Lesson-01

INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

1.0 Objective:
1. Student would be able to know Public Administration and can able to define it.
2. Student would be able to understand views on managerial activities.
3. Student would be able to learn significance of Public Administration and Public Administration in Developing Countries.

Structure:

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1.1 Introduction:

Public Administration consists of the activities undertaken by the Government to look after its people or to manage its affairs. The concept of Public Administration, seems pertinent to understand the meaning of the terms “public” and “administration” separately.

The word “public” stands for the people of a definite territory or state. As the will of the people of a state is represented by the government, the word “public” also connotes a specialized meaning, i.e., governmental. The English word “administer” is derived from the Latin words “ad” and “Ministrare” which means “To Serve”. Thus, in simple words
“administration” means the “management of affairs” or looking after the people. Woodrow Wilson is regarded as the father of the discipline of Public Administration.

1.2 Public Administration: Meaning:

Public Administration is the complex of Governmental activities that are undertaken in public interest at different levels such as the central, state and local level. It essentially deals with the machinery and procedures of Government activities. It is a means by which the policy decisions are made by the political decision makers.

Public Administration is decision making, planning the work to be done, formulating objectives and goals, working with the legislature and citizens of organization to gain public support and funds for Government programmes, establishing and revising organization, directing and supervising employees, providing leadership, communicating and receiving communication, determining work methods and procedures, appraising performance, exercising control and other functions performed by government executives and supervisors. It is the action part of the Government, the means by which the purpose and goals of the Government are realized.

Public Administration translates the policy goals set by political decision makers, provides goods and services to people, and implements socio-economic development programmes for all round development of society.

With the emergence of democracy and the concept of modern welfare service of state, the governmental activities have increased by leaps and bounds. Initially, the Governmental activities were mainly limited to maintain the law and order, collection of revenue and protecting the citizens from external aggression. But, nowadays, the Government has to take care of its citizens from womb to tomb. It means the Government has to provide various goods and services to people from birth to death and even after that in the form of taking care of the family of deceased.

1.3 Definitions:

Public Administration as defined by a few scholars clarifies as to what the term conveys.

According to **Woodrow Wilson**, “Public Administration is the detailed and systematic execution of Law. Every particular application of a law is an act of administration”.

According to **L.D. White**, “Public Administration consists of all those operations having for the purpose of fulfillment or enforcement of public policies as declared by competent authority”.

According to **Mc Queen**, “Public Administration is the administration related to the operation of the Government whether Local or Central”.

According to **Marshal E. Dimock**, “Public Administration is concerned with ‘what’ and ‘how’ of the Government. The ‘what’ is the subject –matter, the technical knowhow of a field which enables the administrator to the technical know-how of a field which enables the administrator to perform his tasks. The “how” is the technique of management, the principles according to which co-operative programmes are carried to success. Each is indispensable, together they form the synthesis called administration”.

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According to J.M. Pfiffner “Administration consists of getting the work of government done by coordinating the efforts of the people so that they can work together to accomplish their set tasks”.

According to H. Walker, “The work which the government does to give effect to a law is called administration”.

According to J.S. Hodgson, “Public Administration comprises all activities of persons or groups in governments or their agencies, whether these organizations are international, regional or local in their scope, to fulfill the purpose of these governments or agencies.”

According to D. Waldo who defines, public administration as “the art of science of management as applied to the affairs of state.”

All these definitions make it clear that public administration is really government in action. In common usage, it is concerned with the executive, the operative and the most obvious part of the government. In other words it is mainly concerned with the executing and implementing part of the governmental activity, with the question as how low should be administered with equity, speed and without friction. Therefore, public administration comprises the systematic execution of the will of the people which has been discovered, formulated and expressed in the form of laws by the legislation. To summarize, it may be said that public administration is the non-political machinery of the government carrying on its work for the welfare of the people according to the laws set up by the state.

1.4 Nature of Public Administration:

The Nature of Public Administration, there are two views regarding it. According to the integral view, administration is the sum total of all the activities such as manual, managerial, clerical and technical. The activities that fall within the ambit of administration include the services rendered by the errand boy, the foreman, the gatekeeper, the sweeper and the activities of the higher officials such as secretaries of government departments and general managers of public sector organizations. The managerial view was expressed by Herbert Simon, Smithburgh and Thomson. Administration is associated with managerial techniques. Administration is a specialized activity, comprising of organization of men and materials for a specified purpose. These techniques include planning, organization, staffing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting.

Each letter of the acronym stands for one managerial activity.
Planning-which is preparation for action.
Organization- Which is the structure through which the objectives are realized. It involves division of work co-ordination i.e., cutting and sewing together.
Staffing- which is the entire gamut of personnel management form recruitment to retirement.
Directing- means issuing orders and instructions for the guidance of the staff.
Coordination- means all important activities of interrelating various parts of the work and eliminating, overlapping and conflict.
Reporting- means keeping both the superiors and subordinates informed about the ongoing works.
Budgeting- about all aspects of the entire gamut of financial administration.

It was felt that the ‘POSDCORB’ activities constituted the core of public administration. But it was later realized that they were neither the whole of administration nor even the important part of it. They are best tools of administration. The substance of administration is something different. Even those POSDCORB activities are also influenced by the subject matter of administration. Though, the subject matter view of administration arose. This lays stress on the activities or services i.e., the subject matter of administration. The scope of public
administration consists POSDCORB of the theory part and the applied part consists of the studies or concrete application of administrative theory to various branches of administration.

1.5 Characteristics of Public Administration:

The Nature of Public Administration implies in its characteristics. The spectacular increase in the range and volume of its functions and activities necessitated the increase in size. According to Nicholas Henry, this burgeoning bureaucracy is a phenomenon of public administration. Public Administration is often monopolistic because, in the field of its activities, there are not many competitors. Uniformity in its treatment of the citizens is the unique feature of public administration. Public accountability is another characteristic feature of public administration. Public Administration’s activities are regulated by elaborate rules and regulations, necessitating elaborate record keeping and having regard for precedents. The aim of public administration is public service, public interest and public welfare are its prime objectives.

1.6 The Scope of Public Administration:

As stressed at the outset, public administration is a segment of the wider field of administration. But, there are different opinion about the scope of public administration whether it is the managerial part of the governmental work or the entire complex of activities of only executive branch of government or of all branches, i.e., legislative, executive and judicial. There are two views regarding the scope of the study of public administration. “Integral” view and “Managerial” view.

1.6.1 According to Integral View:

Public administration is a sum-total of all the activities undertaken in pursuit of and in fulfillment of public policy. These activities include not only managerial and technical but also manual and clerical. Thus, the activities of all persons working in an organization from top to bottom constitute administration. According to L.D. White public administration “consists of all those operations having for their purpose the fulfillment or enforcement of public policy”.

1.6.2 According to Managerial View:

The work of only those persons who are engaged in the performance of managerial functions in an organization constitutes administration. It is these persons who should have the responsibility of keeping the enterprise on even keels and to run it most efficiently. L. Qualick subscribes to the Managerial view. He defines the managerial techniques by the word “POSDCORB” each letter of which stands for different management technique i.e., planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating reporting and budgeting.

According to Pfiffiner the scope of Public Administration can be divided under two broad heads: Principles of Public Administration and Sphere of Public Administration. In the first category public administration studies organization which means “the structuring of individuals and functions into productive relationship”, management of personnel which is “concerned with the direction of these individuals and functions to achieve ends previously determined.

Thus, “public administration, in sum, includes the totality of government activity, encompassing exercise of endless variety and the techniques of organization and management
whereby, order and social purpose are given to the effort of vast numbers”. A more comprehensive account of the scope of public administration has been given by Walker. He has divided it into two parts: (a) Administrative theory and (b) Applied Administration. Administrative theory includes the study of structure, organization, functions, and methods of all types of public authority engaged in carrying out the administration at all levels, i.e., national, regional, local etc. Applied Administrative is difficult to give a comprehensive statement as to what “applied administration” should exactly include because of the new and fast growing field of public administration. Walker has made an attempt to classify the main forms of applied administration on the basis of ten principal functions which he calls as political, legislative, financial, defensive, educational, social, economic, foreign, imperial and local. Although there is much of overlapping in the classification of Walker, it is a good attempt at an exhaustive definition of applied administration. In a more summarized form, the applied administration includes the study of administration in the various countries of the world, of various departments of services in the progressive states, of organization of various levels, i.e., governmental, local, national and international of the historical development of administrative methods and techniques and of the problems connected with international organizations.

More particularly, public administration is only a means to the attainment of the objects of the state itself- “the maintenance of peace and order, the progressive achievement of justice, the instruction of the young, protection against disease and insecurity, the adjustment and compromise of conflicting groups and interests in short, the attainment of good life of people.

1.7 Significance of Public Administration:

Public Administration is an essential part of a society and a dominant factor in life in the modern age, which has seen the emergence of what has aptly been called the ‘Administrative State’. There has been tremendous increase in the importance of Public Administration with the expansion of state activities. The Centuries old nation of police state which was responsible only for the maintenance of law and order and the policy of laissez faire, i.e., least interference in day-to-day activities, has completely lost its relevance. The modern state has undertaken the new role of accelerator of economic and social change as well as prime mover and stimulator of national development. With this change, in the ends of modern state the purpose of public administration have also been completely reoriented. There are employment exchanges, rationing offices, government mints, departments of agriculture, industries, foreign relations, etc., which effect almost every citizen in one way or the other. This abundantly proves that public administration is a vital social process charges with providing greater needs. It is an integral part of the social, cultural and economic life of a nation and is a permanent force of life. Edmond Burke said “constitute government how you please infinitely the greater part of it will depend on exercise of powers which are left at large to the ministers of state. Without proper management, your commonwealth is no better than a scheme on paper and not a living, active, effective constitution. In the words of D. Waldo it is “apart” of the cultural complex and it not only is action upon, it acts”. It is a great creative force. According to Woodrow Wilson the primary objective of administrative study is to discover what a government can do and to discover how it could be done in better manner. Wilson postulated that prior to the 18th century; the activities of the government were not as complex as they were in the 19th century. Political scientists during that period framed Laws for different countries and the administrative systems implemented them without any problem. The focus of all political thinkers was on framing the laws and the implementation of such laws was treated as natural corollary which required little scientific analysis and thought once a law was made, it was considered as implemented, as the administration could force it down on the people without much resistance. According to Wilson,
in the 18th century and prior to it, the question that bothered all political scientists was how to make a constitution and not how to implement it.

According to Wilson, in the 19th century, presented a contrasting picture different form the earlier century. As the Population had increased and the governmental activities had become extremely complex. The advent of an industrial society threw up problems of an extremely complex nature which the government was expected to solve. The functions of the government are everyday becoming more complex and difficult every day, they are also vastly multiplying in number. Administration is everywhere putting its hands into new understandings. Due to such an amorphous nature of functions the practicing administrator finds it extremely difficult to comprehend the various facts of his job. Such a situation, according to Wilson, demands support from intellectuals in the form of systematic study of administration.

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1.8 Relationship between Public Opinion and Administration:

Wilson examined the problem, as to what part shall public opinion take in the conduct of administration and his answer was that the role of public opinion should be that of an authoritative critic. According to Wilson, directly exercised, the oversight of the daily details and in the choice of the daily means of government, public criticism is of course a clumsy nuisance, a rustic handling delicate machinery. Wilson opined that administrative study should find the best means for giving public criticism this control and for shutting it out from all other interference. For the improvement of public opinion the civil servants of a high caliber are required. Therefore, Wilson felt the need of technically trained civil service personnel, Wilson unambiguously stated that the civil servants are the apparatus of government. Wilson believed that civil servants were mainly not involved in the policy formulation.

1.9 Importance of Public Administration in Developing Countries:

The importance of Public Administration can be gauged form the fact that it plays an important role in the life of a citizen from the time he is born till he dies. Both in the developed and developing countries, public administration has come to play a crucial role in regulating the societies and lives of people. The role of public administration in the developing countries as follows.

The developing societies are mostly those poor continents such as in Africa and Latin America, and Asia, became independent after the Second World War. There are several variations in regard to their social political conditions. Today, the world is divided into developed countries like America, U.K., Japan, Canada, France, etc., and the rest of the countries. The
developing countries can be further classified depending on their different stages of Development. However, economic backwardness is common in all these countries. The standard of living in these countries is lesser than that of the developed countries. In developed countries much attention is paid to sustain the progress they achieved during these period.

1.9.0 Features of Public Administration in developing countries:

In view of the economic and political change, administrative systems, in developing countries must adopt themselves, to meet the changing requirements. Public Administration is confronted with heavy burden. Growth and development with social justice that too in the quickest possible time, the challenge faced by public administration in these countries. The distinguishing features of public administration in developing societies are discussed here. First, personnel management practices in the fields of recruitment and promotion are outdated. Merit is not given adequate recognition and encouragement. Secondly, public administration is not sufficient to meet the growing requirements of the state. A huge burden is placed on the administration machinery, hence, it is unable to bear it.

Thirdly, the growing centralization in decision making despite the attempt towards greater delegation and decentralization.

Fourthly, there is the dominance of the generalist administration in the administrative system.

Fifthly, the relationship between the power wielding politician –minister and the decision-implementing public officials is often not as harmonious as it ought to be.

Sixthly, corruption in public administration in most developing countries has been increased enormously.

1.9.1 Increased State activity:

Public administration assumes much importance in modern times in the developed and the developing societies as well, it’s importance in the developing societies needs elaboration and emphasis. The developing societies are engaged in the gigantic task of development to eradicate the illiteracy, poverty and hunger. The strategy adopted in most of these countries for accelerated development in planning. In the formulation and successful implementation of plans and in the timely completion of schemes and projects, administration plays a significant role. Administration’s operational focus should be on proper policies and programs and their effective implementation. The civil servants, in particular, have to be accommodative and sensitive to the needs of people. Public Administration, by virtue of its national character, consisting of personnel belonging to different communities, castes and tribes has a vital role in bringing about national integration. The importance of public administration in modern times needs no special emphasis. The well being of the people is increasingly dependent on the performance levels of the machinery of public administration.

1.9.2 Welfare State Concept:

The range and volume of activities of the administration have increased in modern days. Scientific and technological advancement, industrial revolution, the acceptance of democratic and welfare state ideals and socialist principles and the requirements of development administration are the most important causative factors for the development. Public Administration’s activities with which people come into contact in their daily lives, it is no exaggeration that there is no field of human activity by which the administration is not concerned
with either directly or indirectly. Public administration is an essential part of civilized society in view of its dominant roles in regulation of welfare and development.

1.9.3 Democratic Setup:

Public Administration’s role is vital in the holding of elections and implementation of the policies and programmes of the elected executives in a democratic country. It also assists the legislatures and the ministers in the formulation of policy. It is considered by some scholars that the public bureaucracy in the twentieth century is at the centre of public policy formulation.

1.9.4 Stabilizing Force:

According to Pual Pigors, “Administration insures the continuance of the existing order with a minimum of effort and risk. Its fundamental is to ‘carryon’ rather than to venture along new and untried path. Administrators are essentially the guardians of traditions. Public administration is a great stabilizing force in the society. After independence of India, it faced the serious problems of rehabilitation, integration of native states, severe food shortages and the post-war reconstruction. These were solved, to a large extent, through effective administrative interventions in Indian Society.

1.9.5 Instrument of Social Change:

Public Administration is an instrument of social change. Public administration played a substantial role in eradicating untouchability and lessening social tensions and conflicts. The administrative machinery itself consists of people belonging to different faiths, castes and groups who work untidily in discharging their responsibility.

1.9.6 Evolution of the Discipline:

Public Administration, as a subject of study is of recent origin. It can be stated that a serious study of public administration started with the publication of Woodrow Wilson’s essay on ‘The Study of Public Administration in 1887 in the American political science quarterly. He was indeed a pioneer who has set the tone for its systematic study. The earlier writers stressed the dichotomy of politics and public administration. L.D.White, Willoughby, F.M. Marx almost buried ‘dichotomy’ between politics and public administration with their writings. Today public administration has come to its own with a more balanced emergence of the discipline.

The study of public administration is very important for practitioners. Through its systematic study, one gets an acquaintance with the knowledge of the administrative machinery and its numerous activities. In developing societies, vast sections of these people are not aware of the array of programmes undertaken for their upliftment. Study of public administration, to a certain extent, fills the gap. According to Woodrow Wilson, the object of administrative study is to rescue executive method from the confusion and costliness of empirical experiment and set them upon foundations laid deep on stable principles. According to Charles Beard, Public Administration is the key science of contemporary civilization. There is no subject more important than the subject of public administration.

1.9.7 Changing Context:

There is a change in the perceptions on the role of state and public administration. In the changing context in India, popularly known as structural adjustment policies resulted in
emphasis on privatization, liberalization and globalization. The good governance and E-Governance are the two important developments of this new context

1.9.8 Good Governance:

The good governance is considered as an important requirement for nation’s development. Good governance is an important function of public administration, governance is a broader concept, which is defined as “the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s social and economic resources for development”. There are some of the features of good governance mentioned below:
1. Freedom of participation and association by various social, economic, religious, cultural and professional groups in the process of governance.
2. Political accountability of political system by the people and regular elections to legitimize the exercise of political power.
3. Bureaucratic accountability ensuring a system to monitor and control the performance of government officials and offices in relation to quality of service, inefficiency and abuse of discretionary power.
4. Cooperation between civil society organizations and government.
5. A good administrative system lead to efficiency and effectiveness. The effectiveness includes the degree of global achievement as per the stated objectives.

1.9.9 E-Governance:

E-Governance is sometimes called digital government as the new system uses Internet as the gateway or the means by which people and government get connected to each other. E-Governance is considered as an important tool of good governance. The new technologies facilitate the government’s capacity to respond more effectively to the needs of people. The government of India and many state governments, including Andhra Pradesh, have taken many commendable initiatives in the upgradation of the systems, management of partnership arrangements with technology provider, building the trust among the public on the reliability of the systems.

1.10 Conclusion:

With the great advancement of science and invention of new techniques at all levels of human activity, the problem of maintaining effective coordination between the administration and the rest of the community has assumed great importance. Therefore, the pursuit of great knowledge of public administration becomes the most essential element in modern times. The administrative system consequently grows and becomes diverse. Thus, it is obvious that though public administration studies the administrative branch of the executive organ only, yet its scope is very wide as it varies with the peoples conception of good life.

1.11 Model Questions:

1. Describe the Public Administration meaning, scope.
2. Define the Public Administration and its Significance.
3. Explain the features of Public Administration in developing countries.
1.12 Reference Books:

Lesson-02

POLITICS AND ADMINISTRATION
DICHOTOMY: WOODROW WILSON

2.0 Objective:

1. Student would be able to know what is Dichotomy.
2. Student would be able to learn different era of Political Dichotomy.
3. Students would be able to learn the contribution of Woodrow Wilson for Politics-Administration Dichotomy.

Structure:

2.0 Objective
2.1 Introduction
2.2 Period I: (1887-1926) – The Era of Politics – Administration Dichotomy
2.3 Period –II: (1927-1937) – Principles of Administration
2.4 Period – III (1938-1947): Principles stood challenged
2.5 Period-IV (1948-1970) Crisis of Identity
2.6 Period – V (1971 onwards)
2.7 Woodrow Wilson contribution for Politics-Administration Dichotomy
2.8 Politics-Administration Dichotomy: After Wilson
2.9 Abandonment of the Dichotomy
2.10 Conclusion
2.11 Model Questions
2.12 Reference Books

2.1 Introduction:

Public Administration is regarded as one among the newest disciplines of the social sciences. Like other disciplines it has passed through several phases of evolution. Administration as an activity or as a process is believed to be as old as the human cultivation is, Woodrow Wilson made significant contributions to the development of Public Administration as a separate discipline.

2.2 Period I: (1887-1926) – The Era of Politics – Administration Dichotomy:

The first stage of its evolution is considered to have begun with the appearance in 1887 of Woodrow Wilson’s essay titled “The Study of Administration”. He is regarded as the father of the discipline. Though the essay, the most distinguished essay in the history of American Public Administration, Wilson sought to aid in the establishment of Public Administration as a recognized Field of study. “The Study of Administration”, Wilson’s published writings are numerous. Among them, more important are congressional movement. A study in American politics (1885). The State-Elements of Historical and practical politics (1889); Division and Reunion 1829-89 (1893): An old master and other Essays (1896); George Washington (1896); A History of American people in 5 volumes (1902). In this essay Wilson has stressed the need for a separate study of administration as
he regarded administration as distinct from politics. He argued that law making or framing a constitution is the concern of politics, while administration is concerned with the running of a constitution. This initial conceptualization of public administration came to be known among the academic circles as politics –administration dichotomy.

Gradually, public administration started receiving increasing attention of the scholars in America, mainly because of public service movement was took place in American Universities during the early years of this century. In 1920, the development of public administration as an independent discipline was further boosted with the publication of L.D. White’s first text book in the field titled “Introduction to Public Administration” (926). This book faithfully explained that politics should not be allowed to interfere with the public administration like management is republic of becoming a “value free” science. The remarkable feature of the first period of the evolutionary stages of the discipline was a passionate belief in ‘politics-administration dichotomy’ and the practical invalidity of the dichotomy did not bother the tinkers.

2.3 Period –II: (1927-1937) – Principles of Administration:

The second period of evolution of the discipline is marked by the tendency to reinforce the idea of ‘political administration’ dichotomy and to evolve a value free science of management. Public administration achieved high reputation during this period because of the expertise of the administrators, working in industry and government as well.

The period dawned with the appearance of W.F. Willoughby’s works ‘principles of public administration’ in 1927. The title of the book axiomatically indicates the new thrust of the discipline. In the same way, a number of other works appeared, the more notable among them being ‘Principles of Organization’ by Mooney and Reiley; creative experience by Mary Parker Follett; ‘Industrial and General Management’ by Henri Fayol. This period is believed to be at its climax in 1937 when Luther H. Gulick and Lyndal Urwick’s “Papers on the Science of Administration” appeared. The use of the word ‘science’ was significant for Gulick and Urwick considered that, administration is a science. Gulick and Urwick coined the acronym –POSDCORB- to promote seven principles of administration. The POSDCORB maxims of administration were said to be of universal applicability in old organizations. Every administration has to perform regardless of the cultural, social and political settings ‘POSDCORDER’ was a term encompassing the executive functions of planning, organizing, directing, staffing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. At the root of ‘POSDCORB’ synthesis was the plea for building an effective and efficient administration system right from the very highest level of administration. This phase in the history of public administration theory is often called as the “High Noon of Orthodoxy”.

2.4 Period – III (1938-1947): Principles stood challenged:

The third stage can be termed as one of reaction and challenge against the so-called ‘principles of administration’, which were dubbed as ‘naturalistic fallacies, and ‘proverbs’. In 1938, Chester Barnard considerably influenced Herbert A. Simon, who was preparing a divesting critique of the field, particularly the principles. The real challenge to the theory of public administration came from two directions: One objection was against the principles and the other was against dichotomy. The dichotomy was described as misleading, a fetish, a stereotype, and it was though that this dichotomy was at best naive. Many practitioners and academicians felt that, the dichotomy had severely damaged the field. However, a more severe attack was directed against the principles. The basic allegation against these
principles was that there could be no such thing as principles of administration. The post devastating criticism on principles came down from Herbert Simon who forcefully attacked the very rationale of these principles. According to Simon for every principle there was an equally plausible and acceptable contradictory principle. Herbert Simon introduced two new promises in the study of public administration. Firstly, Simon introduced in the literature of public administration a new philosophic doctrine of logical positivism drawn from the European philosophy. Secondly, he proposed that the focus of the theoretical study of public administration should be on the “behavior” of administration or what they actually do or more specifically, how they make decisions and choices.

This stage was marked with such a criticism that the discipline of public administration found itself in a very shaky position and its moral was low. This period was followed by another critical period i.e., the period of crisis.

2.5 Period-IV (1948-1970) Crisis of Identity:

This period has been one of the crisis for public administration. The brave new world promised by the thinkers of the ‘principles’ era stood shattered. The future of the discipline appeared uncertain as it was facing a grave crisis i.e., crisis of identity. Evidently, the concern of the scholars during this phase was to re-establish the conceptual linkage between public administration and political science. As a result, a larger group of scholars became increasingly concerned with public policy, a newly emerged field in the political science in U.S.A. These changes in the practical world of public administration have also revealed that it is difficult to break the link between politics and administration.

The cross-cultural study of public administration also called as comparative public administration, which is basically a new development in the field of public administration during this phase. Even though, the interest in comparative study of public administration became evident in 1950’s itself, the real impetus came in 1962 when the comparative administrative group was formed with the financial support of Ford Foundation. Comparative public administration concentrated both on theory building and practical application in the context of developing nations which are also known as newly emerged nations. Much of the work in comparative public administration and development administration revolved around the ideas of F.W. Riggs whose contributions became the basis for the theoretical development of these two concepts.

Eventhough, public administration has sown the seeds of its own destruction, it experienced renaissance during this phase. This came in the form of new public administration. In 1968, some young scholars of public administration held a conference at Minnow-brook under the sponsorship of Professor Waldo. The proceedings were subsequently published in a book form in 1971 entitled: Towards a New Public Administration. Due to Minnow-brook’s perspective, gave birth to New Public Administration approach denounced out, rightly, such traditional concepts effectiveness, efficiency, budgeting, technology and so on. In one respect, the New Public Administration can be viewed as a call for independence from both political science and administrative science. Thus, Public Administration entered 1970s without a viable theory or concept. Right from the Wilson’s days till this period so many competing paradigms, models, concepts and approaches were introduced in this field. As a result, by the 1970’s the world of administrative theory became so complicated and confusing that one may agree with Ostrom’s assertion that the field was caught in the midst of anomic and malaise and facing an “identity crisis”. Gerals Caiden also makes a similar observation, as he argues that the
crisis of legitimacy confronting public administration today is directly related to its inability to formulate a theoretical base from which to defined itself. He points out that, public administration has been unable to mount an effective reply to its critics who accuse it of being parasitic, unproductive inefficient, wasteful, in competitive, corrupt and above all unnecessary.

Public Administration, naturally was in search of an alternative which was available in the form of Administrative Science. Here, too, Public Administration had to lose its distinctiveness, identity and to merge with a large field. The protagonists of this view held that administration is administration regardless of its setting and it was on this belief that “The Journal of Administrative Science Quarterly” was founded in 1956. Cyert and March’s “A Behavioural Theory” of the Firm, and March’s ‘Handbook’ were inspired by this perspective.

2.6 Period – V (1971 onwards)

The discipline has registered great progress and has entered the new phase-1971 onwards with an enriched vision, the uncertainty and turmoil of the preceding period not withstanding. The attention in focusing more and more on the dynamics of administration. Public Administration has also identified itself with the policy science and other areas. Nevertheless, the discipline survived mainly because of the amazing store of knowledge which it developed during the last 127 years.

2.7 Woodrow Wilson contribution for Politics-Administration Dichotomy:

It was Woodrow Wilson who made one of the first dogmatic distinction between politics and administration. In support of his position Wilson argued that public administration is a detailed and systematic execution of public law. Every application of general law is an act of administration. The field of administration is a field of business. Administration being removed from politics is not subjected to the vagaries and vicissitudes but goes on uninterruptedly to fulfill the promises of the system.

Inspired by Blunetshli and other German Scholars, Woodrow Wilson argued that administration concerns with the execution of public policies and lies outside the sphere of politics. Policies should be formulated by elected leaders, shall their execution should be the sole responsibility of permanent officials selected for their expertise.

Wilson’s distinction implied the need for bureaucratic efficiency and the existence of general principles of administration that are applicable to all types of political systems.

However, at a later stage Wilson asserted that the administration cannot function independently. Administration be related with the other branches of government. It's foundation is deeply rooted in politics. Wilson finally concluded that public administration, by nature is a subject of public law. Thus, it is evident that Wilson was aware of the interrelatedness of politics and public administration, he tried to separate them to make public administration an independent subject. Hence it appears that Wilson vacillated between separability and inseparability of public administration from politics. This confusion in the Wilson made the later scholars to interpret his politics administration dichotomy variously.
Nevertheless, the politics administration dichotomy was proposed by Wilson and accepted by the scholars who immediately followed him. The dichotomy became a dominant model in the study of public administration during the first phase of its history. Frank J. Goodnow who immediately followed Wilson, also made a distinction between politics and administration. Goodnow contended that, there were two distinct functions of government which can be identified as politics and administration. According to him politics has to do with policies or expressions of the state’s will, while, administration executes these policies.

The politics-administration dichotomy which originated in the writings of Wilson dominated the field till the end of Second World War. The dichotomy became an important component of classical theories who intended to build an independent subject of public administration on scientific lines. It was also intended to solve the value problem in public administration. It was pleaded that the separation would help the political system to establish values and get goals for administration.

### 2.8 Politics-Administration Dichotomy: After Wilson:

Goodnow carried further, the dichotomy proposed by Wilson, Frank Johnson Goodnow was an American educator and legal scholar, born in Brooklyn, New York. After private schooling he graduated from Amherst College in 1879 and from the Columbia Law School in 1882. Goodnow became professor of administrative Law in 1891, and in 1903 acting professor of Administrative Law and Municipal Science. He became the first President of the American Political Science Association in 1903. Governor Theodore Roosevelt made him a member of the commission to draft a new charter for Greater New York and President Taft chose him as a member of his commission on Economy and Efficiency. He is considered as an important early scholar in the field of public administration and administrative law, as well as expert in government. Basically, Goodnow conceptually distinguished “two distinct functions of government”, which he designates as politics and administration. “Politics has to do with policies or expressions of the state will”, Goodnow explains “Administration has to do with the execution of these policies”. The heart of his distinction lies in the classic separation of powers, which prescribes the desirability of entrusting the formulation of policies to a different organ”—other than one which is charged with the execution of those policies. Goodnow argued for the centrality of law in public administration.

Goodnow’s classic work politics and administration: A study, government aims to express the separation of government authority beyond the traditional executive, legislative and judicial triad. For Goodnow administration in neither homogeneous nor separated from politics. He maintains that administration includes the “function of executing the law”, as well as “semi scientific, Quasi-Judicial, and Quasi-business or commercial” functions. The latter functions are largely administrative and not unconnected with politics. So they should be relieved from the control of politics, at least to a large extent. As for the “executive function”, Goodnow notes oppositely, it cannot be subjected to the control of politics. This, Goodnow’s conceptual concern is with the analytical focus but not the locus of public administration.

Goodnow’s analytical distinction between politics and administration is a difficult one. Goodnow provides only a general direction for isolating the central phenomena within the administration. This vagueness is compounded by the fact that Goodnow looked at public administration from a cosmopolitan view of its real locus. Goodnow’s concept of public administration, consequently, would require that students confront legislative specialists, for
example, with a claim on the latter’s real locus. An analytical distinction is no match for a distinction based on concrete locus, however. This was particularly the case in Goodnow’
time.

Essentially, Goodnow contributed to the superficially easy differentiation of public administration and political science. Landu notes that in Goodnow’s view politics and administration represent different pattern of behavior and each present different sets of problems. However, the total operations of government cannot be assigned completely to different agencies of government.

The relation of politics to administration is one of separation and subordination. Goodnow argues that while politics can never be completely apart from administration, popular government requires that it is the executing authority which shall be subordinate to the expressing authority”. According to Goodnow, the executing authority should be one of centralized administration, in contrast to decentralized or local administration and it should also not be overly controllable by the expressing authority for fear of impartial administration.

2.9 Abandonment of the Dichotomy:

In 1920’s scholars began to challenge the politics administration dichotomy. Based upon their experiences academicians and practitioners of public administration found the dichotomy was both descriptively and prescriptively inadequate. It was increasingly realized that administrative officials help the politicians in several ways in the legislative and policy making processes.

Paul H. Apple by vehemently, attacked the politics administration dichotomy by asserting the politics and administration are intimately related. He further argues that public administration is policy making. He also adds that public administration while making policies are subjected to several political constraints like other public officials including the legislators. These external pressures offer strong protection to the public from the arbitrary and undemocratic action of the officials.

F.W. Riggs dismissed the politics-administration dichotomy as a mere myth. But he commented that the myth depends upon a narrow interpretation of the meaning of politics. Riggs points out that in transitional political systems the bureaucracy actively involve in policy making process and to some extent in the party politics. Riggs branded the transitional politics as bureaucratic politics. He viewed that in these societies it is very difficult to draw a strict line of separation between political system and administrative system as there is close interaction between these two spheres of activity.

Luther Gulick questioned the wisdom of separating politics form administration. He maintains that, politics is an action which has to do under the control of rulers. As such, it cannot be taken out of administration nor administration from politics. He argues that the dichotomy between politics and administration has broken down and hence a new doctrine should be developed that permits the fullest possible use of the expert in an appropriate framework of political and professional responsibility. Gullick explained the roles of politicians and administrators. In his view the role of politicians is to maintain equilibrium in the overall system, by adjusting the relationships between experts, administrators and interest groups. The administrator’s role is to understand and coordinate public policies and interpret policy directions to the operating agencies but with unquestioned loyalty to the elected officials. This, administrators are subordinated to political executives as they do not make final decision on policies, do not advocate policies and do not openly criticize policy position of the government.

Simon rejects the policy-administration dichotomy on both descriptive and normative grounds. On descriptive ground, Simon argues that the political and administrative functions
are performed by both political and administrative officials. Since, politicians are often involve in the selection of means, administrators are involved in both policy making and policy execution operations. Simon also rejects the dichotomy on normative grounds. In place of the policy-administration dichotomy, Simon proposes the fact-value dichotomy, which he argues and provide a better basis for a science of administration and a more appropriate standard for administrative conduct.

Waldo contends that the politics-administration dichotomy is inadequate either as a description of reality, or as a prescription for administrative behavior. The dichotomy, according to Waldo, was intended to resolve the conflict between bureaucracy and politicians by making elected officials responsible for framing policies and restricting administrators to the execution of policies. Waldo’s view is that instead of attempting to separate politics and administration we should evolve a philosophy that encourages cooperation among the administrative and political officials. Jack Rabin and James S. Bowman argues that, although the politics and administration may be separated for purposes of scientific analysis and political reform, they are inseparable in operation. The politics-administration relation was less a dichotomy than a continue from routine administration to pure politics. Ripper totally rejects the viewpoint that Wilson is responsible for the origin of politics-administration dichotomy. He concludes that while Wilson did not mean to pose any form of dichotomy, his essay is simply so contradictory and confusing that it precludes any precise interpretation as to what he really meant. He concurs with still man that Wilson vacillated between the two poles of thought regarding the separability of administration from politics.

2.10 Conclusion:

Woodrow Wilson’s “The study of administration” was considered a new beginning in the thinking on administration. Though Wilson did not regard his essay too highly, yet he had admitted that he was merely presenting a semi-popular introduction to administrative studies and that goes critical round the study, considering it from various outside points of view, rather than entering it and handling its proper topics. As a young teacher of government Wilson not presented with a scientific definition of administration as a challenge to the great evils of the day, spoils in politics and the patronage.

Nevertheless, Wilson unquestionably posited one unambiguous thesis in his article that has had a lasting impact i.e., that public administration was worth studying. The article marks the birth of public administration as a self-conscious inquiry or a ‘generic course’.

2.11 Model Questions:

1. Discuss the different stages in the growth of public administration as a discipline.
2. Politics —administration dichotomy is simply a myth. “Examine the validity of the dichotomy in the light of above statement.
3. Critically examine the politics—Administration dichotomy as visualized by Woodrow Wilson.

2.12 Reference Books:

6. Dr. Prasad Others (eds), Administrative Thinkers, Sterling Publishers, New Delhi, 1989.
Lesson-03

FUNCTIONALISM: HENRY FAYOL

3.0 Objective:

1. Student would be able to know about the early life of Henry Fayol and his Thoughts.
2. Student would be able to understand the different general Principles of Management.

Structure:

3.0 Objective
3.1 Introduction
3.2 Life
3.4 Fayol’s Ideas
3.5 General Principles of Management
3.5.1 Division of work
3.5.2 Authority and Responsibility
3.5.3 Discipline
3.5.4 Unite of Command
3.5.5 Unity of Direction
3.5.6 Scalar Chain or Hierarch
3.5.7 Subordination of Individual Interest to General Interest
3.5.8 Remuneration of Personnel
3.5.9 Centralization or Decentralization
3.5.10 Equity
3.5.11 Stability of Tenure of Personnel
3.5.12 Order
3.5.13 Initiative
3.5.14 Esprit de Corps
3.6 Comparison between Fayal and Taylor
3.7 Criticism
3.8 Conclusion
3.9 Model Questions
3.10 Reference Books

3.1 Introduction:

Henry Fayol was an important thinker of the discipline of Public Administration. He was an engineer by profession. He worked in a mining company in the capacity of General Manager until his retirement in 1918. Fayol contributed significantly to the corpus of management concepts and was considered the father of Management Process School. Under his leadership, the dying company recovered rapidly and became a prosperous and financially stable organization.
3.2 Life:

Henry Fayol, is well known for the general principles of management formulated by him early in the 20\textsuperscript{th} century. Henry Fayol was born in 1841 in France. He graduated in mining engineering and was appointed as an engineer in a mining company in 1860. He rose to the position of Managing Director of the company in 1888. His most famous book was ‘General and Industrial Management’ which was first published in France in 1915, but it did not come to light in the English speaking countries until its English Version was published in 1929.

As a professional engineer, Fayol tried to apply scientific principles to the Industry. As a Chief Executive, Fayol viewed organization from the top, Fayol wanted to build the organization from the level of foreman to the workers at his machine. In other words while Taylor applied scientific method to the lowest range of the hierarchy and then work upwards, Fayol worked from the top to downwards. Fayol, believed that the success of a manager depends not upon his personal qualities but on the methods he implement on employees and the principles that govern his behavior. This belief led him to build a new theory of administration which earned him the reputation as the father of modern management.

3.4 Fayol’s Ideas:

A widespread tendency in the English speaking countries was to draw a distinction between management as an activity confined to conducting industrial undertaking, and Public Administration as the art of conducting Governmental activities, According to Fayol, such a distinction between management and Public Administration is false and misleading.

Fayol provided a general approach to administration. He concentrated on certain important elements of administration. They are

(a) Forecasting and planning (b) organization c) command (d) coordinator and (e) control. Fayol asserts that, administration is not the exclusive privilege of those at the top. Fayol considered administration as only one of six groups of activities which include:

(a) Technical activities – including production, manufacturing and adaptation
(b) Commercial activities – buying selling and exchange
(c) Financial activities – provision of capital and optimum use of capital
(d) Security activities – protection of property and persons
(e) Accounting services – stock –taking, balance – sheet, costing, statistics and
(f) Managerial activities – planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling. A close examination of these classification of these activities reveal that there is some overlapping in these activities. According to Fayol, observed that for each group of activities certain basic abilities are necessary to carry there out. These are:

(a) Physical qualities (b) Mental qualities (c) Moral qualities (d) General education (e) Special knowledge of the task assigned, and (f) experience.
Fayol concentrated on the principle of organization more than any other principles. In his opinion organization is set up for carrying out all types of activities. It provides raw materials, capital personnel and all other necessary things. Fayol identifies fourteen duties or functions which an organization discharges. The important among them include; planning, guiding, co-ordination, decision-making, specification of functions, maintenance of discipline, controlling and so on.

Fayol emphasized the importance of clear lines of authority. In his opinion the purpose of command is to activate and guide the organization in achieving its goals. The manager who gives commands to subordinates must possess exemplary behavior and see that order and discipline prevails in the organization.

**3.5 General Principles of Management:**

Fayol's analysis provides a means for viewing the managerial process and guides (the principles) for implementing the process. According, fourteen management principles have been provided as guidelines to the thinking of managers in order to resolve and concrete problems. Fayol developed a set of principles which can be applied to all types of organizations irrespective of their settings. However, Fayol admitted that all these principles may not have universal application or would have permanent character. Fayol outlined these principles as follows:

**3.5.1 Division of work**

Division of work leads to specialization which increases the efficiency of individual employees. According to Fayol, is to develop the personnel capable of carrying out the six activities already described. For this, they need specialized skills and expertise. Subdivision makes each task simpler and results in greater efficiency. By repeating a small part of work the individual acquires speed and accuracy in its performance.

This process is applicable to both technical as well as managerial work. Fayol stressed the fact that every organization, big or small, should place its employees according to the talents and experience of each individual.

**3.5.2 Authority and Responsibility:**

Authority refers to the right of a superior to give orders to subordinates, take decision on specified matters, use resources of the organization, guide and regulate the behavior of subordinates. Fayol defined authority as “the right to give orders and power to extract obedience”. He distinguished between two types of authority: Official authority and Personal authority. Official authority is legally given to a person, while personal authority is acquired through one’s ability, knowledge, experience and intellect. In the opinion of Fayol authority must commensurate with responsibility, hence steps must be taken to induce people to accept responsibility. This can be made possible by entrusting responsibilities to all the people who exercise authority at various levels in an organization.
3.5.3 Discipline:

Discipline in the context of management means obedience, proper conduct in relations to others, and complying with the rules and regulations of the organization. Fayol observed that discipline is a prerequisite for proper exercise of authority. According to Fayol discipline has two dimensions. Firstly, obey orders only when the management provides good leadership. Second, discipline would become one-sided affair if it is imposed upon the subordinates form above.

3.5.4 Unite of Command:

This principle states that, a subordinate should receive orders and be accountable to the superior only. No employee, therefore, should receive instructions from more than one person.

Fayol’s principle of unity of command contradicts Taylor’s principle of functional authority. Fayol did not favour a system of dual command which in his view, was likely to result into confusion in authority channels and ambiguity in responsibility pattern.

3.5.5 Unity of Direction:

Unity of direction is another important principle of administration proposed by Fayol. According to this principle, the efforts of all the members of the organization should be directed towards common goals. Fayol stressed that, there should be a single superior and a uniform plan of action for a group of activities having the same objectives. He observed that, an organisation with two heads cannot survive long. Thus, the principle of unity of direction emphasizes the importance of common goals being pursued by all in a group activity under the direction of one head. The principle of unity of command refers to the need for each subordinate being accountable to one and only one superior.

3.5.6 Scalar Chain or Hierarch:

Scalar Chain refers to the lines of authority from superior to subordinate. It establishes channels of authority or the purpose of communication and decision-making. Fayol favoured a chain of superiors, which should be followed scrupulously except in cases where it become detrimental to the interests of organization. Fayol also aware of the defects in the communication system existing in the governmental organization, which lead to enormous delay in the decision making process. Fayol suggests a method to avoid this. He suggests that an employee working in a department should be allowed to correspond directly with an employee of same cadre in other department without going up and down in the Scalar Chain with the permission of their superiors.

3.5.7 Subordination of Individual Interest to General Interest:

According to Fayol, management must ensure that the goals of the organization dominate the individual’s interests. The individual, though a worker should submerge his own goals. The goals of different groups, departments and sections should be subordinated to the larger organizational goals. This would result in the promotion of common good.
3.5.8 Remuneration of Personnel:

In Fayol’s conceptualization emphasizes that, the wage policies in an organization should be rational and afford maximum satisfaction to the employer as well as to the employees. This principle is essentially in consistent with one of the basic assumptions of Taylor scientific management, which motivates the employees, primarily depends upon the monetary incentives provided by the management.

3.5.9 Centralization or Decentralization:

Centralization is said to exist, if, top management, retains most of the decision making authority. Fayol observes that the degree of centralization or decentralization in an organization depends upon the state of development of the organization and abilities and qualities of the employees working in it. In the opinion of Fayol centralization cannot be affected indiscriminately. It was the consequence of a natural order of things involving intelligence and wisdom. Fayol says that, an organization should strive to achieve a balance between complete centralization and decentralization. In small organizations, where the range of activities are generally smaller, greater centralization is possible. But in large organization does not depend on the size of organization but on such factors as experience of the superior and dependability and ability of the subordinates.

3.5.10 Equity:

The principle of equity suggests that, ‘similar treatment is assured to people in similar positions. Fayol emphasized the importance of human factor in organization. To some extent, this concern is also reflected in his stress on the promotion of the principle of equity in organization, which, according to him, involves human values such as kindness and justice. It was the duty of the management to ensure that justice and kindness are meted out to all the employees in an organization.

3.5.11 Stability of Tenure of Personnel:

Fayol emphasized the need for an efficient and stable management cadre in organizations. Fayol assets, which this is essential on account of the time and expense involved in training good managerial personnel. The period of service in a position should be fixed. It often takes time to get used to work. Further, Fayol observes that, instability of tenure causes lowering of the moral of employee. Loss of experience and expertise and promotes discontinuity in organizational policies.

3.5.12 Order:

The principle is concerned with arrangement of things and placement of people. Arrangement of things is called material order, whereas, arrangement of people is referred to as social order. In Fayol’s conceptual scheme the principle of order revolves round his idea that there is a place for everything and everything has its place in the organization. He explained that good orders reduce wastage of time and material resources, although social order needs a careful balance of requirements and resources. Social order implies that piece, of work be assigned to each individual and that they should be available at the specific place of work.
3.5.13 Initiative:

Employees at all levels should be allowed to take initiative in work related matters. Initiative means eagerness to initiate action, without being asked to do so. Fayol stressed, Initiative must be encouraged by the management at all levels. The process of percolation of this spirit down to the lowest levels, requires sacrifice of “personal vanity” on the part of managers. Fayol also pleaded that, managers should be prepared to share some of their decision making powers with their subordinates, because initiative thus generated would become a source of strength for the organization.

3.5.14 Esprit de Corps:

It refers to team spirit, that is harmony in work group and mutual understanding among workers. Fayol described Esprit de Corps as the prevalence of harmony among all members of the organization. Management must foster the morale of its employees by coordinating their nativities, encouraging keen inter-personal cooperation, and reward each employee on his merit without any discrimination. Fayol even suggested that, competing firms should develop friendly relations and settle disputes by joint agreements.

Fayol observed that, the administration offers the best approach for understanding organizations. He pointed out that organizational charts are useful for displaying the formal organizational relationships. He required that the staff should assist line managers in complex organizations. He stressed the importance of rational selection and training for workers and also the value of professional education to the employees.

3.6 Comparison between Fayal and Taylor:

It is a fact that Fayol’s management philosophy resembles Taylor’s though in several ways. It is often remarked that, the ideas of both these thinkers are complimentary to each other. Taylor focused his attention on the foreman and worker levels while Fayol concentrated his focus on the top level. Taylor’s scientific management revolves around certain nations like time and motion studies, job analysis while Fayol emphasized on certain elements of administration such as planning, organizing, coordination, control and so on. Nevertheless, both Taylor and Fayol are regarded as the pioneers of scientific management. They are practitioners rather than academicians. Accordingly, they constructed their theories on the basis of their practical experience rather than on intellectual accomplishments. They hailed from contrasting backgrounds which shape their ideas. Taylor’s experiences are the changing conditions of American capitalist society. Hence, he formulated certain scientific principles of management with an aim to apply them to the production process in the industry. The stable European conditions in which Fayl lived led him to base his theory of management on stable pattern of industrial organization.

3.7 Criticism:

There has been lot of criticism against the different ideas of Fayol. It was criticized that, the principles of administration outlined by Fayol are not principles as such. The variegated nature of the administrative principles of Fayol was also pointed by
critics. According to them some of these principles are descriptive, while others are prescriptive. Structuralists attacked Fayol on the ground that he completely ignored the structure of an organization and hence, it is defective to some extent. Peter Drucker pointed that it is a mechanistic approach to the study of organizations. The Scholars belonging to the socio-psychological school alleged that, Fayol had totally ignored the psychological aspects of human beings. Fayol’s theory was also attacked by the critics of classical approach for its volume judgments which are not empirically valid.

In spite of, several weaknesses and shortcomings, Henry Fayol’s philosophy and ideas relating to administration are unique in several respects. Fayol’s ideas stood the test of time remarkably well and they are more consistent with the general theory of bureaucracy. On any event Fayol strived to rationalize and scientific administrative thought.

3.8 Conclusion:

The contribution of Henry Fayol to the development of management theory has been enormous and stood the test of time. It is also appropriate and relevant in the modern era of management. His though has been popularized as Fayolism and it is one of the first comprehensive statement of a general theory of management, developed. He is described as the father of management process school. His ideas have become universal parts of modern management concepts. Fayol’s theories are as rigid and inflexible, it practices and theories such as these which show flexibility in his theories of management.

3.9 Model Questions:

1. Examine the Principles of administration outlined by Henry Fayol.
2. Critically evaluate Henry Fayol’s Administrative Thought.
3. Henry Fayol is the Father of Modern Management Elucidate.
4. The contribution of Henry Fayol to the development of administrative Theory-Discuss.

3.10 Reference Books:

Lesson-04

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT THEORY –F.W. TAYLOR

4.0 Objectives:

1. Students would be able to learn about the contributions and development of management by F.W. Taylor.
2. Students would be able to know about Taylors theory of Scientific Management.

Structure:

4.0 Objectives
4.1 Introduction
4.2 F.W. Taylor Life and Work
4.3 Scientific management Before Taylor
4.4 The Essential Scientific Management Theory
4.5 Assumptions of Scientific Management
4.6 F.W. Taylor’s contribution to scientific management
4.6.1 Objectives of Scientific Management
4.7 Taylor’s Principles of Scientific Management
4.7.1 The Development of a True Science of Works
4.7.2 Scientific Selection of Workman
4.7.3 Training to the worker
4.7.4 Functional Foremanship
4.8 Time and Motion Study
4.9 Wages-Incentive System
4.10 Functional Organization
4.11 Mechanisms of Management
4.12 Impact of Scientific Management
4.13 Criticism on Taylor’s Scientific Management
4.14 Conclusion
4.15 Model Questions
4.16 Reference Books

4.1 Introduction:

During the latter half of the nineteenth century when the industrial revolution had reached a stage of maturity, the rapid expansion of business and industry were giving rise to new problems of industrial planning and management. The working conditions in the factories were chaotic. The work methods, tools and procedures were neither standardized nor planned for efficiency. Choice of methods of work was mainly left to the workers themselves resulting in considerable ad-hoc planning and inefficiency. There was a need to increase productivity which required in the long run a more rational and integrated approach to managerial class who were being called upon to face new problems not experienced earlier. In order to fulfill this need and find ways to rise industrial productivity, many experiments were conducted and prescriptions were developed by management thinkers. Scientific management theory was developed roughly at the same time when bureaucracy and administrative theory emerged. Both the scientific management and administrative theory are related aspects of the same phenomena. Public administration which rooted in political science had sought to place
political relationships on an objective or scientific basis while scientific management is a conscious effort of a movement to place man’s economic life upon a scientific basis.

4.2 F.W.Taylor Life and Work:

Fredric Winslow Taylor was born in 1856 in Germany. He received his education in France and Germany. In 1878, he went to work at the Midvale Steel Company as a worker later became Chief Engineer in 1884, after receiving a Mechanical Engineering degree from Stevens Institute of Technology of Hoboken, New Jersey, the U.S.A. Later, for three years he worked as General Manager in manufacturing Investment Company in Philadelphia. He was also associated with Bethlehem Steel Company for three years.

The term ‘scientific management’ was coined by Louis D. Brandies in 1910. But it is Taylor who widely contributed in the field of Scientific Management. Taylor’s contribution to the development of scientific management was recorded in his papers i.e., A Piece-Rate System (1895), Shop Management (1923), The Art of cutting metals (1906), and the principles of Scientific Management (1911). A Piece-Rate System considers the outstanding contribution to the principles of wage payment. In his shop Management, he discussed at length about workshop organization and management. Taylor also recognized the need for scientific method of selection of the right man for the right jobs considering their initial qualifications and potential for further learning.

4.3 Scientific management Before Taylor:

The latter part of the 19th century saw the beginnings of scientific management movement as a consequence of the stating of a new industrial era in United States. As business continued to grow in size and number of multiple problems which were not faced previously came to surface in the fields of business and industry. In their quest for finding solutions to these complex problems the managers of few bid industries in U.S.A. began to do academic exercise in the form of publication of books and writing of articles in Journals. Thus, management became process oriented rather than firm-oriented as it was in the past. It was during this time that management began to change from routine and mechanical operations to an all-inclusive scientific approach. Management practitioners like Towne and Metcalfe began to develop and apply a unified system of management instead of adopting casual methods. They set the climate for the application of scientific techniques and methods in industrial and business management. Ultimately, management as a separate field had finally came into being. It is in this generative of science of management that F.W. Taylor emerged.

4.4 The Essential Scientific Management Theory:

There are two meanings of scientific management in the literature. Firstly, scientific management is that it is merely a set of mechanisms or techniques for improving organizational efficiency. Secondly, scientific management means the application of scientific method of study, analysis and problem solving the management problems. Much of the scientific management movement qualified as scientific in this meaning. Although, the scientific management produced plethora of valuable new managerial techniques.

Scientific management advocates an inductive, empirical and detailed study of each job to determine how it could be done most efficiently. The prescriptions of scientific management are derived from specific studies in each case. Scientific management focuses its analysis on the physical activity of work. Thus, it is a micro-theory. Scientific management mainly deals with the relationship of a worker to his work.
Scientific management can be regarded as a bottom-up theory because there is emphasis on man-machine relationships with the objective of improving the performance of routine and repetitive production tasks. Scientific management rested on the maximum prosperity of the employees.

4.5 Assumptions of Scientific Management:

Basically, scientific management has three assumptions. Firstly, the application of scientific method of analysis to organizational problems. It advocates that scientific management develops solutions superior to those of other approaches. Its validity depends upon the validity of scientific methodology. The second assumption is concerned with the relation of worker with his work. Scientific management focuses on the work itself and not on the workers who are doing it. The good worker is viewed as one who accepts the orders of his superiors and he should know how to do his job according to scientific analysis. Scientific management rejects the integration and coordination of higher levels of the organization. Thirdly, scientific management assumes rationality in the classical sense. The organization is regarded as a rational instrument of production. Every worker is “economic man” interested in maximizing his lesser income. The scientific management does not lay any emphasis on the emotional, social action, motivational and reactions of workers.

4.6 F.W. Taylor’s contribution to scientific management:

F.W. Taylor was widely acknowledged as the founder and father of the scientific management movement. He laid the foundation for the movement in the U.S.A. at the time when the climate in the industries was hardly favourable to the growth of scientific objectivity in the human aspects of production. Taylor started the movement with his research, the variables involved are mental cutting and piece-rate system. Broadly, Taylor believed that the minimization of efficiency in organization could be achieved by the division of work into a series of simple methods and operations. Taylor also believed that the average worker is not capable of being self-motivated. Taylor started that the worker is interested in doing only what is minimally required by the management. So, Taylor argued that in addition to redesigning and simplifying the tasks, increased productivity could be activated by a system of incentives for hard work. Taylor proposed the introduction of bonus system to reward workers who exceeded the minimum work expected of them. In this regard, Taylor’s most specific contribution was his measuring day’s work and introduction of most in studies and many complex methods of determining wages.

4.6.1 Objectives of Scientific Management:

Scientific management, has clear objectives Taylor enunciated the aims of scientific management as follows:
1. To study industrial tendencies and the market trends in order to regularize operations to conserve the investment, sustain the enterprise as an employing agency and assure continuous operation and employment.
2. To earn through waste-saving management and processing techniques, a larger income which will be shared by the workers and management.
3. To assure the employee, not only continuous employment by correct analysis of the market trends but also to assure him continuous income while on the job.
4. To assure a happier home and social life, to workers through eliminating disagreeable and worrying factors from the work situation and also by increasing their income.
5. To ensure a higher standard of living as a result of increased income to workers.
6. To assure an opportunity for the workers to improve their capacity through the scientific methods of work analysis and also through selection, training, assignment, transfer and promotion of workers.
7. To assure health as well as individually and socially decent conditions of work.
8. To develop the qualities of self-expression and self-realization among the workers through undertaking simulative research and evaluation, though understanding of plans and methods, and through the freedom of developing contacts afforded by the organization.
9. To assure by training and instructional foremanship the opportunity for workers to develop new and higher capacities and skills for promotion to higher positions.
10. To help the workers to develop self-confidence and self-respect through providing them with an opportunity for understanding their work.
11. To promote equal justice through the elimination of discrimination in wage rates etc.
12. To develop characteristic qualities through the proper conduct of work. To build the spirit of team work among the workers.
13. The standard time prescribed for each operation can be used as the task for each workman to achieve. Each unit of product can be produced at a designated standard of efficiency and at a standard cost.

4.7 Taylor’s Principles of Scientific Management:

The Scientific management stressed rationality, predictability, specialization and technical competence. Its focus was on the design and operation of production processes on the ‘shop’ level of the organization. Taylor’s identifies the basic social problem of his day as one of inefficiency. His objective is to increase efficiency by eliminating the difference between what is done by a “first-class” worker and an ordinary worker through high wages and low labour costs.

Taylor argues that traditional styles of management, which employ coercive methods of supervision and an incentive system that discourage efficiency by lowering the wages and increased productivity, combine to faster systematic soldiering. Taylor contends that too much responsibility was placed on the worker but too little on the management. Under this management system a worker was simply hired and assigned specific tasks with little training or guidance from management. The result is inefficiency, the workers were not likely to know how best to perform their assigned tasks. To remove these deficiencies, Taylor proposes a management approach embodying a radically altered division of responsibilities between the management and workers.

Taylor argues that there are two kinds of workmen; first-class workers and second-class workers. The first class workers are able and willing to do a task efficiently Taylor maintains that every man is a first-class worker at some kind of work. A second – class workers, is physically able to perform a task, but will not do so because of his laziness. Taylor disliked second-class worker. Management have responsibility to identify and develop first-class workers and place them in suitable positions, provide them with good working conditions and appropriate implements, and give them detailed instructions on the best methods of performing their tasks.

Taylor believed in utilizing the knowledge of the workers in the performance of their tasks, he realized that they were not capable of developing a science of management. The management should become efficient before expecting efficiency from the workers. Taylor suggests that authority has to be exercised through scientific laws, not as expressions of arbitrary rule. Taylor argued that the scientific management is to be implemented through the enforcement of standard methods, adoption of the best implements and achievement of cooperation among the management and workers.
Taylor summarizes in this statement on the principles of scientific management. These principles are;

4.7.1 The Development of a True Science of Works:

This needs a scientific investigation of a large daily task to be done by gathering traditional knowledge of the workers which is his life-long fixed capital and a most valuable property. The results of investigations have to be classified tabulated and reduced into rules and laws to find out the ideal working methods or what is called ‘one best way of doing job’

4.7.2 Scientific Selection of Workman:

To ensure the effective performance of the scientifically developed work, there is also need to select the worker scientifically possessing physical and intellectual qualities.

4.7.3 Training to the worker:

Taylor insisted that every worker must be systematically and thoroughly trained. He felt that it is the responsibility of the management to develop the worker offering him opportunities for advancement to do the job to the fullest realization of his natural capacities.

4.7.4 Functional Foremanship:

Taylor advocated for division of work between manager and worker thus, favoured a complete separation of planning function from doing function. He proposed using specialized experts known as “functional foreman”, each of whom was to be responsible for some specific aspect of the worker’s task, such as finding the best machine speed, deciding on job priorities or inspecting the work. The worker was to take orders from each of these foremen, depending upon whether the matter concerned plan machine speed or inspecting.

The scientific management science would replace rule of thumb, harmony would replace friction, team work would replace individual efforts, maximum output would replace minimum output and each worker would be developed to his efficiency and prosperity. Taylor devoted his lifetime to develop a science of management. Taylor discovered a serious of innovations pertaining to the machinery of production, the organizational environment and the people who used the machinery of production, the organizational environment and the people who used the machinery. In order to successfully implement the philosophy of the above stated principles in the actual working of an organization, Taylor advocated the following techniques:

4.8 Time and Motion Study:

Taylor believes that the basic cause of inefficiency is the ignorance on the part of management as to the proper time required to perform a task and systematic soldiering on the part of workers. According to scientific management is to establish appropriate standards for task performance. These standards are to be based on scientific analysis of tasks performed using the best methods rather than through observation of actual performance in the work-place.

The primary tool of analysis in these investigations is time-and-motion studies. The general procedure employed in time and motion studies is to break down physical
activities into various component, specify the best routine for the performance of each component, and finally discover the most efficient method for recombining these parts into the more complex task. Especially time and motion studies involve the following steps;
A. The worker is provided with the best implements and is appropriately placed.
B. The task is divided into different units and the task is analyzed.
C. A skilled worker while performing his task with the aid of stopwatch. The objective is to discover the quickest and best method for making each elementary element. Such investigation is to be guided by a series of “principles” of physical activity.
D. The proper method of task performance is describe, record the time required to perform the task is determined.
E. The elementary movements of the task are grouped in an appropriate sequence to maximize overall efficient task performance.
F. An allowance is made for unavoidable delays. Taylor asserts that 20 to 27 percent should be added to the actual working time to allow for unavoidable delays.
G. Allowance should be made for rest and the intervals of rest is required by every worker to recover from physical fatigue and also allowance should be made for the time a new employee takes to learn the job.

The main element involved in the time and motion studies are thus the specification of the nature of a task, the time required for the performance of the task accounting to the capacity, speed and durability of the workers, how the task is to be done. Performance standards should be set basing on the performance of a first-class worker and that of an average worker with the standards being gradually increased as the worker becomes more familiar with the system.

4.9 Wages-Incentive System:

Taylor’s incentive system distinguished feature is the prior establishment of standards of work performance through time and motion studies. Taylor felt that the actual method of reward was relatively unimportant part of the system. Taylor’s opinion, factors such as, special incentives, higher wages shorter working hours, better working conditions and individual rewards for the worker based on performance overshadow the importance of the specific method of payment. Taylor’s basic approach to incentives is, first, to give each worker a definite task with detailed instructions and an exact time standard for the performance of each element of the task. When this has been accomplished, the worker is to be paid extraordinary wages for performing the task in the allotted time and ordinary wages if the allotted time is exceeded. Taylor felt that the primary reason for the failure of previous incentive systems had been that they did not start with a good knowledge of the time required to perform a task. Taylor objected to profit sharing system as proposed by Towne and Halsey. Thus, Taylor evolved an incentive system which is based on prior standards of work performance with each worker rewarded on an individual basis his performance.

So, under Taylor’s incentive system, success rewarded by higher pay and failure is penalized by financial loss. Nevertheless, Taylor’s system is distinguished from other systems of incentives because it is based on prior knowledge of what constituted a good work.

4.10 Functional Organization:

Taylor’s prescriptions for organizational structure are a radical departure from the past ones. Previously, the military model of organization had prevailed, stressing unity of command at each level of the organization and culminating in a single executive at the top of an organization. Under this system, the foreman is responsible for a wide range of functions including hiring, training, supervising, and punishing his subordinates.
Taylor believed this arrangement as very deficient in two regards. Firstly, it demands an undue amount of technical expertise from the top management. Secondly, it expects too much from the foremen and, as a result, removes direct control by management over the workers. According to Taylor four different categories of functional foremen are to be appointed in the planning department. They are the route clerk, the instruction card man, the time clerk, and the disciplinarian. Taylor also suggested the appointment of more categories of function for foremen. These foremen should be assigned to the shop and made responsible for the proper execution of the plan. These foremen are called the gang boss, the speed boss, the inspection foreman and the repair boss. The gang boss is to setup the job, organize and situate the required machinery, give instruction cards to the workers, and route the work through the shop. The speed boss is to see to it that machinery are run at the proper speed and that the appropriate tools are used. The inspection foreman is to examine the products and ensure that they conform to standards. The repair boss is to be responsible for the adjustment, cleanliness, and general care of the machines, and he is to keep a record of repair and maintenance.

The three components, time and motion study, wage incentive system and functional organization constitute the core of Taylor’s scientific management. Scientific management requires a “Mental revolution” on the part of both management and workers as science replaces rule-of-thumb and mutual confidence between management and workers replaces “suspicious watchfulness”. Taylor embarked on a campaign to promote the spread of scientific management in the early 1900s. The route clerk is to oversee the work flow, study specific jobs and decide the best method of doing them, indicate the tools to be used, make a chart showing the course of work through the shop and finally determine the order on which various jobs are to be done. The instruction card man is, to study the drawings and worksheets prepared by the route clerks, prepare detailed instructions for the performance of each operation, and indicate the length of time required for each operation. The time clerk is to be responsible for preparing pay and written reports, reviewing time cards to determine eligibility for bonus, and allocating work costs to the proper accounts. Finally, the disciplinarians is to review the troubles which arose between workers and their bosses, hire and fire, and attend to other personal matters.

4.11 Mechanisms of Management:

It is important to note that Taylor distinguished between “principles” of management and “mechanisms” of management. Some of the mechanisms advocated by Taylor and listed as follows:
A. The use of the stop-watch which was essential for the technique of time study.
B. The use of time-saving devices, e.g. slide rules.
C. Standardization of all tools and techniques used in trades.
D. The use of instruction card system to record what to do and how to do particular tasks.
E. Adoption of proper classification system of manufactured products as well as implements used in the manufacturing process.
F. Use of the bonus system for the successful performance of the task.
G. Promotion of modern costing system.

4.12 Impact of Scientific Management:

It is significant to mention that, scientific management brought a drastic change in the whole approach towards the management of industries. The impact of the
movement was felt through the overall improvement in industrial management. The impact of scientific management was felt not only labour but also on management. More accurate control system and planning was evolved. The movement also provided guidelines to the management to develop an effective organization. Taylor was the first management thinker to stress the concept of research and use of standards in management.

4.13 Criticism on Taylor’s Scientific Management:

Taylor, while, in developing scientific management, made remarkable contributions to the understanding of the management of organizations. Yet, he is probably better characterized as a synthesizer than an innovator. That is, Taylor’s contributions was less than introduction of new ideas than the integration of existing ideas into a coherent system. In this synthesis, Taylor extended the perspectives of both the engineers and industrial reformers. Taylor advanced the cause of systematic investigation by the precision of his measurements, which replaced the reliance on rules-of-thumb. Scientific management was clearly a movement right for its time, and its impact is still evident, particularly in industrial engineering.

But, Taylor’s scientific management theory is limited both in its scope and its scientific accomplishments. In its scope, Taylor’s scientific management neglects the impact of factors external to the organization and considers only some factors internal to the organization. Taylor never extended his technical studies much beyond the shop level. The broader financial aspects of the firm were of little concern to him. Taylor’s sole venture into the broader areas of management at manufacturing investment corporation was something less than a stunning success, and he developed a reputation among those who employed him as having a talent for “making money fly”. Taylor gave the impression that he would pursue efficiency regardless of the cost, and his techniques, suffer from an excess of their virtues.

Taylor has been most profoundly, and perhaps unfairly, condemned for an alleged neglect of the human factor in the organization. It is fairer to state that Taylor operated on the basis of a limited set of assumptions about the nature of man and his relationship to the organization. Taylor assumed at least implicitly, that the ordinary worker was only segmentally involved in the organization. Taylor assumed that worker would rationally pursue his self-interest relatively uncontaminated by his feelings, attitudes, and private goals. Given this image of man and his relationship to the organization, Taylor assumed that behavior could be predicted by proper manipulation of monetary incentives. This review is not so much wrong as it is perusal.

Taylor was not only entirely successful in achieving his scientific objectives. Although Taylor claimed that scientific management is “a true science resting upon clearly defined laws, rules, and principles”, the claim is of dubious validity Taylor defined science simply as “classified knowledge”, and scientific management would seem to qualify by this definition. However, Taylor’s claim of having arrived out clearly defined laws, rules, and principles are more difficult to support, even more critically, Taylor never arrived at scientifically determined standards of work performance or rates of compensation. The performance standards evolved by Taylor did not reflect the “one best way” of performing a job. Instead, the prescribed methods were “state-of-the-art solutions subject to change on the discovery of a better method. The choice of an actual standard by which to evaluate work performance was similarly arbitrary. Since no two men work exactly at the same speed, work standards were to be set at some unspecified point between the performance of the observed first-class workman and the average workman. The matter of an appropriate division of reward was left unsettled and
remained a major point of contention between Taylor and how critics, particularly the labour unions.

Taylorism was also often attacked by the managers. Those who wanted quick promotions to the high managerial position without any merit based on higher education opposed Taylor’s stand, which advocated training by highly trained experts. The managers “did not appreciate his scornful comments on rule-of-thumb method. Those who had fought their way to high managerial positions without the benefit of higher education were sensitive to Taylor’s stand that unless assisted by highly trained experts, they were unqualified to manage”. It is very interesting to note that Taylor had to resign from both Midvale steel works and Bethlehem steel, because of the friction with the company managers.

Elton Mayo through his classic Howthorne investigations conclusively proved that it not the structural arrangements of the organization which are important for increasing productivity and efficiency in the organization. But it is the emotional attitude of the worker towards his work and his colleagues Taylor’s philosophy that men were generally lazy and try to avoid work has also been disputed. It is evident from Brown’s analysis that “work is an essential part of man’s life, since it is the aspect of life which gives him status and binds him to the society. When they do not like it, the fault lies in the psychological and social conditions of the job, rather than the worker”.

Behaviouralists charged that Taylor’s methods of scientific management sacrifices the initiative of the worker, his individual freedom and the use of his intelligence and responsibility. Herbert A. Simon have described the scientific management as the “physiological organization theory”.

4.14 Conclusion:

Despite the limitations concerning an adequate understanding of human psychology, sociology and the anatomy of work –Taylor’s work remains supremely important. Also the obvious contribution of scientific management was the overall improvement in factory or industrial management. By all accounts, Taylor must be regarded as a pioneer in the study of human beings at work. He was the first person to initiate the quest for the better performance at work. He was also first to apply quantitative techniques to the study of industrial management. Modern scientific management operations research, method study, time study, systems analysis, management by exceptions etc., are all part of Taylor’s heritage.

Taylor’s scientific management become something of a movement. In an age of growing achievement in the physical sciences, it offered the hope of resolving industrial problems through the use of objective principles. For young and imaginative engineers, it provided an ethos and a mission in life. After the initial period of resistance, it conquered the citadels of old fashioned industrial management in the United States and had a tremendous effect on industrial practice. It even spread to Germany, England, France, USSR and other European countries. Scientific Management was supported in Russia and Taylor’s principles were included in the curriculum of the education and training of the engineers.

Taylor, in brief, combined theory and practice, thought and experiment and doing and teaching all in one person. And in one life. His scientific management had a major influence on the growing reform and economy movement in public administration.
4.15 Model Questions:

1. Examine the contribution of F.W. Taylor to the development of management though with special reference to his Scientific Management Theory.
4. What are the important features of Scientific Management focusing on the contribution of F.W. Taylor.

4.16 Reference Books:

Lesson-05

Administrative Management Theory: Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick

5.0. Objectives:

1. Students would be able to know about contributions of Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick.
2. Students would be able to describe Principles of Administrative Management and its critiques.

Structure:

5.0. Objectives
5.1 Introduction
5.2 Life of Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick
5.3 Importance of Classical Theories
5.4 Luther Gulick Ideas
5.5 Importance of structure
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5.8 Luther Gulick Principles of Organization
5.8.1 Planning
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5.10 Ingredients of Classical Theory
5.10.1 Division of Work
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5.14 References

5.1 Introduction:

Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick had rich experience in the working of the civil service, military organizations and industrial undertakings. It is because of this, that one finds continued references to discipline and efficiency in their writings. They even borrowed certain concepts like line staff from the military organization. They were greatly influenced by the writings of F.W. Taylor and Henry Fayol. Their work entitled 'Papers on the Science of Administration' (1937) was considered as an important landmark in the evolution of public administration.
5.2 Life of Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick:

Luther Halsey Gulick was born in Osaka, Japan in the year 1892. He obtained his Doctorate from Columbia University in 1950. He served in various capacities as a consultant to the defense and civil services. He was a member of the "President’s Committee on Administrative Management". He wrote several books and research articles to his credit, the notable among them are: Administrative Reflections from World War II, Metropolitan problems and American Ideas, Modern Management for the city of New York, and papers on the Science of Administration.

Lyndall Fownes Urwick was born in Britain in 1891 and was educated at the Oxford University. Urwick was Lt. Colonel during the First World War in the British Army, associated with a number of International Management Associations and was considered to be an outstanding consultant on industrial Management. He has published several books like Management of Tomorrow, The Making of Scientific Management, The Elements of Administration: The Patterns of Management and Leadership in the 20th Century Organizations, Dynamic Administration and Freedom and coordination one notable feature in the writings of these authors is the importance they attached to the structure of administration while almost neglecting the role played by men in the organization. Urwick remarks that "it is impossible for humanity to advance its knowledge of organization unless the factor on structure is isolated from other considerations however, artificial such isolation may appear". He traces a large proportion of friction and confusion in society, with its major consequences, and to fault structural arrangements obtained in organizations.

5.3 Importance of Classical Theories:

A group of human beings coming to together to achieve a common objective gives rise to organization. Every human organization has a purpose. According to Urwick is defined simply as “determining what activities are necessary to any purpose and arranging them in groups which may be assigned to individuals”. Human history from its food gathering stage to the modern computer or jet age has passed through several phases. While, in the early stages when life was simple and man was engaged in the basic struggle for survival and had a very limited objective, the organization was relatively simple. It was the industrial revolution which marked the beginning of complex organization. Increase in the production brings changes in human values and calls for new adoption an adjustment. It is in the wake of such developments the organization passed through critical and crisis period.

The classical theorists’ advocated hierarchy which they believed would improve productivity and enhance the control of managers over the subordinates. Underlying these theories are two important assumptions.
A) It is possible and desirable to create closed organization whose internal operators are relatively unaffected by forces outside the organization.
b) Human beings can be trained and directed to perform their job efficiently if they are rewarded materially.

The classical theories highlighted the focus and locus of the field of public administration. The focus of field was on the expertise in the form of administrative principles. The locus of the field was everywhere. The principles of administration are principles, because they work in any administrative setting, irrespective of its culture, traditions, environment, mission and they could be applied successfully in any setting. The classical thinkers described the organization in terms of how work was divided and how specialization of tasks could be achieved. The division of work was the foundation
of an organization and was the reason for creating it. Today, public administrators are considered organizational chart specialists, view administration written the framework of the formal organizational pattern. The classical theories have greatly contributed to the study of formal organizations as units of analysis.

5.4 Luther Gulick Ideas:

The publication of “Papers on the Science of Administration by Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick has marked the ‘high-noon’ of public Administration. The landmark study of these two theorists boosted the prestige of public administration. These papers made an effort to understand the basic cause which made human beings resort to organization. Luther Gulick agreed that the basic cause for the genesis of an organization was division of work. He maintained ‘every large scale or complicated enterprise required many men to carry it forward. Wherever, many men are thus working together, the best results are secured when there is a division of work among these men’. He added that “the theory of organization has to do with the structure of – coordination imposed upon the work-division units of an enterprise. Hence, it is not possible to determine how an activity is to be organized without, at the same time considering how the work in question is to be divided”. He concluded, “Work division is the foundation of organization, indeed, the reason for organization”. As a result he had to divide the work and it was this division of work, according to Gulick, which was the cause for the genesis of organization.

In contrast to Luther Gulick’s argument, James, D. Mooney in his article included in “Papers on Science of Administration” maintained, it was co-ordination, the fundamental principle of any human organization. Mooney writes, “the term organization, and the principles that govern it, are inherent in every form of concerted human effort, even where not more than two persons involved. Taylor and Fayol formulated some of these principles, Luther Gulick and Urwick discussed them in detail. The Principles that find a place in the classical approach are: Hierarchy, unity of command, span of control, basis of departmental organization, line and staff, delegation and decentralization etc. Each of these principles is intended to provide the linkages between various functionaries at different levels of an organization.

The aim of each principle is to raise the level of efficiency of the organization. For this purpose, human beings are required to be organized. In this process, the principle of ‘hierarchy’ arranges the human beings into various levels and also indicates who should issue orders and who should obey them. These principles bring in the distribution of work based on the position one is occupying and level of expertise he possesses. The people who have higher degree of specialization occupy the higher position and lower degree of specialization, the lower levels.

5.5 Importance of structure:

The classical approach emphasizes on the effectiveness of a group of human beings depends upon the type of structure in which they are operating. The structure to them is basic for any group effort. The structure, they believe, is capable of reducing the diversity in human nature and fits them into pattern where they have to respond according to the needs and demands of the organization. It also believes that a human being would adjust and adopt himself to the needs and expectations of the organization.

5.6 Universality of experience:

The claims of classical approach for a theoretical status is based on its faith that the principles that are enunciated are universally valid. Mooney observes that “there is
no principle in industrial organization as such that is not to be found in all the other spheres, but it is erroneous to infer that industrial organizers have borrowed these principles of organization from the older forms”. He emphasized that “a principle, if it is truly such, is a universal, and a universal cannot be borrowed. It simply has a way of applying itself, and this is ever true, by whatever name we may be pleased to call it. The classical approach on the contrary, formulated the principles in such a way that they are based on the premises that the underlying processes in the organizational structure and its working are the same and, therefore universal. It is maintained that there is a specific area in organization which can be separated from its environmental context and developed in such a way that it has universal application.

5.7 Scientific Validity:

The principles of organization were developed based on experience gained in military and industrial organizations. The proponents of these principles are those who had rich experience in a variety of organizations. They formulated them after considerable observation of working with human organizations. In other words, the principles have come to be propounded not from philosophical exercises or figments of the imagination but from rigorous empirical observations. The classical approach is thus based on the premise that these principles have scientific validity.

5.8 Luther Gulick Principles of Organization:

Inspired by earlier management thinkers particularly, F.W. Taylor and Henry Fayol, Gulick and Urwick developed the classical theory of organization on the basis of their belief that a science of administration is possible if certain principles are evolved basing on the practical experience of administrators. But, the notable feature of the theories constructed by these two authors is that they overemphasized the structure and process of organization giving least importance to human beings working in it. Gullick identified 4 basis of departmental organization (popularly known as 4 p): Purpose, Process, Person and Place.

The principles of organization which are advocated by Luther Gulick as below:
1. Division of work
2. Basis of departmental organizations
3. Coordination through hierarchy
4. Deliberate coordination
5. Coordination through committees
6. Decentralization
7. Staff and line
8. Unity of Command
9. Delegation
10. Span of control

Among the ten principles of administration listed out, Gulick lays special emphasis on division of work. According to him large scale organizations require many men to carry out their different tasks. Wherever many men work together best results can be achieved when there is a division of work among these men. The theory of organization, therefore, has to do with the promotion of coordination among different units of an organization created by the principle of division of work. Thus, Gullick says that “division of work and integration are the boot straps by which mankind lifts in the process of civilization”.

Gullick made up an acronym POSDCORB which indicates those universal functions which every administrator should accomplish. Each letter in the POSDCORB stands for a task to be performed by the Chief Executive in the organization.
POSDCORB, each letter of which stands for a particular function i.e., P-stands for Planning, O-stands for Organization, S-stands for Staffing, D-stands for Directing, CO-stands for Co-ordination, R-stands for Reporting, B-stands for Budgeting.

5.8.1 Planning:

It needs a broad outline of the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them to accomplish the purpose or the goal of the organization.

5.8.2 Organization:

Establishment of a formal structure of authority through which division of work is done defined and coordinated for the achievement of the goals of organization.

5.8.3 Staffing:

The whole personnel function of selecting and training the staff and maintaining favourable conditions of work.

5.8.4 Directing:

This is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise.

5.8.5 Coordinating:

The important duty of interrelating the various parts of the work.

5.8.6 Reporting:

Keeping those to whom the executive is responsible, informed about what is going on which includes keeping himself and his subordinates informed through records, research and inspection.

5.8.7 Budgeting:

All the activities connected with the planning, accounting and control.

In way POSDCORB outlines, an operational philosophy for public administration that has three consequences i.e.,

A. The division of work, both functionally and structurally is the primary mode for organizing public administration activities.

B. There is an assumption, that Woodrow Wilson dichotomy between politics and administration, with a particular emphasis on the democratic those and the political context.

C. Efficiency in terms of best utilization of resources appropriate to the larger political context has permanent value for public administration.

5.9 Lyndall Urwick Principles of Organization:

Lyndall Urwick identified eight principles of Administration to all organizations.

The principles are:

1. The principle of objectives, that the organization should have a clear goal.
2. The principle of correspondence, that the authority and responsibility should be equal.
3. The principle of responsibility, that the superior is absolutely responsible for the work of subordinates.
4. The scalar principle that a pyramedical type of structure is built up in an organization.
5. The principle of span of control
6. The principle of specialization, that the limiting one’s work to a single function.
7. The principle of coordination
8. The principle of definition, that the clear prescription of every duty.
5.10 Ingredients of Classical Theory:

From the above discussions, the following points came to the fore. These are also known as pillars of classical organization theory.

5.10.1 Division of Work:

The division of work implies that work must be divided to obtain a clear cut specialization with a view to improve the performance of the organization. This brings about specialization. The more specialized a worker becomes in fulfilling his particular job, the more efficient the whole organization will be. For division of work, it is necessary to identify the work to be accomplished. Fayol has identified six such functions i.e., technical, commercial, financial, security, accounting and managerial.

5.10.2 Departmentalization:

Division of work is followed by its assignment to the individuals responsible for its performance. The classical theorists are concerned primarily with the way in which the work is assigned to the individuals so that their specialization can be used effectively. Gulick and Urwick have suggested four alternative basis for grouping work, purpose, process, persons and place.

5.10.3 Co-ordination:

Co-ordination is the orderly arrangement of group effort to provide unity of action in pursuit of common purpose with economy and efficiency. All persons in the organization contribute to the organizational efficiency and this efficiency will be maximum when such individual’s efficiency is maximized and integrated. According to classical theorists, in its formalized model of the departmentalization, problems of coordination are eliminated because while set of activities to be performed is decided in advance and these activities are assigned to organizational units, the problem is solved.

5.10.4 Human Behavior in Organizations:

These theorists take human beings in the organization as an inert instrument performing the tasks assigned to them. Further, there is a tendency to view personnel giver rather than a variable in the organization. To them, the employees put maximum work if they are satisfied, as such the remuneration and methods of payment should be fair and provide maximum satisfaction to employees and employers. Thus, physiological satisfaction is the basis work performance and efficiency.

5.11 Classical Theories: A Critical Review:

Even though the classical theories represented by the work of Gulick and Urwick have had a significant impact on administrative theory, they were severely attacked by several scholars for their weaknesses and failures. Particularly, the principles of administration proposed by the classical theorists like Gulick and Urwick were subjected to scathing attack. Herbert Simon criticized the principles of classical theory point-by-point. Simon’s most basic argument is that the principles of administration offered by Gulick and Urwick are actually a series of contradictory proverbs which are valid only as universal statements about organizations and their operations. He also contended that for almost every principle there would be an equally acceptable contradictory principle. He pointedly criticized the five important principles proposed by the classical theorists...
i.e., unit of command, span of control, hierarchy of authority, specialization and the four bases of departmental organization. Simon asserted that all modern organizations are marked by increased specialization and workers often take orders directly or indirectly from specialists as well as supervisory personnel. Similarly, organizations are subjected to inherent internal conflicts which are eventually ignored by the classical thinkers. Simon pointed out that grouping of organizations according to the four means i.e., purpose, process, clientele and place is internal inconsistent. Because they are mutually competitive bases and the advantages of the fourth. Simon also argued that there is great difficulty in specifying exactly what these four terms might mean.

Robert Merton says that, in the classical theory, the techniques used to secure reliability include standard operation procedures and constant supervision. To him, this results in reduction in the amount of personalized relationships in the organization. James Thomson another critic of classical theory claims that the value of this theory is limited not only because its specific prescriptions are not universally applicable but also because it predicted the organization as a closed system model. According to Thomson the classical theorists like Gulick and Urwick are concerned with factors internal to the organizations. Their perspective gives little credence to the possibility that the larger co-social, cultural, political and economic environment within which organizations exist has an effect on their operations and effectiveness. Another criticism of classical theory concerns with the view that the most vital component of the organization i.e., man was ignored by the classical theorists. It was argued that the neglect of human factor and lack of behavioral analysis made the classical theory atomistic and voluntaristic. It was also criticized that its obsession with the normative aspects of the functioning of organizations led to its neglect of study of the actual and informal behavioral patterns that exist in all the organizations.

Finally, as one critic pointed some of the Gulick’s and Urwick’s positions appear to be value commitments rather than scientific statements. Particularly, Gulick’s supported for a strengthened and integrated executive branch is a case inpoint. Gulick contends that his executive leadership will lead to more efficient and effective administration and will result in a higher degree of democratic control.

5.12 Conclusion:

The classical approach is mainly response to rising capitalism in the west. It has been propounded to ensure efficiency and economy to step up production. It is almost a pioneering attempt to systematize human organizational experience. It is from empirical observations that the principles of organization are evolved. Their contribution stands as an important transition between the earlier administrative theorists and later scholars, who like Herbert Simon, urged a more empirical and analytical approach to the study of administration. No doubt, there are vehement criticisms against Gulick’s and Urwick’s ideas, but these criticisms could not diminish the significance of the contribution made by the two thinkers to the development of administrative theory. They have defined the focus of public administration which remains as a central theme in the discipline. The classical approach attempted to systematize organizational experience and paved the way for subsequent break-through in conceptual development. It also provided the stimulus for a lively debate. All these factors make the approach important and relevant to the study of public administration.
5.13 Model Questions.

1. Critically evaluate the contribution made by Gulick and Urwick to the administrative theory.
2. Attempt a critique on the principles of public administration evolved by Gulick and Urwick with reference to Herbert Simon’s criticism.
3. What are the main assumptions of Luther Gulick’s classical approach? How are they criticized by later scholars?

5.14 References:

Lesson-06

BUREAUCRATIC MODEL: MAX WEBER

6.0 Objectives:

1. Students would be able to understand the concept and model of Bureaucracy of Max Weber.
2. Students would be able to explain the elements and preferences of Weber's bureaucracy.

Structure:

6.0 Objectives
6.1 Introduction
6.2 Life
6.3 Authority, Organization and Legitimacy
   6.3.1 Legal Authority
   6.3.2 Traditional Authority
   6.3.3 Charismatic Authority
6.4 Bureaucracy
6.5 Weberian Model of Bureaucracy
   6.5.1 The Impersonal Order
   6.5.2 Rules
   6.5.3 Sphere of Competence
   6.5.4 Hierarchy
   6.5.5 Personal and Public Ends
   6.5.6 Written Documents
   6.5.7 Critical Analysis
6.6 Conclusion
6.7 Model Questions
6.8 References

6.1 Introduction:

Max Weber, a German historian and sociologist was the first social scientist who made a systematic study of bureaucracy and its characteristics. As a matter of fact his name has become synonymous with bureaucracy. He occupies an unique place in the galaxy of social scientists who have attempted to explain the concept of bureaucracy. Everyone is always remember Max Weber whenever there is a discussion on bureaucracy, Weberian Model of bureaucracy is a source of inspiration to thinkers on administration as it reflects the spirit of modern bureaucracy and is being used as a reference base for other models on bureaucracy. Max Weber's name became synonymous with bureaucracy for he enjoys a unique place in the galaxy of social scientists who have attempted to explain the concept of bureaucracy.

6.2 Life:

Max Weber was born in 1864 in a family of textile manufacturers in Western Germany. He studied law and joined the Berlin University as an instructor in law. He remained as academician for the rest of his life. He wrote a number of papers on law,
society, and the political and economic factors prevalent at that time. His contribution to the theory of bureaucracy is a significant one. In the study of administrative theories, Max Weber’s bureaucracy, depicting the structure of the administrative system, provides an influential conceptual framework and a close historical understanding. Max Weber has become a central figure of both an intellectual understanding and a controversial figure for more than hundred years of evolution of administrative sciences, as most of the thinkers either only attempted to contradict him or formulated theories based on his model. This makes him popular among the students of the sociology, political science and public administration alike.

6.3 Authority, Organization and Legitimacy:

Among Weber’s work on administration, his theories on domination, leadership and legitimacy merit special mention. He propounded these theories with a broad perspective, keeping in view of religion and society and the way they mould the pattern of leadership. Weber differentiated authority, power and control. For Weber, ‘authority’ was identical with the authoritarian power of common’. Weber has identified five essential components of authority.

A. An individual or a body of individuals who rule.
B. An individual or a body of individuals who are ruled.
C. The will of the rulers to influence the conduct of the rules and an expression of that will or command.
D. Evidence of the influence of the rulers in terms of the objective degree of command.
E. Direct or indirect evidence of that influence in terms of the subjective acceptance with which the ruled obey the command.

Authority exists as long as it is accepted as legitimate by the ruled. An organization thus, can rule or administer only when it has legitimacy. Explaining the authority of different kinds, in various organizations, Weber concluded that, “all administration means domination”. Weber categorized the persons in organizations as under:

A. Those who are personally interested in seeing the existing domination continue because they derive benefits.
B. Those who are accustomed to obey commands.
C. Those who hold themselves in readiness for the exercise of these functions.
D. Those who participate in that domination in the sense that the exercise of functions are divided among them.

Weber defined administration as domination or exercise of authority while, most other administrative scientists have defined it as service or performance of duty. Weber prescribed legitimacy into three types i.e., Legal authority, Traditional authority, Charismatic authority.

6.3.1 Legal Authority:

Manifestations of legal authority are found in organizations where rules are applied judicially and in accordance with ascertainable principles valid for all members in the organization. The members who exercise the power are the superiors and are appointed or elected by legal procedures to maintain the legal order. The persons subject to the commands are legal equals who obey ‘the law’. The ‘apparatus’ that implements the system of legal authority is also subject to the same principles. Thus organization is continuous and its members are subject to rules which delimit their authority with necessary controls over its exercise.
6.3.2 Traditional Authority:

Traditional authority drives its legitimacy from the acceptance of it’s since hoary post. The persons exercising authority generally are called “masters” who enjoy personal authority by virtue of their inherited status. Their commands carry legitimacy because of the customs, but they can also give orders based on their personal decision. Thus, conformity with customs and personal arbitrariness are two characteristics of traditional authority. The persons who obey the orders here are called ‘followers’. They carry the commands of the master out of sheer personal loyalty and a pious regard for his time-honoured status.

6.3.3 Charismatic Authority:

It is the power exercised by a leader whether a prophet, a hero or a demagogue-substantiating the claim by virtue of his magical powers or heroism or other extraordinary gift or qualities. Charisma and its acceptance forms the basis of legitimacy in this system. The persons who receive the command obey the leader, because they believe in his extraordinary abilities rather than the stipulated rules or the dignity or a position. The charismatic leader select his disciples or followers as his officials based purely on their personal devotion to him rather than on their special qualification or status. Weber believed that, all these types of authority claim legitimacy as long as the curled’ accept them. The authority ceases to be legitimate when the rulers act or do what is illegal, ignore the traditions and lose charisma respectively.

6.4 Bureaucracy:

The public offices in some form or other, were always adjuncts of organized Governments all over the world. For example, in China, even in 186 B.C., public offices existed and the personnel were recruited through competitive examinations even then. History is replete with instances and reasons to show that individuals appointed to government offices acquire some special characteristics, some of which were even universal.

It was M de Gourney, a French economist, who used the word bureaucracy for the first time, during the first half of the 18th century. Several French writers, after de Gourney, have popularized the word Bureaucracy while the British social scientists started using the word only in the 19th century. J.S. Mill, an eminent political economist, included bureaucracy in his series of analysis. Mosca and Michels are two important sociologists who wrote extensively on bureaucracy. Yet, one is reminded of Max Weber whenever, there is a discussion on bureaucracy. The simple reason for this is that Weber was the first social scientist who made a systematic study of bureaucracy and its characteristics. Weberian model of bureaucracy is a source of inspiration for many because it largely reflects the spirits of modern bureaucracy. That is the reason Weberian model is being used as reference base for other models on bureaucracy.

Weber never defined bureaucracy, he only described its characteristics. To him bureaucracy is “an administrative body of appointed officials”. Thus, in bureaucracy, he included explicity appointed officials leaving the elected ones only. As in the case of authority, Weber categorized bureaucracy into 1) patrimonial bureaucracy found in traditional and charismatic types of authority and 2) Legal rational bureaucracy found only in legal type of authority. The characteristics of legal-rational bureaucracy popularly known as Weberian model of bureaucracy are analysed further. Thus, the whole system of organization, including all those who occupy various positions from top to bottom are also subjected to same principles what govern the organizational behavior. Weber explains five related beliefs on which legal authority depends. They are:
1. That a legal code can be established this can claim obedience from members of the organization.
2. That the law is a system of abstract rules which are applied to particular cases and that administration looks after the interests of the organization within the limits of that law.
3. That only the person as a member of the organization obeys the law.
4. That the man exercising authority also obeys this impersonal order.
5. That obedience is due not to the person who holds authority but to the impersonal order which has granted him this position.

These five elements substantiate the view that Weber laid greater stress on the relationship between legitimacy and impersonal order. Four factors seem to have mainly influenced Weber in his wide range discussion on bureaucracy. They are: A) The historical, technical and administrative reason for the process of bureaucratization particularly in Western civilizations. B) The impact of the rule of law upon the functioning of bureaucratic organization C) The occupational position and typical personal orientation of bureaucratic officials as an elite group, and D) the most important attributes and consequences of bureaucracy in the modern world, particularly of governmental bureaucracy.

6.5 Weberian Model of Bureaucracy:

Weber states that, bureaucracy is an 'administrative body of appointed officials'. While distinguishing the term, he explains that, 'No exercise of authority can be purely bureaucratic unless it is done purely through contractually engaged and appointed officials. The bureaucracy in its most rational form has the following fundamental characteristics.

1. Official tasks are organized on continuous and regulated basis.
2. These tasks are divided into functionally distinct spheres, each furnished with the requisite authority and sanctions.
3. Every office and every official is part of a hierarchy of authority. Higher officials or offices supervise while offices and officials have the right to appeal.
4. The rules according to which work is conducted may be either technical or legal. In both cases trained persons are necessary.
5. The resources of the organization are quite distinct from those of the member as private individuals.
6. The holder of offices cannot appropriate his office
7. Administration is conducted based on written documents.

In this model of bureaucracy, Weber also discussed in detail the characteristics of the official which are as follows.

A. He is personally free and appointed to an official position on the basis of a contract.
B. He exercises the authority delegated to him in accordance with impersonal rules, and his loyalty is expressed through faithful execution of his official duties.
C. His appointment and job placement depend upon his technical qualifications.
D. His administrative work is his full-time occupation.
E. His work is rewarded by a regular salary and by prospects of regular advancement in a lifetime career.

The above features constitute Max Weber's ideas but popular pure and most rational type of bureaucracy. Weber considered rational bureaucracy as a major element in the rationalization of the modern world. For him, it is most important of all social processes. Martin Albrow pointed out in his context that among other things, this process involved growing recession and explicitness in the principles governing social organizations. Weber maintains that "The fully developed bureaucratic mechanism compares with other organizations exactly as does the machine with the non mechanical
modes of production. Weber through that the legal-rational bureaucracy is technically superior to all other administrative systems. Further, he stressed that the people once ruled by bureaucracy can never think of any other alternative. Hence, it is permanent and indispensable.

In Weberian mode; of bureaucracy, the main elements are:
a) The impersonal order
b) Rules
c) Sphere of competence
d) Hierarchy
e) Personal and public ends,
f) Written documents
g) Monocratic type. These elements are discussed in detail in the following:

6.5.1 The Impersonal Order:

In Weber’s ideal type construct of bureaucracy, the most striking and thought-provoking idea, he believed that ‘impersonal order’ should orient the actions of the bureaucrats both in the issuance of the commands to subordinates and their obedience to them. The stress on depersonalization relationships also plays its part in the bureaucrat’s trained incapacity.

6.5.2 Rules:

The fundamental characteristic of Weberian rational legal authority is the attribute of continuous organization of official functions bound by rules. The rules which regulate the conduct of an office may be technical rules or norms. Their rational application, however, requires specialized training. Rules become more important than the ‘game’. This apart, rules cause procedural delays as they create complications in administration.

6.5.3 Sphere of Competence:

According to Weber, a specified sphere of competence involves, a sphere of obligation to perform functions which have been marked off as part of a systematic division of labour; the provision of the incumbent with the necessary authority to carry out these functions; the clearly defined means of compulsion subject to definite conditions in their uses.

6.5.4 Hierarchy:

According to Weber, “the organization of offices follows the principle of hierarchy, that is, each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one.” Weber attaches greater importance to the principle of hierarchy in the organization of offices and also in regard to administrative staff.

6.5.5 Personal and Public Ends:

There is great amount of utility and relevance in Weber’s ideal type as far as it pleads for the separation of administrative staff from the ownership of the means of production. It also pleads for the complete absence of appropriation of official position by the incumbent. The necessary checks on the bureaucrats to prevent them from misusing their positions.
6.5.6 Written Documents:

The last principle of Weberian bureaucracy is that “the administrative acts, decisions and rules are formulated and recorded in writing even in cases where oral discussion is the rule or is even mandatory”. Documents make the administration accountable to people and provide a ready reference for future action.

6.5.7 Critical Analysis:

The criticism against bureaucracy mainly, stems from inherent weaknesses of the model itself. It is said that, the very advantages claimed by Weber are turned against his own model.

Among the critics Peter Blau, Warren G. Bennis, Chester Barnard, Philp Selzenick, Robert Merton, La Palambora, Talcott, R.V. Presthus, W. Delany and Simon are very prominent.

1. The regulation of official behavior of an employee through formal specifications automatically limits his capacity to adopt to changing circumstances not envisaged by those who drew up the rules. This would also indicate that Weber’s model fails to describe the effective role of officials. This is what is called trained in capacity of the officials.

2. The structure, its hierarchy and rules, which is rational in the Weberian sense can easily generate consequences, which are unexpected and detrimental to the attainment of objective of organization.

3. Weber ignored the environmental factors that influence the behavior of organization in their functioning.

4. Elements of bureaucratic organization, such as rules which conduce towards efficiency in general produce inefficiency in specific instances and in general, produce timidity, conservatism and techniques.

5. Weber’s concept of bureaucracy makes certain implicit assumptions about human motivation which are not necessarily valid in nor-western environments

6. Bureaucracy may lead to red-tapism, unnecessary delays and procedural rigmaroles.

7. In the context of welfare and developmental administration the bureaucratic model officers only negative benefits. It makes the official into a cog in the administrative machine with little scope for innovation.

8. The impersonal relations with clients and formal behavior with colleagues produce undesirable consequences. It is natural that informal relations and unofficial practices develop among the members of the organization, and these are highly significant in achieving the objectives of the organization. But Weber has totally ignored them.

6.6 Conclusion:

The critics have argued that, the Weberian modes of bureaucracy lacks empirical validity, particularly when it is related to modern administration. But Weber constructed his ideal type keeping in mind the conditions of Germany in mind during his times. To say that it does not suit the modern conditions is not appropriate because at the start of the 20th century, nobody including Weber could ever visualize the changes that have come about in the last six or seven decades which have altered the very nature of the society. Martin Albrow said that in terms of the influence it has exerted and the argument it has stimulated, Weber’s writing on bureaucracy is more important than the sum total of the contributions made by various social scientists on bureaucracy. Yet there is a dearth of detailed exposition of his work, as opposed to straight forward borrowing of particular ideas on the one hand, and critical discussions of some fragment of his writings on the other. Whatever, may be the criticism against Weber, his ideal type
bureaucracy has been, and is, the single most dominant, conceptual framework in the study of public administration. Weber provides a basic methodology and a framework to analyse the existing structures of various social organizations.

Today we see in practice in all societies of the world, Weber being proved correct when he said that the societies which are once governed by bureaucracy can never get rid of it. The Afro-Asian countries starting from India could get rid of the alien rules, but not the bureaucratic practices established by the colonial rulers.

Weberian model, no doubt includes both positive and negative elements. Elements such as selection through merit and technical qualifications and complete obscene of appropriation of official positions by the incumbents come under positive category. There are elements such as impersonal order, rules, written documents that form the negative category. As the negative elements are given greater importance in the model, the positive elements get gulped and enfeebled by the huge stream of negativism. Any one mention of the term ‘bureaucracy’ immediately brings to the fore, the name of Max Weber. He can be praise and criticized but he cannot be ignored.

6.7 Model Questions:

1. Critically evaluate the Weberian model of bureaucracy.
2. Examine the concept of Max Weber bureaucracy model.
3. Critically examine the elements of Max Weber bureaucracy preferences.

6.8 References:

6. Dr. Prasad Others (eds), Administrative Thinkers, Sterling Publishers, New Delhi, 1989.
Lesson-07

CONFLICT RESOLUTION: MARY PARKER FOLLETT

7.0 Objectives:

1. Students would be able to know about the conflict Resolution and contributions of resolutions of Mary Parker Follett.
2. Students would be able to learn about the Follett’s views on leadership, formal and informal Organizations and Principles of Planning.

Structure:

7.0 Objectives
7.1 Introduction
7.2 Constructive Conflict:
7.3 Base of Integration
7.4 Obstacles to Integration
7.5 Giving Orders
7.6 Leadership
7.7 The Psychology of Control
7.8 Management as a Profession
7.9 Individualism in a Planned Society
7.10 Conclusion
7.11 Model Questions
7.12 References:

7.1 Introduction:

Mary Parker Follett was a creative writer with a sporadic ability for give-away original ideas in a simple and understandable form. She was born in 1868 at Boston, in U.S.A. she occupies a very significant place in the assembly of administrative thinkers. She was influenced by the classical thinkers like Henry Fayol, Ordway Tead, Lyndall Urwick, and Oliver Sheldon. She established many principles of organizations and convened people about the practical usefulness of these principles in dealing with current social problems. She published The Speaker of the House of Representatives (1909), The New State (1920), Creative Experience (1924), and Dynamic Administration (1941); the last one was the posthumously edited by Metcalf and Urwick.

According to Mary Follett, battles in organizations are predictable. It gives rise to difference of opinions and interests. As such, conflict is neither good nor bad but provides opportunities for good or bad results. Follett pronounced that managers must learn to overcome conflict in a positive manner. She has recommended three methods to make a decision or dealing with organizational conflict. The first one is domination, which means, victory by one side over the other. The second method is compromise, that is, each side submits some part of what it wants it in an order to reach an understanding. The third one is most important aspect in solving the conflict is integration, by which a new solution is found which satisfies the real needs of both the sides and neither sides sacrifices anything. In domination, one side has to be overpowered by the other for resolving conflict, while in compromise, there is a mid-point settlement between the requirements and needs of both the parties a situation in which may not be quite pleasant to either party. Follett’s analysis suggests, integration is
measured to be the best means of determining conflict although it is not the easiest instrument to function, integration appears as possibly the best way by which conflict can be dealt with most productively. Integration involves awareness that human behavior is not linear but circular, and circular behavior is the significant to positive conflict. Moreover, the life of many people gets spotted in such a way that most people like to dominate over others. One more difficulty to integrate the matter in dispute is often over imagined, instead of being taken up as a proposed activity. Lastly, the greatest of all obstacles to integration is lack of training for the organizations.

Inspite of the problems come across in deciding conflict, she acknowledged that the managers should try to attain a state of integration, since it resolves conflict and also puts it in a constructive practice. Follett was the first to recognize and held fast to the view that the process of change that produces conflict also offers the opportunity for bringing about further changes which are essential to resolve the conflict.

7.2 Constructive Conflict:

Mary parker Follett accords an important place to the problems of conflict in her writing. She advances the idea of “Constrictive conflict recognizing there by that conflicts should be regarded as a normal process in any activity of an organisation by which socially valuable differences register themselves for the enrichment of all concerned.” To Follett, conflict is a moment in the interaction of desires. Just as there are destructive ways of dealing with such moments, there are also constructive ways. Conflict, as the moment of appearing and focusing of difference, may be a sign of health and a prophecy of progress. Drawing analogies from the universe, she says: all polishing is done by friction. The question then is, how to make conflict work constructively. Follett says, there are three ways of resolving a Conflict: domination, compromise and integration. Domination is a victory of one side over the other. This is easiest for the moment, it is not successful in the long run. Compromise is generally the way people settle most of their conflicts. Though the compromise is a widely accepted method of resolving conflicts, rarely people want to compromise, as this involves giving up something. Integration is the third method of resolving conflict. Here two desires are integrated, and neither side needs to sacrifice its desires. Follett consider that integration as a method of dealing with conflict has some advantages when compared to compromise. She says, that compromise does not create something new, leads to invention and to the emergence of new values. While pointing out the advantages of integration as a method of settling conflict, Follett is not unaware of the difficulties involved in achieving it. However, she asserts that the desire of the people to solve their problems through integration in itself is encouraging. If we are conscious of its advantages, we can try integration instead of compromise or domination.

7.3 Base of Integration:

Follett also discuss the bases of achieving integration. The first step towards achieving this, according to her, is to bring the differences into the open instead of suppressing them. Therefore, what is needed is to uncover, identify and understand the real issues involved in a conflict. This involves finding out the significant, rather than the dramatic features involved in a conflict or controversy. In this connection Identification of the most significant moments leads to the uncovering of the real conflict. The second step is the breaking up of the whole, i.e., to consider the demands of both sides involved in the conflict and to break them into their constituent parts. Anticipation of conflict is the third step. Anticipation of conflict does not mean the avoidance of conflict but responding to it difficultly. To Follett integration is like a game of chess. Anticipation of response is by itself not enough; there is need for preparation for response as well. This involves
building up of certain attitudes in the people. Response is of two types –circular and linear.

**7.4 Obstacles to Integration:**

Integration requires high intelligence, keen perception and discrimination, and a brilliant inventiveness. It is always easier to fight than to suggest better ways of doing a job. As long as intelligence and inventiveness are not there, resolving conflicts through integration would be difficult. Another obstacle is the people’s habit of enjoying domination. Follett says, that the people with such habit patterns always prefer domination to integration. One of the obstacle to integration is that often the problems are theoried instead of taking them as proposed activities or forgetting that disagreements will disappear if they stop theorizing, go on theorizing the problem on hand. Language use is one of the obstacle to integration. Language used, Follett says, must be favourable to reconciliation. Another obstacle to integration is the undue influence exerted by the leaders. Finally, the most important of all obstacles to integration is lack of training. Follett says, that in most cases there is a tendency to ‘push through’ or to ‘force through’ the plans, previously arrived at, based on preconceived notions. Therefore, she pleads that there should be courses to teach the art of cooperative thinking, to master the techniques of integration, both for workers and managers.

**7.5 Giving Orders:**

According to Miss Follett, orders cannot be given in simple manner, according to theorist belonging to classical organization such as Taylor, Fayol, Gullick and Urwick, important mechanisms of getting jobs done by the people includes giving command providing directions or issuing orders. Follett approved this concept, she suggested that, before giving orders three steps should be followed: a) developing responsible attitude (b) developing conscious attitude and (c) developing an experimental attitude. It is also to note that the very important variables in this regard are time, place and circumstances. Mental attitude and Habit Patterns must be built up with the help of sufficient training, especially in industrial organizations and business. Follett criticized the system of issuing orders, both by substance and method. According to Follett, a manager’s job is not just giving orders, he should learn to deploy workers so that they may accept orders without questioning. All the managers and the managed should follow the law. The study a particular situation must be a joint study which is undertaken by both managers and the managed. Besides, it should study the total situation because a part of a situation can never be managed effectively.

It seems to be an uncompromising truth, because neither managers capable of sharing or willing to share their power, nor the workers intelligent enough to contribute in decision making. Follett witnessed that managers must create an attitude required for cooperative study and decision making. Follett pronounced certain specific difficulties in issuing orders, and they are as follows:

A. Most of the workmen, particularly skilled ones, those who have a knowledge and pride about their work which makes them resent others telling them how to do it or even what to do in detail.

B. Generally, most people willingly work with others, but they dislike extremely to working under seniors.

C. Orders which are generally accepted may raise conflicts between obedience and liberty.
D. Issuing orders, especially detailed ones, removes responsibility from the person to whom the order is issued. Follett uttered that responsibility be spread as wide as possible.

E. An order which is in response to the law of the situation must be taken into account of developing situation and management's part in making it evolve. Follett views on issuing order noticed that there are number of inconsistencies in her proclamations. In this concern, she discoursed that managers must find the principles underlying the diverse ways of issuing orders and then choose which principles should be followed and ultimately note results.

7.6 Leadership:

Miss Follett had written two papers on leadership, the first one was entitled ‘Discrepancies in Leadership Theory and Practice’ and another one is ‘Leader and Expert’. A mutual relationship is the main characteristic of leadership, Follett held the conjecture that, the leader not only inspires his group, but is also influenced by it. The leader must also be influenced by the experts within the organization. A good leader creates group power rather than exercising personal power. Follett advocated that, the form of organization towards which business was nursing disheartens the indiscriminate use of power, because system based neither on equality nor on arbitrary authority, but on functional unity. In such a system, while making decisions, the voice of the experts are taken into justification by the leader.

In theory of leadership the leader had a convincing personality, uses personal power and obliges others to do his will, Follett suggested that, orders do not always directly arise from the leaders wishes, they arise from the situation of work, and the subordinates may contribute to this situation. In brief, leadership, in such situation goes to the man with the sound knowledge of the situation, who understands, its total importance and who can see it through. Follett expressed the importance of the fact that leaders are not just born, but in fact they could be developed through education and understanding dynamics and human behavior.

7.7 The Psychology of Control:

Miss Follett was presented an important paper on the subject of the psychology of control in March 1927. Before coming to an understanding of the mechanism of control, one should first try to know the nature of unities since effective unity by which organization causes can work out to control. According to Follett, Unity can determined not only by their components, but by the relating them with one another. Follett highlighted that the nature or reciprocal activity in creating unity, since the study of social situation will be insufficient it does not take this into account.

Generally, every social process has three interconnected aspects like, interacting, unifying and emerging. These three aspects work together to develop unity. Follett felt that in the real life, their influences cannot be separated form each other. The similar activity progresses the whole and the parts at the same time. The result of this interaction and unification of parts are the emergence of new situation and a change in the sectors that are involved in the interaction. Therefore, the need to realize unity arises because unity is the origin of control.

7.8 Management as a Profession:

Mary Parker Follett wrote an important paper entitled “Who must Business Management Develop in Order to Become a Profession? One of her condition was that
management must be observe profession as a function or service to the community and can be exercised exclusively for private gain. She upheld that a profession was exercised as one of the necessary functions of society and was not an attempt made for private gain. In this connection, she criticized the old idea that a business man made money for himself in the time and then rendered service to the community after gathering enough money to afford being selfless. The services of businessman are as important like those of lawyers, teachers, doctors and engineers. The real service of businessmen should not be production only, but also the welfare of the society which is as important as the process of production.

According to Follett, business must be based on the application of an accepted a proven body of knowledge and philosophies. This includes a thorough and constant research and is likely to enable correction of managerial methods and techniques. To obtain profit from such an experience, each company should have a management research analyst whose duties are to classified and understand managerial experiences. A manager must contribute to the development of his profession by participating actively in management associations, but by every action he does during the day, i.e., the way of taking decisions, issuing orders and the way in which he organizes committees of the organization.

7.9 Individualism in a Planned Society:

The economic interdependence of men is the fact which is recognized today generally. This acknowledgement makes the combined planning on a national or even an international level imperative. Follett observed that central planning imposed from the national level over the local level was doomed to failure. She believed that coercion was not the conflicting of Laussez fair. National planning should be a mechanism of enable the coordinating process. Follett analyses four essential principles for international and national planning.

A. Follett recommended coordination in the early stages, she meant that direct contract must begin in the developmental stages of the policy process, because policy design and policy adjustment are two separate processes and consequently, the process of adjusting policy cannot begin after the separate policies have been designed. This is a vital principle which is largely ignored in the schemes for national planning.

B. Coordination by direct contact of the responsible people concerned, i.e., national planning should provide direct contact between responsible heads of industry, instead of up and down the line through the chief executive. Under such a system, individual freedom would be safely guarded and the heads of industry would form their own control.

C. Coordination as a continuing process, i.e., only through continuous coordination machinery, problems, can be solved in a rational manner.

D. Coordination as the mutual linking of all the factors in a situation shows that the process of coordination, if this principle is applied at national planning and to the industrial organizations of a country, they would learn how to interlace their points of view and their various policies. Thus the fullest possible scope to individualism will be given in this scheme of coordination.

7.10 Conclusion:

Follett's innovative ideas have influenced the field of conflict resolution. Mary Parker Follett was a true management philosopher. The sources of Follett’s ideas are found according to her time. As she moved about consulting with various industrial and
political leaders, she recognized that a new principle of association was needed, because men had not yet learnt how to live together. She called this new principle the “group concept” as Follett was a pioneer who helped to bridge the gap between the mechanistic approach of Taylor and the contemporary approach of human relations.

**7.11 Model Questions:**

1. Discuss about Mary Parker Follett conflict resolution.
2. Discuss about the contribution of Follett’s on Conflict management.
3. Discuss about leadership in the view of Follett.
4. Describe about principles of planning in the view of Follett.

**7.12 References:**

4. Dr. Prasad Others (eds), Administrative Thinkers, Sterling Publishers, New Delhi, 1989.
Lesson-08

NEO-CLASSICAL MODEL: CHESTER BARNARD

8.0 Objectives:

1. Students would be able to know about neo-classical Theory of Barnard.
2. Students would be able to understand the Concept of authority of Barnard.

Structure:

8.0 Objectives
8.1 Introduction
8.2 Organisation as a Cooperative System
8.3 Formal and Informal Organization
8.4 The Theory of Authority
8.5 Fiction of Authority
8.6 The System of Coordination
8.7 Bernard Views on Authority
8.8 The Executive Functions
  8.8.1 Maintenance of Organisation Communication
  8.8.2 Securing the Essentials Services from Individuals
  8.8.3 Formulation of Purpose and Objectives
8.9 Conclusion
8.10 Model Questions
8.11 References

8.1 Introduction:

The human relations movement progressed as a response to the hard, authoritarian structure of classical theory. It talked about many of the problems inborn in classical theory. Neo stated that classical organizational theories made over-conformity and firmness, thus crushing creativity, individual growth, and motivation. Neoclassical theory exhibited sincere concern for human needs.

Chester Barnard (1886-1961) provided vision into the concept of formal and informal organizations within firms. In his writing of 1939, Chester Barnard suggested one of the first modern theories of organization by defining organization as a system of consciously coordinated activities.

Neoclassical organization theory results exodus from the hard, authoritarian style linked with classical theory, it focus on people rather than production. The neoclassical theorists increased their standing by criticizing the classical theories, important source of the power and politics, organizational culture, and systems theory.

Bernard defines organization "as a system of consciously coordinated activities of two or more persons". It is a system of interactions, a system of composed of activities of human beings, a system in which the whole is always greater than the sum of its parts and each part is related to every other part in some important way. The arrangement of inducement is a dynamic process which requires experience and imagination; he feels the primary function of executives is to handle the economy of incentives within an organization.
8.2 Organisation as a Cooperative System:

The individual human being possesses a limited power of choice and is constrained by factors of the total situation. The most important limiting factor in the situation of each individual are his own biological limitations, other being physical and social. The most effective method of overcoming these limitations, in the view of Barnard is cooperative social action. This requires that he adopt a group or none—personal purpose and take into consideration the process of interaction. With the basic premise that individuals must cooperate, Barnard build up his theory of organisation. Barnard defines organisation ‘as a system of consciously coordinated activities of two or more persons’. It is a system composed of the activities of human beings, a system in which the whole is always greater than the sum of its parts and each part is related to every other part in some significant way. As a system, it is held together by some common purpose by the willingness of certain people to contribute to the operation of the organisation, and by the ability of such people to communicate with each other. The satisfaction which an individual receives in exchange for his contributions may be regarded from the view point of organisation as inducements or incentives.

Barnard, while rejecting the view point that man is mainly motivated by economic incentives, analysis the multiplicity of satisfactions and identifies four specific inducements viz., (1) Material inducements such as money, things or physical conditions; (2) Personal non-material opportunities for distinction, prestige and personal power; (3) desirable physical conditions of work; and (4) ideal benefactions, such as the pride of workmanship, sense of adequacy, altruistic service for family or others, loyalty to organisation and patriotism and aesthetic or religious feelings and the satisfaction of the motives of faith or revenge.

Barnard also mentions four types of ‘general incentives’. They are: (1) Associated attractiveness based upon compatibility with associates; (2) The adaptation of working conditions to habitual methods and attitudes; (3) The opportunity for the feeling of enlarged participation in the course of events; and (4) The condition of communing with others, a condition based upon personal comfort in social relations and the opportunity for comradeship and for mutual support in personal attitudes.

In discussing the relationship between the specific inducements, Barnard maintains that economic rewards are ineffective beyond the subsistence level. He also says that the inducements cannot be applied mechanically, and their proportion depends on particular situations, times and individuals. The arrangement of inducements is a dynamic process, requiring experience and imagination. Barnard feels that the primary function of the executives is to handle the economy of incentives within an organisation.

8.3 Formal and Informal Organization:

Bernard defines formal organizations, as a system of deliberately matched actions or forces two or more persons. Such organizations come into reality only when 1 there are persons able to communicate persons each other 2 who are willing to contribute action 3 to accomplish a common purpose. Therefore, communications, readiness to serve and common purpose are the three elements in formal organization. There can be no organization without individuals, their services or acts should be treated as creating an organization. Preparedness can be expressed in terms of loyalty, solidarity and strength of organization. Readiness, positive or negative, is the expression of the net approval or displeasure experience by each individual.
For cooperation there must be an objective and can be called as “purpose” of an organization in other words it can be said system, coordination and cooperation needed for an organization. According to Barnard, “an objective purpose that can serve as the basis for a cooperative system is the one that is believed by the contributors to be the determined purpose of the organization”. The difference has to be made between organizational purpose and individual motive. Common purpose is impersonal, external and objective. This is dynamic process which translates purpose in action, the methods of communication may be verbal or written or observational.

Individuals in the organization interact on their personal relationships rather than organizational purpose. Such interactions would lead to fulfillment some personal requirements, such relations become systematize and resulted into informal organizations. Barnard describes informal organizations as the cumulative of personal contracts and interactions and the connected groupings of peoples. Such organisations are indefinite, structure less and are a shapeless, mass of varied densities. That type of informal organisation will have a thoughtful impact on the members of the formal organisations, brings a constant interaction between the formal and informal organisations. Such informal organisations, to be operative must establish formal organisations within it. Intern, formal organisation create informal organisations as a means of communications and to protect the individuals from the domination of the formal organisation.

8.4 The Theory of Authority:

Barnard does not agree with traditional concept of authority and introduces acceptance as the basis of his theory of authority. He defines authority as “the character of the 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”. Individual in the organisations accept authority only when four conditions obtain simultaneously:
1 When the communication understood, the communications cannot be understood unless they are intelligible, as most of the communications in the organisations are general and intelligible.
2 Consistency with organizational purpose, any communication is not compatible with the purpose of the organisation is unlikely to be accepted.
3 Compatibility with personal interest, if the communications are detrimental to the personal interest of the individuals they have little chance of acceptability.
4 Physical and mental ability to comply, in cases where a person is unable to comply with an order, it will generally be disobeyed or discharged.

8.5 Fiction of Authority:

The competence of the organisation depends upon the point to which the individual accepts orders. Normally, the authority of a communication will not be denied, as they know it is a threat to all individuals who receive a net benefit from the organisation. The fiction of authority established the belief that individual accept orders from superiors because they want to avoid making issues of such orders and avoid experiencing personal subservience or less of personal position with their fellows. The fiction of superior authority appears to be essential for two important reasons. Firstly, the fiction of authority allows the individual to envoy upwards or to the organisation, responsibility for what is an organisation decision. Secondly, disobeying authority for personal advantage, must be constructed as deliberate attacks on the organisation itself.
8.6 The System of Coordination:

Barnard holds that, superior is not the authority and he does not have any authority. A communication may not be authoritative unless it is effort or an action of the organisation. Authority depends upon the cooperative personal attitudes of individuals upon the system of communication in the organisation. The following factors control the character of the communication system as the system of objective authority:

1. The channel of communication should be known.
2. Objective authority requires a definite formal channel to every member of organisation.
3. The complete line of communication should usually be used.
4. The line of communication must be as direct or as short as possible.
5. The persons who act as communicators such as officers, supervisory heads must be sufficient.
6. The line of communication should not be interrupted.
7. Every communication must be authenticated.

In the modern organizational literature the concept of authority occupies a noticeable place. Numerous theories, concepts and models were developed in different social science disciplines to examine the meaning, role, nature, types and limitations of authority in an organization. It has to be notable from other types of influence-power and persuasion. Weber defines power as “the probability that one factor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance”. Therefore power is more complete term which includes control through the use of risk or physical pressure and it comprises to regulate to operate conditions in such a way that others are compulsory to act in his interest, rather than their own. Weber defines authority as “the probability that certain specific commands from a given source will be obeyed by a given group of persons”. Consequently, it is obvious that authority gets deliberate obedience from the subordinates who respond to his orders or commands because of their trust in the lawfulness of those orders. The causes of authority may be a single individual or may be an objective institution such as laws.

Weber classified authority into three types based on their foundations of legitimacy. Weber classified authority into traditional, charismatic and legal-rational types. These three types of authority are based on three different base types of legitimacy. They are as follows:

1. Traditional authority latent on recognized belief in the sanctity of age old traditions.
2. Legal-rational authority resting on the belief of legality of the rules and the capability of the leader to issue orders under the rules.
3. Charismatic authority resting on the extraordinary, or exceptional or supernatural qualities or character of the leader.

Influenced by Weber, Chester Bernard tried to analyze different aspects of authority. He established a new concept of authority based on human nature. According to Barnard, authority in an organization, more connected to the information aspects over which authorities have no control. He opined that each member in the organization holds a definite “zone of indifference”, of recognition which inspires their readiness to follow the orders of the superior authority. Thus, the ability of superiors to regulate and direct the workers, depends upon the formal authority as well as the outlooks of the employees. Barnard also argues that the modern manager always tries to upsurge the employees “zone of acceptance” by offering them various type of incentives. In this connection, Barnard developed a new conceptualization of authority based on information, group relations and human aspects.

8.7 Bernard Views on Authority:
The concept of authority that Barnard described, perhaps the most significant contribution. Barnard defines authority as “the character of a communication in a formal organization by virtue of which it is accepted by a contributor to, or ‘member’ of, the organization as governing the action he contributes that is a determining that he does or is not to do so far as the organization is concerned”. In other words, authority exist in a relationship between a superior and a subordinate, not in a static position; and it is successfully exercised only when accepted, not on issues of a command. Barnard’s concept of organization is based on a system of exchange. Since continuing participation is dependent on the assessment of a positive balance of encouragements over required contributions, the participant has the alternative to refuse to obey organizational authority, based on the threat of taking out from the organization.

Barnard’s definition of authority gives rise to two vital points like, firstly, Barnard highlights that the point of acceptances is the most important aspect of an authority. The decision to obey a command lies with the person to whom it is addressed. Secondly, he makes authority an essential part of the organization and not something consulted from outside.

Barnard thought that, authority was exercised through communication and communication will be accepted authoritatively if it fulfills the following four essential conditions. They are as follows:

A. Intelligibility
B. Consistency
C. Compatibility
D. Feasibility

Barnard lays down four conditions for the effective exercise of authority, all of which emphasize the role of the subordinate in the authority relationship and the importance of effective communication. Principally, the subordinate must understand the command. Secondly, at the time of the decision whether to accept authority or not, the subordinate must rely on that the command is constant for the purpose of the organization. Thirdly, the subordinate must trust the command to be reliable with his or her personal interests as a whole. Fourthly, the subordinate must be mentally and physically capable of obeying the command. Hence, communication will perform a key role in the exercise of authority.

Barnard viewed that acceptance is the dire aspect in the exercise of authority. He further stated that, acceptance is dependent upon net encouragements, the essential circumstance for the effective exercise of authority. Barnard stresses the individual nature of the exercise of authority and also highlights the possibility of non-acceptance of the authority. Certainly, Barnard observed that, exercise of authority is often futile and breaking the rules under certain conditions and would be a moral responsibility of the subordinates. This finally suggests that, the subordinate’s response to organizational directives are not prearranged. Barnard indicates that the subordinates respond to the authority in several ways. They can accept a directive without consideration of its merits or accept only after consideration of the merits, and finally reject.

Barnard describes the first three responses as the “zone of indifference”. The zone of indifference comprises acceptance without consideration of merits and this constitutes an area in which orders are automatically obeyed. Barnard argues that a sizable zone of indifference among subordinates is necessary to simplify the smooth process of the organization.

Barnard emphasizes, the subjective nature of authority and acknowledges the possibility that, orders may in some cases should be disobeyed, he overlooks the importance of the objective nature of authority. Objective authority which is based on position or competence, is important for any organization, and when an authority of position is joined with authority of competence, it becomes very effective.
Bernard explains that if orders are not obeyed, the very survival of the organization would become doubtful. Though, the members of the organization take personal interest in maintaining the authority of all orders which fall within their zone of indifference. This is an important function of informal organization which is performed through organization opinion and group attitudes.

Since, Bernard supports the acceptance theory of authority which accepts that the concept of superior authority is a fiction. He believes that, such a fiction is useful to the form organizations. According to him the fiction of superior authority allows the individuals to delegate the responsibility for decisions to others. Further, it also emphasizes that arbitrary exercise of objective authority would damage the interests of organization. In fact, the good of the organization is bound to be affected by the extent to which the individuals obey the orders of their superior authority. In Bernard’s own words, “this fiction merely establishes a presumption among individuals in favour of the acceptability of orders from superiors, enabling them to avoid making issues of such orders without incurring a sense of personal subservience of personal questions carefully. But Bernard admits that the fiction of superior authority has a negative consequence also. According to him just because an order comes from above does not mean that those who receive would act accordingly. They still have the pleasure to disobey if it they sense that those in positions of authority showing incompetence and ignorance of conditions or fail to communicated properly.

Bernard laid down certain principles of authority which are more in the nature of guiding principle to executives in safeguarding acceptance of orders.
1. Orders should be understood in such a way that they are appropriate and understood in specific circumstances.
2. The authorities should emphasis their attention more upon responsibility rather than authority.
3. The authorities should be conscious of the limits of the saying that authority and responsibility should be alike.
4. The superiors should not issue conflicting orders.

Bernard also analyses the abilities of an effective communication. According to him a communication should have the assumption of authority when it instigates at some source in the organization. Such a source would convey more weight if it is a communication centre rather than an individual and also if it directly relates to the actual situation which opposes the recipient of it. Bernard view point, a communication is further strengthened if it associates authority of position with authority of leadership. The confidence created by such a combination can be made acceptance of authority as an incentive.

Bernard emphasizes that, the channels of communication should be specific and clear. This can be achieved through job descriptions, organization charts, official notices of new positions, staff meetings. These strategies help the members to establish a definite, specific formal relation with the organization. The lines of communication should be as direct for an extended lines can increase the possibilities of error in transmission.

Bernard views responsibility as the power of a particular private code or morals to regulate the conduct of the individual in the presence of strong contrary requirements or desires, Bernard has rightly emphasized its importance. According to him responsibility is determined by a complex set of many codes –legal, technical, professional and moral etc. Hence it is difficult for a man to be responsible with respect to all of them. Secondly, these codes are less effective because of the external agreements.

Bernard says that, since the existence of several private codes governing the conduct of individuals, conflicts are bound to arise in the organizations. These conflicts are acute and serious particularly between codes having equal validity or power. Bernard point out that these conflicts may affect organization in three ways.
A. They lead to a feeling of guilty, embarrassment, disappointment and loss of self-respect among the members of the organization.
B. They paralyses action and create strain, frustration and blockade in decision making and lack of confidence.
C. The non-conformance of one code may lead to its dissimilarity, unless the external forces are strong enough to keep it alive. Bernard concludes his analysis on responsibility by highlighting the role of morality in the organization. He opined that the individuals possess personal moral codes when they are sited in an executive position, certain extra codes are placed on them and they should obey with.

8.8 The Executive Functions:

In organisations, executives perform various functions necessary to ensure coordination of the cooperative system. They also act as channels of communication. However, all the work undertaken by them, according to Barnard, is not executive work. Quite often, the executives may undertake certain functions like the Vice-Chancellor giving classroom lectures or a manager selling the products which cannot be called as executive work. To Barnard, executive work involves a specialized work of maintaining the organisation in operation. The executive functions are like those of the nervous system, including the brain in relation to the rest of the body.

Barnard classified the functions of the executive under three heads viz., (1) maintenance of organization communication, (2) securing essential services from the individuals, and (3) the formulation of purpose and objectives.

8.8.1 Maintenance of Organisation Communication:

This function has three important phases. The first is of defining the ‘scheme of organisation’ or defining the organizational positions, second is maintaining a personnel system and the third is securing an Informal organisation. The scheme of organisation deals with the organizational charts, specification of duties and division of labour. It also represents securing the coordination of work by dividing the purpose into subsidiary purposes, specializations and tasks. It is also related to the kind and quality of services of the personnel that can be secured and the quantity of persons that can be brought under a cooperative system. The inducements that are to be offered are also relevant. But defining the scheme of organisation or organizational positions is of little process includes, according to Barnard, the selection of men and the offering of incentives; techniques of control permitting effectiveness in promoting, demoting and dismissing men.

The personnel recruited for organizational positions should be loyal and possess specific personal abilities. These abilities are of two kinds: general abilities involving alertness, comprehensiveness of interest, flexibility, faculty of adjustment, poise and courage; and specialized abilities based on aptitudes and acquired techniques. The first two phases are both complementary and are dependent on each other. Since, according to Barnard, men are neither good nor bad but become good or bad in particular into consideration the available man power.

The informal organisations promote the means of organizational communication. With good informal organisations, the need for formal decisions gets reduced except in emergencies. Even a formal order implies the informal agreement. The executives must always try to avoid orders which are clearly unacceptable and should deal with such situations through informal means.

The informal organisations perform the following functions:
(a) Communication of unintelligible facts, opinions, suggestions and suspicions which cannot easily pass through formal channels;
(b) To minimize excessive clicks of political influence;
(c) To promote self-discipline of the group; and
(d) To make possible the development of important personal influences in the organization.

8.8.2 Securing the Essentials Services from Individuals:

The task of securing essential services from individuals has two main aspects viz., bringing of persons into cooperative relationship with the organization, and eliciting of services after they have been brought into that relationship. Every organization in order to survive must deliberately attend to the maintenance and growth of its authority to do things necessary for coordination, effectiveness and efficiency. Barnard uses ‘efficiency’ in the specialized sense of an organization’s capacity to offer effective inducements in sufficient quantities to maintain the equilibrium of the system.

8.8.3 Formulation of Purpose and Objectives:

The third function of the executive is to formulate and define purpose, objectives and ends of the organization. The purpose of the organization must be accepted by all the contributors to the system of efforts. Assumption of responsibility and delegation of authority are crucial aspects of the functions of the executive. At every level below, purpose, objectives and direction get redefined with reference to that level, the time and the results to be accomplished. Purpose is defined in terms of specifications of the work to be done and specifications are made when and where work is being done.

The formulation and definition of purpose is a widely distributed function and only the general part of which is executive. The formulation and redefining of purpose requires sensitive system of communication, imagination, experience and interpretation. The functions of the executive are elements in an organic whole and their combination makes an organization. This combination involves two inducements to action: (a) executive functions are partly determined by the environment of the organization, and (b) it depends on the maintenance of vitality of action, that is, the will to effort. In short, the executive role is mainly related to the synthesis of physical, biological and crucial factors.

8.9 Conclusion:

Chester Bernard’s Neo-classical model on authority throws a light on different aspects of authority obtaining in formal organizations. Even though his authority theory is abstract, yet it provides lot of practical values to the modern managers. His acceptance theory of authority which was developed systematically on the basis of practical experience and has great tolerance even to the present day executives. The influence of this theory on both the practitioners and academics in the field of administration and management are so profound, it is regarded as a pioneering one even today.

8.10 Model Questions:

1. What are the important aspects of Neo classical model of Bernard concepts?
2. Critically examine Chester Barnard’s concept of authority.
11 References:

5. Dr. Prasad Others (eds), Administrative Thinkers, Sterling Publishers, New Delhi, 1989.