine optimal performance levels. In one, he experimented with shovel design until he had a design that would allow workers to shovel for several hours straight. With bricklayers, he experimented with the various motions required and developed an efficient way to lay bricks. And he applied the scientific method to study the optimal way to do any type of workplace task. As such, he found that by calculating the time needed for the various elements of a task, he could develop the "best" way to complete that task. These "time and motion" studies also led Taylor to conclude that certain people could work more efficiently than others. These were the people whom managers should seek to hire where possible. Therefore, selecting the right people for the job was another important part of workplace efficiency.

Taking what he learned from these workplace experiments, Taylor developed four principles of scientific management. These principles are also known simply as "Taylorism".

1.   Develop a science for each element of an individual's work, which replaces the old rule of thumb method.

2.   Scientifically select and then train, teach, and develop the worker.

3.   Heartily cooperate with the workers so as to ensure that all work is done according to the principles of the science that has been developed.

4.   Divide work and responsibility almost equally between management and workers. Management takes over all work for which it is better fitted than the workers.

Taylor argued that following these principles would benefit both management and workers. Workers would earn more pay and management more profits.

The time and motion study of Gilbreth is the other component of the scientific management theory. Gilbreth and his wife Lillian were interested in studies of fatigue and training, so they started with that and even did studies, in their home of bathing, brushing teeth, and touch typing using their children as subjects. That led them to the **Time and Motion Studies** his purpose of which was to help workers at every level to get the best out of themselves. The time study seeks to arrive at the optimum time for each separate operation that goes to make up a job while the motion study aims at finding the best way in which any given operation of related sequence of operations can be done. nd normalising factors to compensate for unusual work conditions and for non productive time caused by fatigue, rest periods and flow delays.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is the rationale behind conducting time and motion study?
2.   How is time and motion study carried out?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Sharma, M. P. *et al.* (2012). *Public Administration in Theory and Practice*. New Delhi: Kitab Mahal.

Laxmikanth, M, (2011). *Public Admiistration,* New Delhi*:* Tata McGraw Hill's Series.

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UNIT 3 THE MAIN CLASSICAL (Henry Fayol, Urwick, Luther Gulick, etc)

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
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    3.1 The contribution of Henry Fayol 1841 – 1925
    3.2 Contributions of Gulick and Urwick
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    3.4 Criticism of the classical theory
    3.5 Significance of the Classical Theory
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

As noted earlier, the scientific managers concentrated on the operational level of the organisation. Their scope of activities encompassed the workers and the first line supervisors, but little else. With more and more people entering the management ranks, the study of management soon began to receive attention. The early observers were interested in what management is, what organisation principles are and the methods by which managers could more effectively do their jobs. The people who devoted attention to answering these questions helped formulate the basics (classical) of modern management theory. The most important of these people was Henry Fayol, commonly referred to as the father to modern management today.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the link between scientific management and classical theories.
- identify the contributions made by scholars like Henry Fayol, Luther Gulick, Urwick, Mooney and Reiley
- criticise the classical theory
- appreciate it basic position as the foundation of all other modern theories.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The contribution of Henry Fayol 1841 – 1925

He was a qualified mining engineer and managing director of large French Company. He focused attention on what should be the work of a chief executive. For this, he propounded five basic elements of management, planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling.

He equally divided activities in business organisation into six groups namely:

1.   Technical Operation: - total commitment of making use of machines, technology in this production activities.
2.   Commercial Operation: - Concerns the marketing strategy.
3.   Financial Operation: - Centered on raising money, capital and optimum use of capital resources of an organisation.
4.   Accounting Operations:- This is concerned with keeping records of accounts and checking frauds.
5.   Security Operation:- Involves total commitment towards the protection of goods, machines and other resources belonging to organisation.
6.   Administration:- involves the general running of day – in day out activities of the organisation. That comprises of planning, organising, directing, coordinating and controlling the organisational resources.

According to Fayol the sixth operational activity i.e. administration is the most essential because it is through it all other five operational aspects can be effectively run. So to achieve a desired goal and objective the administration should be allowed to take control of all other five operations. Fayol further advanced fourteen principles to serve as a main guide to the sixth operational and administrative operation of an organisation. The fourteen principles of management can be summarised as follows:

1.   **Division of Work:-** Work should be split and break into small units or departments among the employees on the basis of their skill, ability and competence. This would help to carry out the job easily, it also enhance specialisationn among the workforce in an organisation.

2.   **Authority and Responsibility:** Every employee should be given a specific responsibility. And every employee (worker) must be given the authority to commensurate the responsibility, so

that whatever comes up he can be held responsible of either success or failure on the said assigned responsibility.

3. **Unity of Command:** Individual employee should receive order or instruction from one source, i.e. from one supervising superior. Duel source of command produces conflicts and confusions.

4. **Order:** Ordering that everything in the organisation must be organised. Everything must be placed in a proper and suitable arrangement.

5. **Unity of Direction:** Every effort must be directed towards the attainment of one goal that is the organisational goals.

6. **Hierarchy:-** The principle of hierarchy suggests the arrangement of functions in vertical order that is one employee subordinates another. Commands, order and instruction flows from the above and obedience emanating from the below upward.

7. **Remuneration:** It means the reward of the services rendered; this is about ensuring fair compensation to the individual contribution and performance. Payment should be commensurable to the work.

8. **Discipline:-** Subordination and obedience to the standardised rules of the organisational hierarchy, that is employee should respect the laid down rules of the organisational hierarchy.

9. **Scalar Chain:-** Chain of command with the formal line of authority. Unbroken chain of authority from the above to the bottom position of the organisations hierarchy.

10. **Subordination of Individual Interest to the Organisation General Interest:** The interest of the organisation should dominate and superseded individual employees' interest of the organisation. Employees should surrender their personal interest so that the overall organisational interest could be achieve and realise.

11. **Equity:** - Concerns with fairness in the treatment of personnel or employees of the organisation "Justice to whom justice is due". Here no one single employee should suffer from any discriminate treatment. Everybody is treated equal in accordance with the laid down rules of the organisation.

12. **Stability of tenure of Personnel:** The management must make deliberate attempt to discourage employees turnover tenure in a position must be guided and stabilise, else this produces general instability and lack of order within the organisation.

13. **Espirit De Corp:-** That the spirit of belonging and oneness, feeling of togetherness and comradeship. Where there is Unity and cooperation, there is going to be strength. Unity is strength, united we stand. Some would feel more comfortable in the organisation where they feels happier and can contribute more greatly as a result.

14. **Initiative:** Measure of freedom to do the job in the best way understood. It is an effective and efficient ways of carrying out organisational task that could enhance effective realisation of an organisational goals and objectives.

Fayol therefore, emphasised on the need for an organisation to incorporate and reorganise the pattern of administration with a reflection of the fourteen principles so that productivity could be increased and efficient means of achieving the objective of the organisation could be realised

3.2   Contributions of Gulick and Urwick[4]

The classical theory reached its zenith in 1937 when *Papers on the Science of Administration* by Gulick and Urwick was published. These two classical thinkers further elabourated the ideas of Henry Fayol. They stressed the importance of structure of organisation in determining its functioning. Thus, they equally neglected the human factor in organisation. Urwick stated, in this context, that, "It is impossible for humanity to advance its knowledge of organisation unless the factor of structure is isolated from other considerations, however artificial such an isolation may appear." He conceived organisation mainly as a designing process and felt that lack of design is illogical, cruel, wasteful and inefficient. Hence, he observed, "For this reason the mechanistic parallel can be very helpful in discussing organisation. Another name for it is the engineering approach." Hence the general name given to the classical theory as "the machine theory"

Gulick and Urwick focussed their efforts on the discovery of neutral principles, based on which the structure of the organisation can be designed. They said that the principles deal with the architectonics of formal organisation and are directed at enhancing the degree of organisational efficiency.

Gulick specified the following ten principles of organisation: Division of work or specialisation Bases of departmental organisations Coordination through hierarchy Deliberate coordination (by ideas) Coordination through committees

Laxmikanth, M, (2011), Public Administration, Tata McGraw Hill's Series, New Delhi Decentralisation or the holding company idea Unity of command Staff and line Delegation Span of control

However, the most important principle, according to Gulick, is division of work (specialisation). Thus, he wrote, "work division is the foundation of organisation; indeed the reason for organisation. Division of work and integration are the bootstraps by which mankind lifts itself in the process of civilisation."

Gulick identified the four bases of departmental organisations as, Purpose (function), Process (skills), Persons (clientele), and Place (area). He called it the **4P-FormuIa.**

According to Gulick, the administration consists of seven elements (functions). He coined the acronym ["POSDCORB" to delineate these functions. Each letter in this acronym stands for one function (element) of the administration. Thus, 'P' for Planning 'O'   for Organising 'S' for Staffing 'D' for Directing 'CO' for Coordinating 'R' for Reporting 'B' for Budgeting

Similarly, Urwick specified eight principles of organisation:

i.   Principle of objective—an organisation should have an expressed purpose.
ii.   Principle of correspondence—at all levels authority and responsibility must be coterminous and coequal,
iii. Principle of responsibility—the superiors must take absolute responsibility for the work of their subordinates.
iv.   Scalar principle—a pyramidical type of structure should be built in an organisation.
v.   Principle of span of control—no supervisor can supervise directly the work of more than five or at the most six subordinates whose work inter-locks.
vi.   Principle of specialisation—limiting one's work to a single function.
vii. Principle of coordination—harmonious functioning of different parts of the organisation,
viii. Principle of definition—clear prescription (defining in writing) of duties, authority and responsibility of each position and its relationships with other positions.

Later in 1943, Urwick published his most famous book *The Elements of Administration.* In this, he explained another set of twenty-nine principles. In doing so, Henry Fayol's fourteen principles of administration, Mooney and Reiley's principle, process and effect, and the ideas of M.P. Follet and V.A. Graicunus. These are mentioned below in alphabetical order:

1.   Applicative
2.   Appropriateness
3.   Assignment of functions.
4.   Authority
5.   Centralisation
6.   Command
7.   Control
8.   Coordination
9.   Coordinative principle
10.   Delegation
11.   Determinative
12.   Discipline
13.   Equity
14.   Forecasting
15.   Functional Definition
16.   General Interest
17.   Initiative
18.   Interpretative
19.   Investigation
20.   Leadership
21.   Order
22.   Organisation
23.   Planning
24.   Rewards and Sanctions
25.   Scalar Process
26.   Selection and lacements
27.   Spirit
28.   Stability
29.   Staffing

3.3   Contributions of Mooney and Reiley

James D. Mooney and Alan C. Reiley were the first in USA to formulate the classical theory in 1931, when their book *Onward Industry* was published. Later, in 1939, they republished the same book under a new title *The Principles of Organisation.* They opined that the principles formed the basis for efficient functioning of organisation. They popularised organisation charts and manuals and enunciated four principles:

[6] **Laxmikanth, M. (2011). Ibid**

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1.   **Coordination** Mooney defined coordination as "the orderly arrangement of group effort to provide unity of action in the pursuit of a common purpose". According to him, "Coordination is the first principle of organisation and includes within itself all other principles which are subordinate to it and through which it operates." He further observed, "Co-ordination is no less than the determining principle of organisation, the form which contains all other principles, the beginning and the end of all organised efforts.

2.   **Scalar Process**   Mooney and Reiley emphasised hierarchy in organisational design and called it 'scalar process'. To them, it constitutes the universal process of coordination, through which the supreme coordinating authority operates throughout the whole organisation. They stated that the scalar process hails own principle, process, and effect. These they referred to as leadership, delegation, and functional definition

3.   **Functional Differentiation** Mooney and Reiley have suggested that the functional principle should be followed in organising tasks into departments. According to them, functionalism means the differentiation between kinds of duties. This is the concept of division of labour or specialisation. Th: explained it as follows: "The difference between generals and colonels is one of the gradation in authority and is, therefore, scalar. The difference between an officer of infantry and an officer of artillery, however, is functional, because there is distinct difference in the nature of their duties."

4.   **Line and Staff** Mooney and Reiley suggested that the line management should be vested with authority to get things done. At the same time, they recognised the role of staff in providing advice and information. According to Mooney, the staff is "an expansion of the personality of the executive. It means more eyes, more ears and more hands to aid him in forming and carrying out his plans."

3.4   Critical Evaluation of the Classical Theory

The classical theory has been criticised on various grounds by various social scientists.

1.   It is criticised as an unscientific theory of organisation. It is said that the theory was not tested (verified) under scientific

conditions (controlled and repeatable). Thus the empirical base of the theory is inadequate to support its elements. The critics said that theory is full of "inconsistencies, tautologies and lack of sophistication." Herbert Simon and Dwight Waldo stated that the methods used by the classical school were simply not scientific.

2.   It is criticised on the ground that it neglected the human dimension of the organisation, that is, sociological and psychological aspects of management (administration). Warren Bennis remarked that the focus of classical theory is on "organisations without people". Hence, March and Simon have described it as the "machine model" theory.

3.   The classical theory is described as "atomistic" because it views human beings in isolation from the fellow men in the organisation. Similarly, it is described as "voluntaristic" because it believes that human beings are immune to social control, that is, control by groups.

4.   The theory has been characterised as "mechanistic" because it fails to explain the dynamics of organisational behaviour. It treats man as an inert instrument or mere cog in the organisation machine. It is more concerned with the work rather than the worker, thus it under-estimated human factor in the organisation.

5.   The most important critic of the classical theory is Herbert A. Simon. He described the principles of organisation as "proverbs, myths, slogans and pompous inanities." He remarked that the principles are not scientifically valid and thus do not have universal relevance (application). In his words "It is a fatal defect of the current principles of administration that, like proverbs, they occur in pairs. For almost every principle one can find an equally plausible and acceptable contradictory principle. Although the two principles of the pair will lead to exactly opposite organisational recommendations, there is nothing in the theory to indicate which the proper one to apply is."

He also observed that "the principles of administration are at best, a criterion for describing and diagnosing administrative situations. All the stated principles are to be considered in the design of an efficient administrative organisation."

[6] **Laxmikanth, M. (2011). Ibid**

6.   The theory has also been criticised on the ground that it has over-simplified human motivation. It assumed each worker to be an economic man who is interested in maximising his income.

Accordingly, it has not taken any note of non-economic factors, that is, it has not emphasised the social and psychological factors of human motivation. The Hawthorne experiments conducted by Elton Mayo proved that the workers are motivated not only by economic factors (material rewards) but also by non-economic factors.

7.   The classical theory is described as a "normative theory" because it is more concerned with *what ought to be* rather than *what is*. Thus, unlike the behavioural approach, it did not study the actual behaviour in the organisation.

8.   The classical theory is described as a "static model" of organisation, that is, it treats an organisation as a "closed system", uninfluenced by the external environment. The 68 systems approach to organisational analysis highlighted this drawback of classical theory.

9.   The classical theory was criticised on the ground that it deals only with the formal organisation and neglects the informal organisational processes. A formal organisation is one which is deliberately and rationally designed (structured/planned) to attain its objectives in an efficient and effective way. While the informal organisation; reflects the social relations in the organisation. Chestar Barnard and Herbert Simon observed that the actual behaviour of organisational members departs in many ways from the rationalistic behaviour.

10.   According to Chris Argyris, there is a basic incongruence between the needs of a mature personality and the requirements of a classical organisation (a formal organisation designed in accordance with the classical principles). The application of such principles make the employee's passive, dependent, subordinate and short- term oriented.

11.   J.G, March and Herbert Simon (in their book *Organisations)* have pointed out the following limitations of the classical theory.
        (a)   The motivational assumptions of the theory are improper.
        (b)   The role of intra-organisational conflict of interests has received little appreciation in the theory-
        (c)   The theory has given little consideration to the constraints placed on the man by the complex information processing system.
        (d)   The role of cognition in task identification and classification received little attention in the theory.

(e)   The theory has given little attention to the phenomenon of programme evaluation.

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12.   V. Subramaniam (in his Article entitled as 'The Classical Organisation Theory and its Critics' has mentioned the following two limitations of the classical theory: (i) It appears to be common sense propositions which do not appeal to the intellectual curiosity of the scholars of administration. Thus, there is a lack of sophistication in the theory. (ii) It is concerned only with the problems of management and not with the other operational problems in the organisation. Hence, it displays a pro- management bias.

3.5   Significance of the Classical Theory

Laxmikanth, M, (2011), Public Administration, Tata McGraw Hill's Series, New Delhi Classical theory, despite its limitations, made a significant contribution to the evolution of organisational theory and administrative thought. They are:

1.   The classical thinkers developed administration into a science. It was considered hitherto an art. Thus, it provided an answer to the call for "science of administration" by Woodrow Wilson— the father of public administration.

2.   The classical writers were the first to propound the idea that administration itself is a separate activity which deserves intellectual investigation.

3.   The classical theorists promoted the use of certain management techniques such as report accounting and budgeting in which public administration was deficient.

4.   Classical theory formulated a set of concepts in administration and evolved a terminology wrrk[1]-could be used by subsequent researchers. It introduced some clear thinking on authority, responsibility and delegation.

5.   Classical theory offered practical prescriptions with regard to the construction of logical, rational and efficient organisational structures.

6.   Classical theory played an important role in rationalising and stimulating production in the industrial organisations.

7.   The very limitations of the classical theory instigated further enquiries, investigations and researches in organisational theory and behaviour. In fact, the classical approach to organisational analysis is considered as the foundation of the 20th century administrative-management thought. Classical theory was most influential during 1930-1950 in the USA. It influenced many administrative reforms committees and commissions including the Brownlow Committee (1937), the First Hoover Commission (1949) and the Second Hoover Commission (1955).

4.0   CONCLUSION

Classical theories of administration form the foundation of all subsequent theories. It earned the word classical because the principles it contain are of comparatively long standing and they stand the test of time. This means, any modern theory is built on these classical principles. They are, however, rigid in their application. They are in one way guided by military values which were imported into the field of administration from military operations in ancient Rome, Egypt and Persia.   In another way, the classical principles equally imported economic values from the ideas of some classical economists like Adam Smith, David Ricardo etc.

5.0   SUMMARY

We have seen in this study unit the contribution of Henry Fayol 1841 – 1925, to classical theories. He focused attention on what should be the work of a chief executive. For this, he propounded five basic elements of management, planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. He equally divided activities in business organisation into six groups namely: Technical Operation: - total commitment of making use of machines, technology in this production activities; Commercial Operation: - Concerns the marketing strategy; Financial Operation: - Centred on raising money, capital and optimum use of capital resources of an organisation; Accounting Operations:- This is concerned with keeping records of accounts and checking frauds; Security Operation:- Involves total commitment towards the protection of goods, machines and other resources belonging to organisation; Administration:- involves the general running of day – in day out activities of the organisation. That comprises of planning, organising, directing, coordinating and controlling the organisational resources. According to Fayol the sixth operational activity i.e. administration is the most essential because it is through it all other five operational aspects can be effectively run. So to achieve a desired goal and objective the administration should be allowed to take control of all other five operations. Fayol further

advanced fourteen principles as follows: Division of Work, Authority and Responsibility, Unity of Command, Order, Unity of Direction, Hierarchy, Remuneration, Discipline, Scalar Chain, Subordination of Individual Interest to the Organisation General Interest, Equity, Stability of tenure of Personnel, Espirit De Corp, Initiative.

Contributions of Gulick and Urwick are equally discussed in the study unit. These two classical thinkers further elabourated the ideas of Henry Fayol. They stressed the importance of structure of organisation in determining its functioning. Thus, they equally neglected the human factor in organisation.

Gulick and Urwick focussed their efforts on the discovery of neutral principles, based on which the structure of the organisation can be designed. They said that the principles deal with the architectonics of formal organisation and are directed at enhancing the degree of organisational efficiency. Gulick identified the four bases of departmental organisations as, Purpose (function), Process (skills), Persons (clientele), and Place (area). He called it the **4P-Formula.** According to Gulick, the administration consists of seven elements (functions). He coined the acronym "POSDCORB" to delineate these functions. Each letter in this acronym stands for one function (element) of the administration. Thus, 'P' for Planning 'O' for Organising 'S' for Staffing 'D' for Directing 'CO' for Coordinating
'R' for Reporting 'B' for Budgeting

Mooney and Reiley also contributed with the Principles of Organisation. They opined that the principles formed the basis for efficient functioning of organisation. They popularised organisation charts and manuals and enunciated four principles: Coordination, Scalar Process, Functional Differentiation, Line and Staff, Critical Evaluation of the Classical Theory.

The classical theory has been criticised on various grounds by various social scientists. It is criticised as an unscientific theory of organisation. It is said that the theory was not tested (verified) under scientific conditions (controlled and repeatable). Thus the empirical base of the theory is inadequate to support its elements.

Despite the criticisms, the significance of the Classical Theory lies in the fact that it made a significant contribution to the evolution of organisational theory and administrative thought. The classical thinkers developed administration into a science. It was considered hitherto an art. Thus, it provided an answer to the call for "science of administration" by Woodrow Wilson—the father of public administration.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMEMT

What are the similarities and differences between F. W. Taylor and Henry Fayol in their contributions to theories of administration?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Sharma, M. P. *et al*. (2012). *Public Administration in Theory and Practice.* New Delhi: Kitab Mahal.

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UNIT 4   BUREAUCRACY THEORY

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   Reference/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Bureaucracy is a term defined in many ways. The term was derived from 'bureau' connoting a government department or sub-division of a department, where bureaucrat denote official working and guided by a prescribed stringent rules and regulations. Bureaucracy can therefore best be described as a special kind of organisational design guided by rigid laid down rules and regulation to accomplish large scale administrative work through a systematic means of coordinating large number of employees in an organisation. In Weberian formulation, bureaucracy is not to be confused with the civil services. It refers to the sociological concept of rationalisation of collective activities. The bureaucratic form according to Weber is the most efficient organisational form for large scale, complex administration that has been developed in the modern world so far. Bureaucracy compares to other forms of organisations as does the machine with non- mechanical modes of production.

Most of the materials in this study unit are adapted from Laxmikanth, M, (2011), Public Administration,Tata McGraw Hill's Series, New Delhi.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- describe the origin of bureaucracy
- appreciate the contribution of Max Weber in bureaucracy theory
- list the characteristics of bureaucracy
- explain the causes of bureaucracy
- differentiate between the merits and demerits of bureaucracy
- identify that despite the significance of bureaucracy, there are criticisms against it.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Origin of Bureaucracy

"Bureacracy" was first coined by Vincent de Gourney, a French economist in 1745. He stated, "We have an illness in France which bids fair to play havoc with us; this illness is called Bureaumania." In French the word 'bureau' means a desk.

The term bureaucracy," in the words of F.M. Marx, "which was first used in the French form 'bureaucratic' by a French Minister of commerce in the eighteenth century to refer to the government in operation, spread to Germany in the nineteenth century as 'Burokratic' and has since found its way into English and many other languages. Thomas Carlyle described the spread of the term as 'the continental nuisance'.

Laxmikanth, M, (2011), Public Admiistration, Tata McGraw Hill's Series, New Delhi The classical writings on bureaucracy came from Karl Marx, Max Weber, Robert Michels and Gaetano Mosca. However, the systematic study of bureaucracy began with Max Weber, the German sociologist. As stated by Mohit Bhattacharya, "the concept of bureaucracy does not occupy a central position in Mark's thought. According to Marx, bureaucracy like the state itself is an instrument by which the dominant class exercises its domination over other social classes. According to this logic, the interests of bureaucracy are closely are closely linked to those of the dominant class and the state."

Robert Michels, in his book Political Parties propounded the concept of Iron Law of Oligarchy. According to this concept large organisations have a tendency to develop a bureaucratic structure (Oligarchic system). In other words, it states that in big organisations power is concentrated in the hands of a few (oligarchs). This phenomenon rules out the possibility of internal democracy in large scale organisations due to elite domination.

Gaetano Mosca in his book The Ruling Class classified the political systems into two categories, that is, feudal and bureaucratic. He said that the bureaucracy is basic to the governance of big empires. However, it is Max Weber who holds a unique position in the galaxy of administrative-political thinkers who made an attempt to explain the concept of bureaucracy. In fact, the first scientific treatment of bureaucracy came from his writings. Thus, his name became synonymous with bureaucracy. As rightly observed by S.R. Maheswari, "The credit for systematic formulation of the bureaucratic theory goes to Max Weber (1864- 1920), for he founded the modern sociological study of bureaucracy, freed the term from pejorative connotations, and emphasised the the indispensability of bureaucracy for the rational attainment of the goals of an organisation."

3.2   Max Weber and Bureaucracy

Max Weber called his formulation of bureaucracy as 'ideal type'. The ideal type is a mental map (or mental construct). In its conceptual purity this mental construct cannot be found empirically anywhere in reality. Thus it is a 'Utopia'.

As analysed by Mohit Bhattacharya, "In Weberian formulation, bureaucracy is not to be confused with the civil service. It refers to the sociological concept of rationalisation of collective   activities." Weber's conceptual framework of bureaucracy cannot be understood properly without understanding his typology of authority systems.

3.2.1 Theory of Authority

Weber defined power as, 'The probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will, despite resistance," while, authority as "the probability that a command with a given specific content will be obeyed by a given group of persons." Thus, compared to power, authority is characterised by legitimacy, that is, voluntary obedience of the command by the subordinates. In other words, legitimacy turns power into authority. According to Weber, authority is synonymous to 'authoritarian power of command' and he called it 'domination'. He stated that, "all administration means domination." (i.e. administration means exercise of authority).

Reinhard Bendix in his book, Max Weber: An Intellectual Portrait summarised the components of authority as identified by Weber. They are:

(i)   An individual or a body of individuals who rule
(ii)   An individual or a body of individuals who are ruled
(iii)   The will of the rulers to influence the conduct of the ruled and an expression of that will or command
(iv)   Evidence of the influence of the rulers in terms of the objective degree of command
(v)   Direct or indirect evidence of that influence in terms of the subjective acceptance with which the ruled obey the command

As noted by Ramesh K. Arora, "Weber classified authority on the basis of its claim to legitimacy, since on this would depend largely the type of obedience, the kind of administrative staff suitable to it, and the ways of exercising authority. His three pure types of legitimate authority are based respectively on his three bases of legitimacy". They are:

Charismatic Authority: The term 'charisma' literally means the gift of grace. According to Weber, this authority rests "on devotion to specific and exceptional sanctity, heroism or exemplary character of an individual and of the normative patterns or orders revealed or ordained by him." Thus the ruler under this system possesses the superhuman and supernatural qualities and is obeyed by virtue of personal trust in him and his revelation.

The administrative staff member under the charismatic authority system consists of followers who are given positions on the basis of their charismatic qualities and their personal devotion to the leader.

A significant feature of the charismatic authority system is that it is unstable, that is, it breaks down when the leader dies or when the charismatic qualities of the leader declines. However, Weber suggested the routinisation (institutionalisation) of the charismatic authority either in the authoritarian or democratic direction.

The inherent problem of this type of authority is the non permanent nature of it. The authority fades away by the time the person dies. Thus the authority lies in the person, not in a system. It is out of his innate personal qualities, he was born with it. This prompted Weber to look for a more lasting authority.

Traditional Authority: According to Weber, this authority rests "on an established belief in the sanctity of immemorial traditions and the legitimacy of the status of those exercising authority under them." The extent of authority under this system is determined by the custom and precedent. In other words, the obedience under this system is owed to

the ruler who occupies the traditionally sanctioned position of authority and who is (within its sphere) bound by tradition. The obligation of obedience is a matter of personal loyalty within the area of accustomed obligations.

The administrative staff member under the traditional authority system is either patrimonial or feudal. In case of the former system, the administrative apparatus consists of personal retainers, servants and relatives of the ruler and they owe traditional loyalty to him. While in case of the latter, the administrative apparatus consists of the feudal lords who interpose between the people and the ruler and owe personal loyalty to the ruler.

The problem of this type of authority is not that of permanency or continuity but that of merit. Web noted that when the incumbent dies, he may not be succeeded by the best qualified person within the traditional ruling family. Since the authority is derived from hereditary or succession, a list of potential successors is identified before the incumbent dies. The topmost person on the list may not be as good as somebody in the number 4 or 5 positions. This problem of merit then prompted Weber to look for a more lasting and efficient authority.

Legal-Rational Authority: According to Weber, this authority rests "on a belief in the legality of patterns of normative rules and the right of those elevated to authority under such rules to issue commands."

Thus obedience under this system is owed to the legally established impersonal order which is rational in; character. "It extends to persons exercising the authority of office under it, only by virtue of the formal ^legality of their commands and only within the scope of authority of the office."

As observed by Shum Sun Nisa Ali, "This system is called 'rational' because, in it the means are expressly designed to achieve certain specific ends. It is 'legal' because authority is exercised by means of a system of rules and procedures."

According to Max Weber, the legal rational authority depends on the five related beliefs. These are summarised by Martin Albrow as follows:

i.   A legal code can be established which can claim obedience from members of the organisation.
ii. Administration looks after the interests of the organisation within the limits of law which is a system of abstract rules and are applied to particular cases,
iii. The man exercising authority also obeys this impersonal order.

iv.   That only qua member does the member obey the law.
v.   Finally, obedience is not to the person who holds authority but to the impersonal order which has appointed him to that position.

The authority is considered legal because it operates based on laid down principles, and it is rational because the principles are derived from scientific reasoning. The administrative staff member under the legal-rational authority system consists of the bureaucracy. In other words, bureaucracy forms the kernel of the administrative system under the legal-rational authority system-According to Weber, only the head of the bureaucratic organisation occupies his position by virtue of appropriation, by election or having been designated for succession (by merit). The whole administrative staff under the supreme authority (head of the organisation) then consists of appointed individual officials.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   What is the major difference between power and authority?
2.   Explain fully what is meant by "Legal-Rational Authority".

3.3   Characteristics of Bureaucracy

The ideal type of legal rational bureaucracy designed by Max Weber (in his book The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation which was translated by Talcott Parsons and A.M. Henderson in 1947) has the following characteristics:

i.   The bureaucrats are subject to authority only in official capacities and they are personally free.
ii.   They are organised in a clearly defined hierarchy of offices, that is, each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one.
iii.   Each office has a clearly defined sphere of competence in the legal sense. A specified sphere of competence involves:
       a.   A sphere of obligations to perform functions which has been marked off.
       b.   The provision of the incumbent with the necessary authority to carry out these functions.
       c.   That the necessary means of compulsion are clearly defined and their use is subject to definite conditions.
iv.   The office is filled by a free contractual relationship. Thus, in principle, there is free selection.
v.   The officials are selected on the basis of technical qualification. This is tested by examination or guaranteed by diplomas

certifying technical training or both. They are appointed, not elected,

vi. The officials are remunerated by fixed salaries and usually have the right to pensions. The official is always free to resign and his appointment can also be terminated by the employing authority under certain circumstances. The salary scale is primarily graded according to his rank in the hierarchy; but in addition to this criterion, the responsibility of the position and the requirements of the incumbent's social status may be taken into account.

vii. The office is treated as the sole (or at least the primary) occupation of the incumbent.

viii. It constitutes a career with system of promotion according to seniority or achievement, or both. Promotion is dependent on the judgment of superiors.

ix. The official works is entirely separated from the means of administration and without appropriation of his position.

x. He is subject to strict and systematic discipline and control in the conduct of the office.

Mohit Bhattacharya deduced a set of structural properties and another set of behavioural characteristic of bureaucracy from the Weberian formulation. The former includes

a. division of work,
b. hierarchy
c. system of rules, and
d. role specificity,

While the latter includes:

a. rationality,
b. impersonality.
c. rule-orientation, and
d. neutrality.

According to Weber, the purely bureaucratic type of administrative organisation (i.e. the monocratic variety of bureaucracy) is, from a purely technical point of view, capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency. Thus, it is the most rational known means of carrying out imperative control over human beings. It is superior to any other form of organisation in precision, stability, discipline and reliability. Thus,it make-possible a high degree of calculability of results for the heads of the organisation. It is also superior in intensive efficiency as well as in scope of its operations. It is capable of application to all kinds of administrative tasks. It is completely indispensable for the needs of

mass administration in modern times. He stated that the choice is only between bureaucracy and dilettantism in the field of administration." He also emphasised that the people once ruled by monocratic bureaucracy can never think of any other alternative form of organisation. To sum up, Weber stated that bureaucracy is most efficient, most rational, superior to any other, form, indispensable and permanent.

3.4   Control over Bureaucracy

Martin Albrow in his book Bureaucracy pointed out that Weber considered a number of mechanisms tc control the over-towering power position of bureaucracy. He identified the following five mechanisms in Weber's writings:

i.   Collegiality, that is, involvement of more than one person in decision making,
ii.   Separation of powers, that is, division of responsibility for the same function among more than one body
iii.   Amateur administration, that is, administration by unpaid persons who are not professionals,
iv.   Direct democracy,that is, placing the bureaucrats under the supervision and guidance of anassemble to ensure their accountability to the people.
v.   Representation, that is, control through elected representative bodies (assemblies or parliaments).

Among all the above five mechanisms, Weber favoured the last one (i.e. representation), as it facilitated the greatest possibility of check on bureaucracy.

According to Weber, the following factors are responsible for the rise of bureaucracy:

i.   Creation of money economy
ii.   Emergence of capitalist economy
iii.   Growth of democratic institutions
iv.   Emergence of complex administrative problems
v.   Development of modern means of communication
vi.   Growth of rationalism
vii.   Growth of population

3.5   Causes of Bureaucracy

The following factors and characteristics gave rise to bureaucratic process to modern organisation.

i.   **Size:** Bureaucratic characteristics e x i s t l a r g e l y in   large institutions and complex organisation, whose size has grown so big, where the whole activities become complex and cumbersome. It is a laid down facts that, there is a direct relationship between the size of an   organisation and its bureaucratic tendencies. The bigger and larger the size of an establishment, the more close its tendency   towards departmentation, division of work, rigidity and impartiality which are necessary and essential features of bureaucracy.

ii.   **Complexity:** - The complexity of modern state and the numerous services it has to render to the people called for an expert administration that can handle these diverse services simultaneously. Therefore, the public administration should make use of bureaucratic principle for effective running and maximum utilisationn of resources.

iii.   **Environmental Changes:** The world's dynamics and the ever growing changing in needs calls for the use of bureaucratic process so that efficiency can be fully realised in modern organisation.

iv.   **Technology:** - Modern science and technology can influence an organisation to employ and established the bureaucratic procedures. The need for effective means of realisation of goals propagated by modern science and the introduction of machines and computers, calls for the establishment of calculative precision i.e. rationality which is an essential element of bureaucracy. So, modern public administration should employ the bureaucratic principle in order to meet the challenges of modern science and technological advancement.

v.   **Strategy:** Better skills in managing the organisational objectives ways to the establishment of bureaucratic procedure to organisation. So bureaucracy can evolve from   the organisational plans and the need to accomplish the organisational objectives.

3.6   Merits and Demerits of Bureaucracy

Merits:

1.   **Simplification of Work:** The work of a complex nature can be simplified through division of labour or division of work into small units, component or department.

2.   **Specialisationn:** The division of work also encourages specialisationn in an organisation. Employees acquires skills and specialised on a task they repeat day- in-day out within the organisation.

3.   **Effective Means of Goals Realisation:** Through the structures and process of bureaucracy, the goal; of the organisation could be easily realise.

4.   **Encourages an Increase in Objectivity:** Impartial rigid rules and regulations foster objectiveness in most organisation.

Demerits:

1.   **Arbitrary Rules:-**Impartial applications of rigid rules may be to the detriment of some employees within an organisation. Some of the laid down rules may be too much stringent to the employee of an organisation.

2.   **No Room for Personal Growth:-** Use of official authority strictly does not allow personal growth of individual employee in an organisation.

3.   **Slowness to Adopt New Technology:** Stringent rigid rules make it difficult to change and sometime take long period to adopt new policies, thereby making it slow to adopt new technology.

4.   **Poor Communication:** As communication has to follow the hierarchical structures, it takes time to reach its final destination in an organisation.

3.7   Critics of Weber

Weber's bureaucratic model was criticised by subsequent social scientists on various grounds as follows:

i.   It was characterised as "machine theory" due to its over

concern with the formal structure of the organisation to the neglect of human dimension.

ii.   It was described as a "closed system model" as it did not take into account in detail the interaction between organisation and its environment.

iii.   It cannot function in an unstable environment (i.e. in changeling environmental conditions).

iv.   It is suitable for routine and repetitive jobs but not for jobs involving creativity and innovation.

3.5.1 Opinions of various critics of Weber

Talcott Parsons: He questioned the internal consistency of the ideal type of bureaucracy. To him, the two attributes of Weber's administrative staff, that is, professional expertise and the right to give orders, give rise io conflicts within the bureaucracy. This is because, it is impossible to ensure that high position in the hierarchy of authority will be matched by equivalent professional skill. This creates the problem of whom to obey.

Robert K. Mert&n: He argued (in his edited book *Reader in ^Bureaucracy)* that the adherence to the rules results in the "displacement of goals" whereby an instrumental value (means or rules) becomes a terminal value (ends). This develops into rigidity,formalism and ritualism. In other words, he questioned the rationality of the Weberian legal-rational model of bureaucracy as it also produces certain dysfunctional consequences. His phrase 'dysfunctional consequences' implies those consequences which are unexpected arid detrimental to the attainment of the organisational goals. He also opined that rigid rule orientation leads to 'trained incapacity',

Phttlip *Setznick;* He argued (in his book *TVA and the Grass Roots)* that decentralisation and delegation of authority results in departmentalisation and an increase in the bifurcation of interests among the sub-units, in the organisation. He says that the conflict between the goals of the sub-units and the organisation as a whole results in the "displacement of goals". He also criticised the Weberian model for its neglect of the power which a bureaucrat assumes whereby he becomes increasingly preoccupied with his own social position and in the end subverts the professed goals of the organisation by concentrating only on his own power position.

Alvin Gouldner: He opined (in his book *Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy)* that the promulgation of additional rules as a control mechanism produces tension between the managers and the .subordinates, leading to the displacement of organisational goals. He distinguished two major types of bureaucracy: punishment-centred bureaucracy in which the organisational members conform reluctantly to

the rules that they consider to be imposed on them by an alien group; and representative bureaucracy in which the members regard rules as necessary on technical grounds and in their own interests- He also classified bureaucrats into "cosmopolitans" and "locals".

Michel Crozier: He described (in his book *The Bureaucratic Phenomena—*1964) bureaucracy as a rigid "Organisation that cannot correct its behaviour by learning from its .errors",

Thorstein Veblen: He argued that the bureaucratic model due to its obsession with rules, engenders inability to cope with changing conditions. In other words, it socialises the officials incapable of dealing with nqW things. He described this as "trained incapacity".

He said that the officials in bureaucracy do the same type of work for a long period of time and thus develop some preferences and antipathies. He described this as "occupational psychosis". The same phenomenon was called as "professional deformation" by Warnotte,

Victor A. Thompson; He described the unintended consequences of bureaucracy as "bureaupafeology" (a disease of bureaucracy) and said that they are produced by "bureaupathic" behaviour.

Simon and Barnard: They said that Weber developed his thesis on *the* basis of structural approach. Hence, his model reduces administrative efficiency, which can be enhanced through informal relations and unofficial practices.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Bureaucracy is a term adopted by Max Weber to represent his ideal type of authority - the Legal Rational Authority. It is ideal because it takes care of the major shortcoming of the charismatic authority, which lacks continuity and it takes care of the shortcoming of the traditional authority which lacks adherence to the merit system in succession.

5.0   SUMMARY

According to Weber, bureaucracy unlike other organisational arrangements is a rational legal type of authority. The bureaucratic form of organisation, is distinguished by such structural   and behavoural characteristics like: *Division of Labour* which involves a specified sphere of competence; *Hierarchy* where there is a clear separation between superior and subordinate offices, i.e. each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one; Rules

showing that bureaucracy operates in accordance with a consistent system of abstract rules laid down regarding the performance of official jobs; *Rationality* indicating that bureaucracy is capable of attaining a higher degree of efficiency since the means used to achieve goals are rationally and objectively chosen towards the desired ends and personal whims of the leaders and traditional pressures are no longer effective in such a system; *Impersonality* where there is no place for personal whims, fancies or irrational sentiments. Official activity is conducted in a businesslike manner with a high degree of operational impersonality; *Rule Orientation* indicating that rationality and impersonality are mainly achieved through formulation of rules and procedures which clearly define official spheres of authority and conduct; *Neutrality* depicting bureaucracy as apolitical and neutral in its orientation but supporting the political regime it serves purely in administrative status.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Sharma, M. P. *et al*. (2012). *Public Administration in Theory and Practice*. New Delhi: Kitab Mahal.

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MODULE 3   NEO-CLASSICAL   OR   HUMAN RELATIONS THEORY

Unit 1   The Hawthorn Experiment and Other Contributors
Unit 2   Administrative Leadership Theory
Unit 3   Decision Making Theory
Unit 4   Communication Theory
Unit 5   Organisational Conflict

INTRODUCTION

The Human Relations Theory of organisation came into existence in 1930s as a reaction to the classical approach to organisational analysis. The classical thinkers like Taylor, Fayol, Gulick, Urwick and Weber stressed the formal structure of the organisation and neglected the role of human element in the organisation. In other words, they took a mechanistic view of the organisation and under-emphasised the sociological and psychological aspects of individual's behaviour in the organisation. It is this critical failure on the part of the classical approach which gave rise to the human relations approach. Human relations theory is also known as Humanistic Theory, Socio-Economic Theory and Neo-classical Theory.

The coming of the Human Relations school of Management Thought together with the Behavioural School led to the discovery of not only that there are human beings in organisations but also that they often behave in the most unpredictable ways. Hence the essence of the human relations theory lies in its primary emphasis on human beings, psychological motivations and informal group behaviour, in contradiction to the structuralisms' exclusive concern for principles of organisation. This theory or approach focuses on management as a web of interpersonal relationships. It lays greater stress on the behavour of role occupants in an organisation than on the formal structure of the organisation. The advocates of this school argue that since management and administration involve group effort and collective endeavours of people, the study of management must be centered on the individual as socio-psychological being and are more concerned with his motivations. They view human relations as the heart of the task of management; other equates management with leadership. The underlying emphasis of all these views is that the solution of the problems of management can be found in the realm of social psychology.

Most of the materials in this study unit are adopted from **Laxmikanth, M, (2011),** *Public Admiistration*, Tata McGraw Hill's Series, New Delhi

MODULE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the module you should be able to:

1. Get introduced to the Hawrton Experiment as a pioneer move towards the neoclassical theory of administration.
2. Be exposed to other major contributors like Chester Bernard, Chris Argyris, etc.
3. Be conversant with various administrative leadership theories.
4. Grab decision making techniques.
5. Master good communication practices
6. Understand the nature of organisational conflict and how to resolve it.

UNIT 1   THE HAWTHORN EXPERIMENT AND OTHER CONTRIBUTERS

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        3.8 Critical Evaluation
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1.0   INTROIDUCTION

The greatest single influence of the human relations theory came from the Hawthorn experiments which were carried out in the USA by Elton Mayo and his colleagues of the Harvard Business School in the late twenties and early thirties of this century. The findings were first published in management and the worker (F.J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson) in 1939. The Hawthorn studies carried out at the Western Electric Company in the USA is a historic landmark in organisational theory, since it helped to develop the Human Relations

School of Organisation. The immediate objective of the study was to measure the effect of improved lighting on workers' output, and the psychological and social problems of industrial workers.

The principal people involved in human relation era were Elton mayo- a psychologist and fritz poethlisberger- a sociologist. Others were willian dicksson, elliot jaques, Marry parker Follet etc. these individuals were primarily or more specifically the effects of working conditions on productivity.

Beginning in 1924 a series of experiments were at the Hawthorne Branch of the Western Electric Company in Cicero Illinois State of U.S. the experiment continued over several years lasting into the early 1930"s Elton Mayo has often been referred to as the founder of both human relations school and of industrial sociology.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

• identify Elton Mayo as the father of human relations theory.
• describe fully the lessons in the Hawthorne Studies
• appreciate the ideas of Mary Parker Follett and C.I. Barnard
• enumerate the Elements or Features of Human Relations Theory
• compare and contrast Classical and Human Relations theories

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Elton Mayo 1880 - 1949

Elton mayo was a psychologist,a philosopher, an Australian by birth, trained as a medical student but left it and followed his interest in psychology and philosophy. He joined the staff of Harvard University in 1926 in U.S. and eventually becoming a professor of industrial Research at Harvard Graduate School of Business Studies. His interest has primarily been in the peoples in organisation.

Elton Mayo, is regarded as the 'father of human relations theory'. He concentrated on the study of workers' behaviour and the production capacity, taking into consideration physiological, physical, economic, social and psychological aspects. He called this approach as "clinical method".

Elton Mayo's major works are: The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilisation (1933), The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilisation (1945), and The Political Problems of an Industrial Civilisation (1947).

The other writers who contributed to the growth of human relations theory includes F.J. Roethlisberger, William J. Dickson, T. North Whitehead, W. Lloyd, E. Warner and LJ. Henderson.

3.1.1 Mayo's Most Famous Early Experiment – The Mule Spinning Enquiry

He undertook the first research programme in 1923 and 24 in a textile mill near Philadelphia and named it "The First Enquiry". Its purpose was to identify the cause of high labour turnover in the Mule Spinning Department. Turnover in other departments was between 5 and 6% a year but as high as 250% in the Mule Spinning Department. Why so? He asked. Mule is a spinning machine in the textile industry.

Mayo decided to introduce two minute rest periods, one in the morning and two more in the afternoon for one of the groups in the department with astounding result. Morals improved, high turnover ended, and production, despite the work breaks, remained the same. Soon the entire department (i.e. all the groups in the department) were included in the rest period experiment, and output increased tremendously. Monthly productivity, which had never been above 70%, rose over the next five months to an overall average of 80%, and with this increase came bonus pay, which was given for productivity over 75% Mayo felt that it was the systematic introduction of the rest periods which helped to overcome physical fatigue leading to the high morale, high productive, and virtual elimination of labour turnover.

In a nutshell, like most of his colleague mayo's initial interests were in fatigue, working conditions, rest periods, accident and labour turnover. Also paramount in his research was the importance of group in affecting the behaviour of individuals at work which enabled him to make certain deductions about what managers ought to do.

After this pioneering work of Mayo came the Hawthorn studied of which Mayo himself was one of the experimental with others, although Mayo was not the originator of the Hawthorn studies or even one of the chief researchers. He only joined the Harvard University industrial research faculty in 1926. He then conducted the Hawthorne Experiment together with the Harvard associates.

3.2   The Hawthorne Studies (1924-1932)

The Hawthorne studies formed the basis for the rise of human relations theory. These studies shook the foundations of classical approach, that is, the concept of economic man and the role of the structure of formal organisation.

These studies were conducted in the Western Electric Company at Hawthorne (near Chicago—USA) by the Harvard Business School under the leadership of Elton Mayo. The studies were conducted in the following four phases.

i.   Illumination Experiment, (1924—27), to determine the effect of different levels of illumination on workers' productivity.

In this experiment, some workers were placed under different light intensities starting with high light in their working place. The workers increased their output. The light intensity was adjusted downwards at different stages of the experiment but productivity continued to increase. The experimenters were baffled to get result contrary to their expectation. The workers productivity reduced only when the light was reduced to moonlight level. This indicated that there is no much correlation between lighting and productivity. The workers output continued to be high despite the reduction of the light intensity until it reached moonlight level. The indication, here, is that the workers were motivated psychologically by their being specialised for an experiment among others.

ii.   Relay Assembly Test Room Experiment (1927), to observe the effects of various changes in working conditions on the workers' output and morale,

In this experiment, some female workers (experimental group) were isolated from the rest (control group) and placed under observation with special good working conditions. Their level of productivity under diverse working conditions was carefully measured. But under all physical changes in their work environment (like less or more room lighting, rest pauses in work etc), the production by these girls showed a continually upward rise. This proved that there was no positive correlation between the working conditions and productivity, invalidating another Taylorian dictum, and this greatly puzzled the researchers. However, the reason for the behaviour of the female workers seemed hardly surprising on further analysis.

The girls were conscious of the fact that they had been selected for a special experiment. Hence, it was little wonder that they tried to give their best performance.

iii.   Mass Interviewing programme (1928-31), to explore the employees' feelings (i.e. human attitudes and sentiments) by talking to them (ventilation therapy).

iv.   Bank Wiring Experiment (1931-32), to understand better how the norms that controlled each member's output, were established by the worker's social group (informal organisation).

In this experiment workers operating under a piece-rate system were observed to see whether higher wages motivated them to work more. The group established their own norms and set their own standards of performance different from that of their organisation. A high performing worker was named a *Rate Buster*, a low performing worker was named *Chiseller* and the worker who carried information of workers to management was named *Squealer*.

The researchers were considerably surprised to find that the workers worked to a point they felt would ensure them of an adequate income, and then refused to work more, thus giving a lie to a well-known Taylorian principle. The main reason for this unexpected behaviour was the underlying fears that overproduction may lead to retrenchment, a situation which any of them might have to face. The researchers discovered that the workers were a well-knit social group who were governed by their own code of work ethics informally agreed to by all members.

The above are explained in the Management and the Worker published in 1939 by Roethlisberger and Dickson. The conclusions of the Hawthorne studies are:

i.   The social and psychological factors at the workplace, and not the physical conditions of work, determine the employees' morale and output. This is the most important finding.
ii.   The organisation is a social system.
iii.   Non-economic rewards and sanctions significantly affect the workers' behaviour, morale and output.
iv.   Workers are not inert or isolated, unrelated individuals; they are social animals.
v.   Division of labour strictly on specialisation is not necessarily the most efficient approach.
vi.   The workers have a tendency to form small social groups   (informal organisations). The production norms and

      behavioural patterns are set by such groups.

vii.   Workers react to management as members of the informal work groups rather than as individuals,

viii.   Leadership, style of supervision, communication and participation play a central role in workers' behaviour, satisfaction and productivity.

Thus, the findings of Hawthorne studies were highly startling and revolutionised the organisational thought. They gave rise to a new theory called Human Relations Theory.

The Hawthorne experiments proved that men are not atomistic or voluntarisitc creatures, but are motivated by a variety of factors (not purely economic) in work, and are influenced by their social environment. These studies proved that organisations are social systems comprising thinking and acting individual. If further disclosed the tendency of workers to form small informal social groups with their own code of ethics and conduct in matters of work, behavour, beliefs and goals which may be often different from the goals of management and the stated objectives of the organisation.

The human relations theory of organisation considers the informal, day-to-day functioning of the structure of an organisation more revealing than the mechanistic study of structure and principles of organisation. It assumes that the study of organisational behavour is a very complex process which has to take into account, both the economic and the non-economic variables. For a realistic analysis of workers' behavour, all the factors motivating them have to be studied.

3.3   Ideas of Mary Parker Follett

Follett (1868-1933) is regarded as a bridge between the classical approach and the behavioural-human relations approach to organisation. Unlike other contemporary theorists, she viewed organisation as a social system and administration as a social process. She highlighted, for the first time, the sociological and psychological dimensions of administration and management. She brought out the human dimension of organisation and pointed out the role of situational factors on organisational behaviour. Hence, Follett is looked at as the precursor (forerunner) of the behavioural-human relations approach to organisational analysis. Danial A Wren says that, "Chronologically, she belonged to the scientific management era and philosophically social man era' As a classical thinker she believed in the universality of her principles of organisation and as a behaiouralist- human relationist, she emphasised the significance of socio-psychological aspects of

organisational behaviour. Urwick and Matcalf observed, "her conceptions were in advance of her time. They are still in advance of current thinking. But they are a goldmine of suggestions for anyone who is interested in the problems of establishing and maintaining human cooperation in the conduct of an enterprise." Folett criticised the classical theory of administration mainly for its mechanical approach and for neglecting psychological dimensions of organisational behaviour. Her major works include:

i.   *The Speaker of the House of Representatives (1896)*
ii.   *The New State (1920)*
iii.   *Creative Experience (1924)*
iv.   *Dynamic Administration (1941).*

The various concepts and principles enunciated by Follett can be discussed under the following heads:

3.3.1 Conflict and Integration

To Follett, conflicts in organisations are inevitable due to individual differences. Conflict is not warfare but is only an appearance of difference of opinions and interests among different categories of people in the organisation. Hence, conflicts should be conceived as not wasteful and harmful but as a normal process and should be handled in a constructive way.

Thus, Follett propounded the concept of 'constructive conflict'. This constitutes a positive approach to the resolution of conflict in order to realise organisational goals.

Ways of Resolving Conflict
Follet suggested three ways for resolving conflict in the organisation, viz.,
i.   Domination—Victory of one side over the other.
ii.   Compromise—Both sides surrendering some part of what they want.
iii.   Integration—Finding a new solution which satisfies the 'real needs' of both sides and neither side sacrifices anything.

Merits of Integration
Of the three, Follett considered integration as the best way of resolving conflict due to its merits, viz.,

i.   It resolves once and for all the original conflict as it goes to the root of the problem.
ii.   It makes use of better techniques and saves time and resources.

iii.   It leads to the emergence of new values and develops a new situation.

Steps for Achieving Integration
Follett also suggested the various steps in the achievement of integration. They, in order, are:

i.   each side should recognise for itself as to what its real needs are and bring the differences into the open
ii.   breaking down whole demands into their constituent parts,
iii.   examining the real meaning of symbols
iv.   preparation for the response of the other side.

Obstacles to Integration
Integration, though the most satisfying way to end conflicts, is not the easiest way. There are, according to Follett, several obstacles to it, viz.,

i.   it requires a high degree of intelligence, keen perception and discrimination and a brilliant inventiveness which are rare among administrators,
ii.   most people are habituated to enjoy domination over others,
iii.   people theorise instead of suggesting active steps,
iv.   obsession of managers with power and most of them try to get power-over,
v.   language used which arouses antagonism,
vi.   people are not trained in making integrations—the most important obstacle integration.

3.3.2 The Giving of Orders

Like Taylor, Fayol, Gulick, Urwick and other classical thinkers, Follett also accepted the need for giving orders in the organisation. In fact, she even suggested the four steps in giving of orders:

i.   a conscious attitude—to know the different principles which underline giving orders.
ii.   a responsible attitude—to identify those principles which should become the basis of giving ore,
iii.   an experimental attitude—to make experiments to analyse the success or failure of orders,
iv.   a result attitude—to pool the results to change the extent and manner of giving orders if the existing methods are found insufficient.

To Follett, giving of orders is not a simple affair as people resent being bossed over. Hence, the job of a superior is not merely giving orders; he should learn to manipulate subordinates so that they accept orders without questioning. Habit patterns, mental attitudes, time, place and circumstances are important variables governing both giving and receiving of orders.

To Follett, one should avoid the two extremes, that is, too much of bossism in giving orders and practically not giving orders at all. The answer to this problem lies, according to Follet, in depersonalising the giving of orders. In her words, "My solution is to depersonalise the giving of orders, to unite all concerned in a study of the situation, to discover the law of the situation and obey that". This way nobody gives orders to anybody. Both accept the orders given by the situation. Order, therefore, should come from action and not action from orders. This is 'depersonalisation of orders' or exercise of authority of the situation.

Though Follett's depersonalisation of orders is not different from the mechanisitic approach of classical theorists, she differed from them by highlighting the human dimension of administration. To resolve this paradox, Follett talked of 'repersonalising'.

3.3.3 New Concept of Power

According to Follett, power is "the ability to make things happen, to be a casual agent, to initiate change." She distinguished between 'power-over and 'power-with'. Power-over is less advantageous than power-with. It means asserting oneself and forcing another to do one's will. It leads to resentment and reaction. However, it can not be get rid of and hence should be reduced. The ways of reducing power-over, according to Follett are:

i.   The use of integration (the solution that meets the real needs of both sides).
ii.   The correct use of circular behaviour.
iii.   The use of the law of the situation.

Follett said that a superior does not share power with his immediate subordinates. But he can give them opportunities for developing their powers. He can encourage them to integrate their activities so as to achieve 'jointly developed power'. In this way, power- with leads to more power than power-over.

Power-with is more advantageous than power-over. It is a self-developing entity. It encourages cooperative effort, promotes superior

understanding and reduces conflict. Power-over is an independent power which is used only for the benefit of the individual or group using it. Power-with or joint-power arises when two individuals or groups pool their power to arrive at a settlement satisfactory to both. In brief, power-over is a coercive-ower while power-with is jointly developed coactive-power. Follett argued that power-with must replace power-over.

3.3.4 Authority and Responsibility

As in the case of power, here also Follett made a radical departure from the classical administrative thought and developed new concepts of authority and responsibility.

Follett made a distinction between power and authority. She defined authority as vested power, the right to develop and exercise power. Authority is derived from the function or the job performed and not from the position held. In other words, "authority belongs to the job and stays with the job". Hence, one who does the job must have the authority whether the superior likes it or not. As authority belongs to the function (job), it cannot be delegated. The term 'delegation of authority' is thus an. 'obsolete expression'. She asserted, "Authority must be functional and functional authority carries with it responsft)ility." She, therefore, advocated the idea of 'functional authority' or 'pluralistic authority' or 'cumulative authority' and rejected the idea of final (ultimate) authority' as an illusion. The real authority in the organisation is the sum of all the smaller authorities as authority is interwoven at various levels of the organisation.

Responsibility, like authority, is an attribute of the function and situation in the organisation, Follett said, it is a question of "for what is one responsible" rather than "to whom is one responsible". She, therefore, advocated the idea of 'functional responsibility' or 'pluralistic responsibility' or 'cumulative responsibility or group responsibility' and rejected the idea of 'final responsibility' as an illusion. Pluralistic responsibility connotes two things: one, lower level executives' participation in policy-formulation, and two, workers' participation in management.

With regard to her ideas on 'control' also, Follett differed from Taylor, Fayol, Gulick, Urwick and other theorists. She advocated 'correlated-control' rather than 'super-imposed control' and 'fact-control' rather than 'man-control'. Thus, control in the organisation is cumulative and pluralistic and not concentrated at the top level.

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3.3.5 Leadership

According to Follett, a leader is not the head of the department or president of the organisation, but one "who can see all around a situation, who sees it as related to certain purposes and policies, who sees it evolving into the next situation, who understands how to pass from one situation to another." He is "the man who can show that the order is integral to the situation," Follett stated that such people are found not only at the top but throughout the organisation.

Follett opined that the leader not only influences his group but is also influenced by it. She called this reciprocal relationship as 'circular response'. Further, the leader must also be influenced by the experts within the organisation. Finally, the function of the leader is to create group power (power-with) rather than to exercise personal power (power-over).

Follett distinguished between the following three types of leadership:

i.   Leadership of position—the leader holds a position of formal authority.
ii.   Leadership of personality—the leader holds forceful personal qualities,
iii   Leadership of function—the leader holds both position and personality.

Follett said that only those people, who possess functional knowledge, lead in the modern organisations and not those who possess formal position or forceful personality. She viewed that for the successful operation of an organisation, it must be "sufficiently flexible to allow the leadership of function to operate fully—to allow the men with the knowledge and the technique to control the situation." According to Follett, the functions of leadership are;

i.   Coordination—to integrate different parts and weld them into effective unity.
ii.   Definition of purpose—to clearly set the pattern and objectives of the organisation.
iii.   Anticipation—to have insight into and faith in the future. It is 'making' the next situation and not only 'meeting' the next situation.
iv.   To organise the experience of the group, make it all available and most effectively available and transform it into group-power.
v.   To develop leadership among the subordinates, a leader should teach and train his subordinates how to control a situation themselves.

Follett believed that, leaders are not only born but can be made. She rejected the so-called 'intangible capacity' of leader and asserted that leadership can be learned.

3.3.6   Planning and Coordination

Follett established a close nexus between planning and coordination. In fact, coordination as a principle of planning figured prominently in her-work. She felt that the central planning imposed from the national level over the local level is doomed to failure due to lack of coordination, that is, "harmonious ordering of parts". Hence, central planning should be a mechanism to facilitate the coordinating process. She postulated four fundamental principles of coordination.

(i)   *Coordination by Direct Contact:* The responsible people should be in direct contact with one another regardless of their position in the organisational ladder. Horizontal Communication is as important as vertical chain of command in achieveing coordination.

(ii)   *Coordination in the Early Stages:* The people concerned should be involved in the policy-making stage itself rather than at the later stage of implementation. Such an early participation results in increased motivation and higher morale. This vital principle is largely ignored in the central planning.

iii.   *Coordination as a Continuing Process:* Follett viewed coordination as a continuous process, is, from planning to activity, and from activity to further planning. There should be a permanent lination machinery to solve the problems in a rational manner.

iv.   *Coordination as the Reciprocal Phenomena:* Coordination as the reciprocal relating to factors in a situation indicates its process. All factors should be related to one another and the inter-relationships among themselves should be considered. Thus Follett regarded an organisation as a system of inter-related parts.

Follett stressed that these four principles should be underpinned by information based on continuous research.

3.4   Ideas of C.I. Barnard

Chester Irving Barnard (1886-1961) further developed the line of thought initiated by M.P. Follett. He also conceived organisation as a

social system. He is regarded as the spiritual father of the social system school.

Barnard is considered as one of the pioneers of the behavioural movement in public administration. In fact he is the first full-blown behaviouralist. He emphasised on the socio-psychological aspects of administration and management. To him, administration is a cooperative social action.

The ideas of Barnard influenced the decision-making theory of Herbert Simon; the new human relations of Chris Argyris, Rensis Likert and Douglas McGregor; the motivation theories of Abraham Maslow and Fredrick Herzberg; the institutionalist model of Philip Selznick; and systems approach to organisational analysis.

Barnard's contribution to the understanding of organisational behaviour is one of the significant landmarks in the evolution of administrative thought. His works include The Functions of the Executive (1938) and Organisation and Management (1948).

The various concepts and principles enunciated by Barnard are explained below:

3.4.1 Formal Organisation as a Cooperative System

Barnard defined an organisation as a "system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons." He stated that an organisation comes when people are able to communicate with each other, and willing to cooperate with each other to accomplish a common purpose. Thus, the organisation, according to Barnard, has three elements, i.Communication, (ii) Willingness to cooperate (to serve), and (iii) Common purpose (objective).

3.4.2 Informal Organisation as a Natural System

Barnard defined informal organisation as, "the aggregate of the personal contacts and interactions and the associate groupings of people." He believed that informal organisations are natural systems and give rise to formal organisations (which are artificial systems). Both the organisations necessarily coexist. Formal organisations, according to Barnard, -are vitalised and conditioned by informal organisations which perform three functions.

i.   The communication of intangible facts, opinions, suggestions, suspicions that cannot pass through channels without raising issues.

ii.   Maintaining the cohesiveness (socio-psychological integration) of the organisation by regulating the willingness to serve and the stability of objective authority.

iii.   Maintenance of the feeling of personal integrity, self-respect and independent choice. Barnard regarded informal organisation as "a means of maintaining the personality of individuals against certain effects of formal organisation which tend to disintegrate the personality."

3.4.3 Theory of Contribution-Satisfaction Equilibrium

According to Barnard, survival of an organisation depends on the maintenance of an equilibrium between the contributions and the satisfactions of its participants. The contributions are provided by the participants to the organisation, while satisfaction is provided by the organisation to the participants. He pointed out that the individual participant would remain in the organisation only when his inducements outweighed his contribution (in terms of his personal satisfaction). In other words, the organisation survives so long as it has the capacity to offer .effective inducements in sufficient quantities to maintain the equilibrium of the system.

Thus, Barnard rejected the classical economic man concept and broadly agreed with the human relationists with regard to motivation of people in the organisation. He traced the sources of satisfaction to four specific inducements, viz.

(i)   Material inducements such as money
(ii)   Personal non-material opportunities for distinction. *
(iii)   Desirable physical conditions of work
(iv)   Ideal benefactions, such as pride of workmanship, and so on.

However, Barnard said that "material rewards are ineffective beyond the subsistance level." He also pointed out four types of 'general incentives'. They are:

(i)   Associated attractiveness based upon compatibility with associates
(ii)   The adaptation of working conditions to habitual methods and attitudes
(iii)   The opportunity for the feeling of enlarged participation in the course of events

(iv)   The conditions for communicating with others, a condition based on personal comfort in social relations.

3.4.4 Acceptance Theory of Authority

Barnard rejected the traditional (classical or positional or formal theory of authority advocated by Weber and Fayol. He advocated the acceptance theory of authority. According to this theory, the basis of legitimacy of the superior's authority is the "acceptance" of it by the subordinate. Thus, the superior can exercise authority only when it is accepted by the subordinate. Barnard defined authority as "the character of a communication (order) in a formal organisation by virtue of which it is accepted by a contributor or member of the organisation as governing or determining what he does or is not to do so far as the organisation is concerned."

Barnard stated that a subordinate will accept a communication as authoritative only when the following four conditions occur simultaneously.

(i)   When he understands the communication (i.e. intelligibility)
(ii)   When the communication is not inconsistent with the purpose of the organisation.
(iii)   When the communication is compatible with his personal interest as a whole
(iv)   When he is able to mentally and physically comply with the communication (i.e. feasibility)

The acceptance of authority, according to Barnard, is facilitated by the *zone of indifference* of individual participant of the organisation. He said that the orders will be accepted by the subordinate so long as they fall within this zone. Hence, the executives should issue only those orders which fall within this zone. The externt of the zone of indifference is determined by the contribution—satisfaction equilibrium.

3.4.5 Principles of Communication

Barnard suggested seven principles of communication which is important in establishing and maintaining objective authority in an organisation, viz.

(i)   The channels of communication should be definite.
(ii)   Everyone in the organisation must have a definite formal channel of communication.
(iii)   The line of communication must be as direct and short as possible.

(iv)   The competence of persons serving as communication centres should be adequate.
(v)   The complete formal line of communication must usually be used.
(vi)   The line of communication must not be interrupted while the organisation is functioning.
(vii)   Every communication must be authenticated.

3.4.6 Strategic Factors in Decision-making

Barnard made a significant contribution to the theory of decision-making. He emphasised organisational decision-making rather than individual decision-making. The former is a result of deliberation, calculation and thought, while the latter is a result of sub-conscious, automotive and responsive factors. Thus, decisions made by organisations are more logical and rational than personal decisions made by an individual.

Barnard stated that a decision maker should distinguish relevant facts (parts) affecting the fulfillment of organisation's purpose from those which are irrelevant or hostile. This requires search (determination) of strategic factors by analysing situations. These factors should be controlled or modified as they influence the organisational decision-making.

3.4.7 Executive Functions

Barnard observed, "functions of executives relate to all the work essential to the vitality and endurance of an organisation so far at least as it must be accomplished through formal coordination. Executive work is not that of the organisation, but it is the specialised work of maintaining the organisation in operation". He regarded the following three as the essential functions of the executive.

(i)   Establishing and maintaining the system of communication in the organisation.
(ii)   Securing essential efforts and services from subordinates by motivating them to exert themselves for the organisation's purpose,
(iii)   Formulating and defining purposes and objectives.

3.5   Elements/Features of Human Relations Theory

Human Relations Theory of organisation has three elements:

i.   The Individual,
ii.   Informal Organisation,
iii.   Participative Management.

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The Individual: The theory recognises the importance of emotions and perceptions of individuals. The level of workers' production and organisational output is determined by the human relations at work rather than the physical and economic conditions of work. According to Roethlisberger, "Each person is unique. Each is bringing to the job situation certain attitudes, beliefs and ways of life, as well as certain skills — technical, social, and logical. In terms of his previous experience, each person has certain hopes and expectations of his job situation."

Informal Organisation: The human relations theory emphasises the informal organisation. As observed by Hicks and Gullet, "The informal shadow organisation that exists within the structure of the formal organisation is emphasised. Attention is focussed on the social aspects of man whose overriding need is seen as a desire to belong, to be accepted by and stand well in his work group".

L.D. White defined an informal organisation as "the set of work relationships that grow out of mutual interactions of persons working together over a long period of time." The points of distinction between informal and formal organisation are:

i.   Informal organisation is customary while formal organisation is enacted.
ii.   Informal organisation is not written and is not subject to neat diagrams while formal organisation is written, manualised and portrayed in organisational charts.
iii.   Informal organisation .tends to be emotional and personal while a formal organisation tends to be rational and impersonal
iv.   Informal organisation is spontaneous and societal while formal organisation is planned and legal.

The informal organisation plays a significant role in determining the organisational efficiency. It sets the production norms and behavioural patterns as found in the Bank Wiring Experiment (1931-32). These are:

i.   One should not turn out too much work. If one does, one is a "rate-buster".
ii.   One should not turn out too little work. If one does, one is a "chiseler."
iii.   One should not tell a supervisor anything that will react to the detriment of an associate. If one does, one is a "squealer."
iv.   One should not attempt to maintain social distance or act officious. For example, an inspector should not act like one.

Thus human relations theory highlighted the effects of work groups on workers' motivation, satisfaction and productivity. Mayo remarked that man's social situation in his work group ranked first and the work was incidental. Thus, he rejected the David Ricardo's rabble hypothesis which assumes mankind as a horde of unorganised individuals actuated purely by self-interest.

Roethlisberger observed, "Too often we try to solve human problems with non-human tools and in terms of non-human data. It is my simple thesis that a human problem requires a human solution. A human problem to be brought to a human solution requires human data and human tools. Workers are not isolated, unrelated individuals; they are social animals and should be treated as such."

Participative Management: The human relations theory advocates the style of participative management, that is, participation of workers in decision-making with regard to their work conditions. In other words, the manager should consult the work groups and their informal leaders before introducing a change of programme (work schedule). This style of management has the following merits:

i.   It permits the workers to discuss with supervisors and influence the decisions that affect them.
ii.   It develops a sense of participation in the group.
iii.   It results in higher productivity,
iv.   It makes the working environment more pleasant,
v.   It prevents the alienation of workers from management,
vi.   It facilitates the acceptance of organisational goals by the workers.

The human relationists advocacy of participative management is in direct contrast to scientific management of F. W. Taylor.

3.6   Classical Vs. Human Relations

The human relations theory has not rejected or dismissed the classical theory totally. It highlighted the critical gaps in the classical approach and modified and extended certain classical concepts. However, it has rejected the two concepts advocated by the classical theory, viz. .the concept of economic man and formal institutionalisation.

The human relationists, like the classical thinkers (traditionalists) have accepted efficiency and productivity as legitimate values of the organisation as well as the role of management in production. As rightly observed by Mohit Bhattacharya, "They differed from the traditionalists in their basic approach to the organisation which

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they characterised as a social system consisting of individuals, informal groups and inter- group relationships in addition to the formal structure."

The specific *differences between the classical theory and the human relations theory* are summarised as follows:

Classical Theory

1. Emphasises the formal organisation structure
2. Views organisation as a rational and impersonal system.
3. Advocates 'economic man' view of workers.
4. Emphasises the physiological and mechanical aspects of organisation.
5. Believes that organisational behaviour is a product of rules and regulations made by the management.
6. Assumes that people are homogeneous.
7. Emphasises authoritarian style of supervision.
8. Takes the atomistic view of man.
9. States that organisational efficiency depends on the Structure built according to principles.
10. Focusses on the physical environment of the job.

Human Relations Theory

1. Emphasises the informal organisation.
2. Views organisation as an emotional and social system,
3. Advocates 'social man' view of workers.
4. Emphasises the sociological and psychological aspects of organisation.
5. Believes that organisational behaviour is a product of attitudes, sentiments and feelings of employees.
6. Assumes that people are heterogeneous.
7. Emphasises democratic style of supervision.
8. Takes the "social view" of man.
9. States that organisational efficiency depends on the human relations and workers' satisfaction and morale.
10. Focusses on the social environment of the job.

3.7   Taylor Vs. Mayo

Taylor belonged to the scientific management school and Mayo belonged to the human relations school. Mayo's human relations theory emerged mainly out of a set of extended studies (Hawthorne Experiments) in the scientific managemeir traditions of Taylor. He differed from Taylor in his conception of man, focus, orientation,

philosophy, motivational assumptions, and emphasis and so on. These differences are clearly shown as follows:

Taylor

1.   He propounded the concept of economic man.
2.   He viewed workers as isolated and unrelated individuals.
3.   He focused on tools, procedures and rules, that is, physiological and mechanical dimensions.
4.   He advocated autocratic management.
5.   He assumed the organisational man to be rational and logical.
6.   He was concerned with the motivation of the workers only.
7.   He advocated the monistic theory of motivation.
8.   His main concern was to find one best way of doing tasks.
9.   He viewed workers' group as being totally hostile to management.
10.   He stressed on technical skills.
11.   He subscribed to 'rabble hypothesis' (a passive view of man).

Mayo

1.   He propounded the concept of social man.
2.   He viewed workers as social animals.
3.   He focused on people and groups, that is, sociological and psychological dimensions.
4.   He advocated participative management,
5.   He assumed the organisational man to be social and emotional.
6.   He was concerned with the motivation of both managers (employers) as well as workers.
7.   He advocated the socio-economic theory of motivation-
8.   His main concern was the workers' satisfaction and morale.
9.   He did not view workers' group as being hostile to management.
10.   He stressed on social skills.
11.   He rejected 'rabble hypothesis' and subscribed to 'herd hypothesis'.

However, despite the above differences, Taylor and Mayo had the following similarities:

1.   Both attempted to discover the causes of low productivity in the industry.
2.   Both believed that harmony and co-operation between workers and management would eliminate the industrial conflicts.
3.   Both held that the mistaken view of workers and employers was responsible for the output restrictions (low productivity) of the workers.

4.   Both emphasised that the approach of managment should be scientific.
5.   Both regarded efficiency and economy as the goals of an organisation.
6.   Both opposed the industrial conflicts as they obstructed the efficient functioning of organisations.
7.   Both were motivated to improve the industrial productivity.

3.8   Critical Evaluation

The Hawthorne studies and human relations theory have made a landmark contribution to the evolution of administrative thought. Its significance lies in discovering and emphasising the informal organisations groups) which exists in all organisations and facilitate team work and collaboration.

Mayo and his human relations theory were criticised on the following grounds.

i.   Alex Carey criticised the Hawthorne experiments for their lack of scientific base as well as for selecting an unreliable small sample of five or six girls to generalise.
ii.   The critics say that the behaviour of workers during the experiments was not natural but was influenced by their feelings of importance, attention and publicity they received in the research setting. This is known as Hawthorne Effect, that is, workers react positively and give their best when they know that they are being observed.
iii.   Loren Baritz criticised human relationists as pro-management and anti-union. The United Auto workers described them as "cow sociologists".
iv.   Amitai Etzioni remarked that "the human relations people tend to devote much attention to informal relations among workers and between workers and supervisors, but little to the formal ones or at the articulation of formal relationships with informal ones."
v.   Peter F. Drucker said that the human relationists neglected the nature of work and instead focused on interpersonal relations. He criticised them for not being aware of economic dimensions.
vi.   Bendics and Fisher said that Mayo failed to define sharply the ethical pre- suppositions of his scientific
vii.   Daniel Sell said that the Harvard Group's methodology was defective,
viii.   Critics say that there was no place for tensions and conflicts in the philosophy of Mayo.
ix.   Critics say that the human relations theory (Mayoism) could

not explore the multi-dimensional phenomenon of human motivation completely,

x.   The Marxists say that Mayoism is a new technique to exploit workers as it has deemphasised economic factors.

xi.   Critics say that Mayo concentrated more on the members of the organisation and neglected its work and purpose.

xii. The theory is criticised on the ground that it ignored the environmental factors of workers' attitude and behaviour.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Human Relations Theory and environmental factors of workers' attitude and behaviour. You have learnt that Taylor belonged to the scientific management school and Mayo belonged to the human relations school. Mayo's human relations theory emerged mainly out of a set of extended studies (Hawthorne Experiments) in the scientific management traditions of Taylor.

5.0   SUMMARY

Elton Mayo 1880 - 1949, is regarded as the 'father of human relations theory'. He concentrated on the study of workers' behaviour and the production capacity, taking into consideration physiological, physical, economic, social and psychological aspects. He called this approach as "clinical method".

He undertook the first research programme in 1923 and 24 in a textile mill near Philadelphia and named it "The First Enquiry" in which he was able to reduce the high rate of labour turnover with improved production and pay for workers.

After this pioneering work of Mayo, came the Hawthorn studied of which Mayo himself was one of the experimental with others. The Hawthorne Studies (1924-1932) formed the basis for the rise of human relations theory and it shook the foundations of classical approach, that is, the concept of economic man and the role of the structure of formal organisation.

The studies include: (i). The Illumination Experiment (1924—27) to determine the effect of different levels of illumination on workers' productivity; (ii). The Relay Assembly Test Room Experiment (1927), to observe the effects of various changes in working conditions on the workers' output and morale; (iii). The Mass Interviewing programme (1928-31), to explore the employees' feelings (i.e. human attitudes and sentiments) by talking to them (ventilation therapy); (iv).

Bank Wiring Experiment (1931-32), to understand better how the norms that controlled each member's output, were established by the worker's social group (informal organisation).

The Hawthorne experiments proved that men are not atomistic or voluntarisitc creatures, but are motivated by a variety of factors (not purely economic) in work, and are influenced by their social environment.

Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933) is regarded as a bridge between the classical approach and the behavioural-human relations approach to organisation. She made great contributions in Conflict and Integration; The Giving of Orders; New Concept of Power; Authority and Responsibility; Leadership and Planning and Coordination

Chester Irving Barnard (1886-1961) further developed the line of thought initiated by M.P. Follett. He also conceived organisation as a social system. He is regarded as the spiritual father of the social system school.

Barnard is considered as one of the pioneers of the behavioural movement in public administration. His main areas of contribution include Formal Organisation as a Cooperative System; Informal Organisation as a Natural System; Theory of Contribution- Satisfaction Equilibrium; Acceptance Theory of Authority; Principles of Communication; Strategic Factors in Decision-making and Executive Functions

Human Relations Theory of organisation has three elements namely:

i.   The Individual,
ii.   Informal Organisation and
iii.   Participative Management.

The human relations theory has not rejected or dismissed the classical theory totally. It highlighted the critical gaps in the classical approach and modified and extended certain classical concepts. However, it has rejected the two concepts advocated by the classical theory, viz. the concept of economic man and formal institutionalisation.

We noticed in this study unit that both the Hawthorne studies and human relations theory have made a landmark contribution to the evolution of administrative thought. Its significance lies in discovering and emphasising the informal organisations groups) which exists in all organisations and facilitate team work and collabouration.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Social and psychological factors at the workplace determine employees' morale and output more than physical conditions of work. Discuss.

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

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