



EIILM UNIVERSITY
S I K K I M

ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

SYLLABUS

The Nature of Public Administration

Public Administration: Meaning and Scope, Importance of Public Administration, Public Administration and Other Social Sciences, Evolution of Public Administration, Comparative Public Administration Development Administration, Public Administration

Public Organizations: The Paradigms

Classical Approach Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick, Scientific Management—F.W. Taylor, Human Relations Approach—Elton Mayo, Systems Approach — Chester Barnard, Behavioural Approach — Herbert Simon, Social Psychological Approach—Douglas Mc Gregor and Abraham Maslow Ecological Approach—Fred W. Riggs

Bureaucracy

Meaning of Bureaucracy, Max Weber, Karl Marx, Representative Bureaucracy, Issues in Bureaucracy

Concepts in Organization-I

Formal and Informal Organizations, Hierarchy, Span of Control, Unity of Command, Centralization and Decentralization

Concepts in Organization-II

Delegation, Supervision, Communication, Administrative Planning, Authority and Responsibility, Leadership

Concepts in Organization-III

Chief Executive, Line Agencies, Staff and Auxiliary Agencies, Budgeting, Accountability, Citizen and Administration, Organizational Effectiveness, Administrative Theory— An Evaluation

Suggested Readings:

1. Andrzej Huczynski, Stephen P. Robbins, David Buchanan, Organizational Behaviour: An Introductory Text: And Organisational Theory, Selected Readings,
2. Archana Singh, Organisational Behaviour ; Theory and Practice, Mohit Publications
3. James D. Thompson, Organizations in Action: Social Science Bases of Administrative Theory, Transaction Publishers

CHAPTER 1

THE NATURE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

STRUCTURE

Learning objectives
Public administration: meaning and scope
Importance of public administration
Public administration and other social sciences
Evolution of public administration
Comparative public administration
Development administration
New public administration
Review questions

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After you have read this unit, you should be able to:
Describe Public Administration and state its features;
Describe how Public Administration responds efficiently to diverse public needs and plays pragmatic problem solving role;
Describe the integrated nature of knowledge;
Appreciate and summarize the importance of the development of Public Administration
Explain the significance of Comparative Public Administration;
Explain the meaning and elements of Development Administration; and
Explain the significance of New Public Administration.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: MEANING AND SCOPE

Under the conditions of activity, Public Administration is a characteristic of a more generic concept - administration. Administration has been defined as a cooperative effort towards achieving some common goals. Therefore defined, administration can be found in several institutional settings such as a business firm, a hospital, a university, a government department, etc... As a characteristic of this more generic concept Public Administration is that species of administration which operates within a specific political setting? It is an instrument for translating political decisions into reality; it is "the action part of government, the means through which the purposes and goals of

government are realized". Nigro and Nigro (1980) have recognized the following five significant features of Public Administration.

It is a cooperative group effort in a public setting.

It covers all three branches — legislative, executive and judicial—and their inter relationships.

It has a significant role in the formulation of public policy, and is therefore a part of the political procedure.

It is dissimilar in important ways from private administration.

It is closely associated with numerous private groups and individuals in providing services to the community.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION DEFINED

Public Administration is a dedicated academic field. It essentially deals with the machinery and procedures of government activities. Administration has been defined as a cooperative human effort towards achieving some common goals. Therefore defined, administration can be found in several institutional settings such as a business firm, a hospital, a university, a government department and soon. As a characteristic of this more generic concept, Public Administration is that species of administration which operates within a specific political setting. It is a means through which the policy decisions made through the political decision makers are accepted out. Public Administration is decision creation, planning the work to be done, formulating objectives and goals, working with the legislature and citizen organisations to gain public support and funds for government programmes, establishing and revising organisation, directing and supervising employees, providing leadership, communicating and getting communications, determining work methods and procedures, appraising performance, exercising controls and other functions performed through government executives and supervisors. It is the action part of the government, the means through which the purposes and goals of the government are realized.

Some well recognized definitions of Public Administration are:

"Public Administration is detailed and systematic execution of public law. Every scrupulous application of law is an act of administration"— L.D. White.

Public Administration is "the art and science of management applied to the affairs of the State" — D. Waldo.

"Through Public Administration is meant in common usage the activities of the executive branches of the National, State and Local Governments" — H. Simon.

The Public' characteristic of Public Administration gives the discipline a

special character. It can be looked at formally to mean government'. So, Public Administration is government administration, the focus being specifically on public bureaucracy. This is the meaning commonly used in discussing Public Administration. Public Administration, in a wider sense, has sought to expand its ambit through including any administration that has considerable impact on the public. From this standpoint, a private electricity undertaking like the Calcutta Electric Supply Corporation can be measured a fit subject of discussion under Public Administration. It is, though, in the first sense that Public Administration is usually measured.

SCOPE AND DOMAIN OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

We shall now attempt to discuss the scope of the discipline of Public Administration. The scope can be studied under two heads:

The Domain

Public Administration is the complex of governmental activities that are undertaken in public interest at dissimilar stages such as the central, state or provincial (in a federal set-up) and local stages. The discipline of Public Administration aims at a systematic revise of these activities. Government, as political authority, is the major regulator of social life. With the emergence of democracy and the concept of welfare state, the governmental activities have increased through leaps and bounds. The historical movement has therefore been from regulation to service and welfare. The police state has slowly given place to popular governance in the interest of widest possible public welfare in secure association with the people themselves. Expanding governmental activities have resulted in expansion of the bureaucracy, creation of dissimilar forms of public and semipublic organisations, raising public expenditure, and overall control over public life. Since government has come to have such widespread influence and control over public life, its organisation, basis of authority, functions, finances, and impact on society have been subjected to intellectual examination.

The area chosen through Public Administration has usually been "executive action" or the activities of the executive organ of the government. This means really a revise of the bureaucracy: its structure, functions, and behaviour. But, the other organs of government such as the Legislature and the Judiciary have' also been found useful in Public Administration analysis. The policy-forming impetus comes from the legislature, and the legislative committees very often undertake significant vigilance and control function. The Estimates Committee, the Public Accounts Committee, Committee on Public Undertakings etc. could be mentioned as examples of such Committees.

Likewise, the judiciary often adjudicates on quasi-judicial issues and passes significant judgments affecting executive operations. Judicial administration itself forms a major component of Public Administration. Therefore, the revise of Public Administration is basically focused on the 'executive' no doubt; but an adequate understanding of Public Administration is not possible without taking into account the legislative and the judicial administration as well.

The Scope

It is widely acknowledged that the scope of the discipline of Public Administration has to be wide enough to respond to the complex social realities of today. Major concerns of the discipline are:

Promoting (publicans': In a democratic society, Public Administration has to be explicitly 'public' in conditions of democratic values, power-sharing and openness. This calls for a new climate in the bureaucracy. Public Administration, in practice, has to absorb the principles of democracy as an overarching form of the government.

Policy Sensitivity: As governments are described upon to play increasingly active roles in times of rapid changes and social crisis, innovative and timely policy formulation becomes 'a prime necessity in the government. This would necessitate a new preparedness within the administrative set-up that had hardly any precedence in the past.

Implementation Capability: Effective policy implementation is going to test the coping capability of the governments in today's complex situations. Goals have to be clearly set; planning, programming and projections have to be followed step through step; and project management in all its ramifications has to have top priority in government. The strength of administration and the legitimacy of the government itself would depend more and more on the administration's capability to deliver the goods in time and in response to the demands of the citizens.

Shared understanding of social reality: The capability to cope with social and administrative complexity can be enhanced through a deliberate policy of organizational openness. The underlying assumption here is the administration needs to understand the diverse interests and influences. In today's complex administrative world, construction of administrative reality has to be based on the shared understanding of its actors such as the men at the top, the middle managers, the employees, and the citizens. The centralized, insular bureaucracy does not fit in with the contemporaneous socio-administrative reality.

Administration as a learning experience: Shifting social reality and complex environmental circumstances impose sure rigors on Public

Administration today. Rusted 'principles' of the past or the administrative recipes of bureaucratic routine are no longer appropriate tools for analysis and problem solving. Public Administration in modern times has to be proactive, innovative, risk-taking, and often adventurous. This new, entrepreneurial zeal is expected to transform 'bureaucracy' into a new type of learning organisation, more adaptable to changes, more open to new insights and innovations, and more accessible to the clientele.

These are the major concerns of government in all democratic countries. In the developing countries, these have added significance, as Public Administration has a pivotal role to play in the socio-economic reconstruction of post-colonial societies. The discipline of Public Administration cannot live in isolation. It has to develop in secure association with the dynamic social changes. As a body of knowledge, it necessarily develop explanatory strength to analyze socio-economic complexity and assist in the ushering in of a new society free of use and human misery, poverty and deprivation of the past era.

CHARACTER OF THE DISCIPLINE

The discipline of Public Administration has been evolving over the years under the impact of changing societal circumstances, and new growths in the allied Social Sciences. The original disciplinary interest was to improve Governmental performance: This led to its separation from its parent discipline of Political Science. In its enthusiasm to 'reform' government and create the administrative agencies more business-like and productive, Public Administration as a discipline has tilted markedly toward the "management sciences". The accent is on administrative and managerial tools and principles such as budgeting, management techniques, application of operations research methods, computer technology, etc. Such heavy management orientation has tended to rob the discipline of its social science character. It has necessarily parted company with Political Science and approximately merged itself into management education. The discipline has slowly come to assume a vocational character, the objective being to produce public managers much in the same fashion as the management institutes produce a cadre of managers for the business world.

This shift of disciplinary focus has been questioned through several. While acknowledging the importance of borrowing knowledge from allied disciplines, it has been argued that Public Administration is essentially concerned with nation-structure, social regulation, and public service activities. Management science orientation and application of management techniques to Public Administration need not be a blind emulation of private

management practices. The evaluative techniques of non-profit public organisations have to be significantly dissimilar, and the vital orientation and sensitivity of public organisations to public interest brings in sure necessary constraints in governmental decision-creation and bureaucratic behaviour. Functioning under the compulsions of public law and under the glare of open public and legislative criticism, the bureaucracy has willy-nilly to follow sure administrative norms that have hardly any parallel in private management. A sure sensitivity to politics and a readiness to appreciate the citizen's demands and multiple interests of the clientele are desirable qualities in a bureaucrat. The private manager, through contrast, may afford to be inward-looking and secretive, but not the public servant.

Golembiewski has posed this dilemma of Public Administration as a discipline in conditions of choice of 'locus' and 'focus'. 'Locus' stands for the institutional 'where' of the field; while 'focus' is the specialized 'what' of the field. As an academic discipline, for a long time, the place (locus) of Public Administration was, in mainly cases, with Political Science and at times with subjects like History, Economics, etc. So far, the question of focuses is concerned, in recent years, there has been a rising tendency to lay emphasis on administrative techniques and not so much on public policy.

As Golembiewski has observed, the shifting paradigms (substantive concerns) of Public Administration may be understood in conditions of 'locus' or 'focus'; while one has been sharply defined, the other has been conceptually ignored in academic circles in turns. Depending on the definition of the substantive concerns of the discipline, Public Administration can exist within the broader field of Political Science or, move absent from the mother discipline in a search for a more free-floating professional career in the company of business management or the management sciences.

It may be said that since the 'New Public Administration' movement of the late sixties, there has been a rising awareness of the basically social science character of the discipline of Public Administration. The vocational orientation of the discipline has been found to be somewhat misguided and supportive of status quo. In turbulent times when social troubles cry out for innovative social analysis, a conservative, management oriented discipline might be inadvertently reinforcing the forces of repression and social regression.

DISTINCTION FLANKED BY PUBLIC AND BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

As earlier observed, the 'management' euphoria at one stage led to a blurring of distinction flanked by public and private administration. The

distinction flanked by the public and the private sector is though, greatly influenced through the political philosophy of each nation. In the USA, for instance, the private sector plays a very significant role in the American economy and society. The public sector is in several ways dependent on the private sector for the supply of goods and services. Hence, the tendency in that country is toward a blurring of lines rather than a separate bifurcation of responsibilities. In India, through contrast, the public sector is slowly emerging as the dominant sector in the context of mixed economy. The steady expansion of the public sector in India, 'if it continues unabated, is expected to draw a sharper distinction flanked by the public and private management.

Thoughts of general welfare should be the common concern of both public and business administration.' Private management can ignore the larger public interest only at its peril. At the other end, Public Administration can hardly ignore the needs of efficient management. Yet, the two kinds are basically dissimilar, as discussed below:

The major purpose of Public Administration is to serve the public; hence general welfare and, in specific cases, public satisfaction are the ends that Public Administration 'necessity serve. Through contrast, business administration is basically oriented toward earning profit for the business proprietors. Inability to earn profit will soon drive a private enterprise out of business.

Public Administration has to operate strictly according to law, rules, and regulations. Adherence to law brings in a degree of rigidity of operation 'in the public sector. There is always the fear of audit or accountability that acts as a constraint on performance. On the contrary business administration is relatively free from such constraints of law and regulations. There are of course general laws regulating business, but individual business firms have considerable flexibility to adapt their operations to changing situations. This is possible because of their relative freedom from specific laws and rules that abound in Public Administration.

The actions of Public Administration are much more exposed to the public gaze. An attainment rarely gets publicity, but a little fault hits the newspaper headline. Organisations like the police have to be on their toes to create sure that their operations do not incur the public wrath. This wide publicity is not to be found in business administration, nor is it so very closely watched through the public and the media. In Public Administration, any show of discrimination or partiality will evoke public censure or legislative commotion. Hence, the administrators are to be very constant and impartial in their dealings with the public. In business administration, discrimination is freely practiced due to competitive demands. In the choice of products and in fixing prices, business administration overtly practices discrimination which is approximately a part of business culture. Public Administration,

especially at higher stages of government, is exceedingly complex. There are several pulls and pressures, several minds have to meet and discuss, consultations go on in many rounds of meetings before decisions are taken. Activities in open department have ramifications that spread over many other departments. Through contrast, business administration is, usually speaking, much more well-knit and single-minded in operation. There is much less complexity in organisation and operations. The pressures are certainly approximately non-existent. Public Administration as organisation is therefore much more complex compared to business or private organisation. Any unit of government administration is tied up with a network of allied public organisations and has to work in secure interaction with them. A private organisation through contrast, has more compactness, insularity and autonomy of action'.

Public Administration has overarching responsibilities in conditions of nation-structure, and shaping the future society. It is, so, much more, value oriented. Business organisations have to follow the guidelines laid down through the public authorities.

IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

THE PRACTICAL CONCERN

Since government has to respond to diverse public needs, Public Administration's first and foremost objective should be to efficiently 'discharge the public's business. The Wilsonian definition of the subject as an efficiency-promoting, pragmatic field was the first explicitly articulated statement on the importance of a separate discipline of Public Administration. This view of the discipline appeared at a time when there had been a felt need for increased social productivity and for a positivistic role of the government as the chief regulator of the social order and a facilitator of socio-economic development.

It laid special emphasis on improvement in the machinery of government. As the tasks of modern administration increased, enormously, it was just proper to look into the causes of administrative incompetence. The Haldane Committee Report (1919) in Britain and the President's Committee on Administrative Management (1937) in the United States are examples of official efforts to streamline Public Administration to create it a fit agency of social development. In India, also many committees had been set up throughout the British period as well as after independence. One of such major effort was undertaken through the Administrative Reforms Commission (1966) which was set up with the identical purpose of creation Public Administration

a appropriate agency for effective and efficient socio-economic development.

The overdependence of administration on “politics” was criticized through the reformers of Public Administration. On the basis of studies made through the practicing administrators and 'academicians, a new faith was born in the form of a 'science' of administration that would have great applied value in scientific restructuring of Public Administration. The classical 'principles' of administration have severely been criticized. Despite criticisms they have never been totally discarded. These were the precursors of latter-day sophisticated methods and techniques of administrative improvement such as cost benefit analysis, operations research, etc.

With rising social complexity and international tensions, governments everywhere had slowly come to assume more and more interventionist postures. Trade Commerce and Industry expanded and new types of productive enterprise sprang up. There were rising social demands for State intervention in industrial regulations. Poverty, malnutrition, illiteracy and other social evils had become central concerns of public policy. The era of the laissez-faire state had therefore come to an end. Instead, a positivist-interventionist welfare state has appeared steadily. The State's rising concern for social regulation and general social welfare meant a quantum leap in governmental activities. The academic interest in the revise of government and administration accompanied this historical expansion in state activities.

As Leonard White has put it:

"In their broader context, the ends of administration are the ultimate object of the state itself—the maintenance of peace and order, the progressive attainment 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 the good life'".

Rising popular demands and expectations from government coincided with a lively interest in 'efficiency' in Public Administration. How can governmental activities be made more cost-effective? How can the budgetary practices in government be streamlined and made more and more management-oriented? Are there better ways of organizing the administrative machinery? What could be done to ensure a steady and timely flow of skilled and motivated personnel within the governmental machinery?

After all, it is popular satisfaction and fulfillment of popular demands that gives the rationale for Public Administration. So, what methods could be invented to monitor popular reactions to administrative action? How can people's satisfaction be measured? Separately from these, larger issues of public policy formulation, policy execution, and monitoring and evaluation of policy outcome had come to assume crucial significance in governmental operations. After the seminal contribution of Herbert Simon to decision-theory, Public Administration has received policy science orientation. This has greatly enhanced the utility of the discipline for practical policy analysis and policy improvement in the government. Writers like Dror and Dye have greatly enriched policy analysis as a major area of Public Administration.

These objectives and practical necessities of government gave a fillip to the academic development of the new discipline of Public Administration. The importance of the new discipline came to be recognized, as sustained academic inquiry and interest started producing new techniques and methods or improving governmental performance. Public Administration's rising practical concern for public problem-solving has steadily legitimized its place in the larger family of Social Sciences.

Complexity and larger scale of governmental operations have prompted innovations in organizational designs. In order to meet the needs of rapidly changing social situations, governments have been groping for new-organizational formats that would match the specific situational needs. Organisation theory has, in recent years, assumed the character of a well-developed discipline. The theories of organisation have been co-opted through Public Administration and there is widespread application now of organisation theories to administrative design troubles. The organisation theory perspective is now an integral part of Public Administration discipline. This has made the discipline much more useful than ever before for organizational development

and structural experimentations in government. Therefore in recent years the discipline has acquired considerable strength. It is in a position to suggest alternative ways of organizing governmental activities to optimize the results.

Application of behavioral science knowledge has also facilitated more sophisticated analysis of public personnel systems. Research as a motivation and morale, group and intercrop behaviour, and interpersonal relationships have produced rich conceptual and theoretical toolkits that are currently being used through Public Administration-analysts, the crucial importance of the human element in administration, which was largely ignored in the classical model, is currently being emphasized. As an applied science, Public Administration has therefore been of direct use in public personnel management.

A SOCIAL SCIENCE PERSPECTIVE

So far we have presented Public Administration as a pragmatic and problem-solving discipline. This is a one-sided analysis. Now we will look at an equally significant facet of Public Administration viz., its social-scientific status. Since government touches on approximately all characteristics of life in the modern world, how the government is organized and how it operates in practice should naturally attract our attention. The importance of Public Administration as social science lies in its methodical revise of government and in attempts to organize knowledge about governmental structure and operations. In this role, Public Administration as a discipline is more interested in providing scientific explanations rather than merely solving public troubles.

Administration is looked at, in this perspective, as 'a social activity. Hence the concern of academic inquiry would be to understand the impact of government policies and operations on the society. What type of society do the policies envisage? To what extent administrative action is 'class' oriented.' In other words, how is Public Administration and what are the immediate and long term effects of governmental action on the social structure, the economy, and polity? From this social science perspective, Public Administration, as a discipline, has to draw on a diversity of sister disciplines such as History, Sociology; Economics, etc, the objective being to "explain" and not just to "prescribe".

THE THIRD-WORLD PERSPECTIVE

Public Administration's special status in the "developing countries" has

been widely acknowledged. The post-colonial, "third world" countries have everywhere embarked upon speedy socio-economic development. These countries have naturally to rely on the government to push through speedy 'development'. This means Public Administration, has to be organized and operated to augment productivity quickly. Likewise social welfare activities have to be efficiently and effectively executed. The government-sponsored 'planned development activities have necessitated the birth of new sub-discipline of "Development Administration". Based on a series of country studies. Development Administration has appeared as a very useful field that has great practical utility in the special circumstances of the developing countries. The emergence of 'Development Administration' is indicative of a felt need for a body of knowledge about how to revise the third world administration and at the same time to bring about speedy socio-economic development with government intervention. All the developing countries in the third world depend on the government's aggressive role in nation-structure and socio-economic reconstruction. Development Administration so has appeared as a special sub-discipline to serve the cause of development. This is a separate branch of the discipline, serving a separate cause, viz. development.

LIBERAL STUDIES FOR CITIZENSHIP

Another general utility of Public Administration as a discipline lies in its contribution to creative citizenship. In a democracy, the citizen's necessity is well-informed about what the government does or does not do. Governmental literacy is a sine qua non of good citizenship. People necessarily get to 'know' about the organisation of government, the activities it undertakes and the manner in which these are actually performed. As a discipline Public Administration has ample scope to educate the lay citizens about the machinery and procedure of work in the government.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

As already stated, the expanding role of government in every country, especially in the developing nations, has encouraged several-sided inquiries into governmental operations. Since government touches on approximately every conceivable characteristic of life in a democratic society, the citizens necessarily have access to information about government and about how it is actually organized and pressed into social regulation and citizens' welfare. Public Administration as an intellectual discipline has, so, been gaining in importance with the rising interventionist role of government in social life. The importance of a well-developed discipline of Public Administration lies in its five types of major contributions to organized social life which we will

discuss now.

Epidemiological
Technical
Ombudsman
Liberal-educational, and
Professional.

Epistemological

The first kind of contribution arises out of the discipline's capability to build up a rigorous. Systematic and scientific body of knowledge about governmental structure and operations. Public Administration alone has the exclusive responsibility to revise the government in action in all its characteristics. In discharging this responsibility, it has been striving to collect reliable information and data, analyze administrative structures and operations, and build explanatory theories for enhancing knowledge about administrative practices.

Technical

The second kind of technical contribution of the discipline flows from its first major role as stated above. Since the days of the pioneers like Woodrow Wilson, it has been the endeavour of Public Administration specialists to apply knowledge to actual "public problem solving. With reliable theoretical equipment and on the basis of "clinical" studies of administration situation, the technical consulting capability of the experts in the I discipline has increased considerably. Advising government and solving practical troubles in administration are legitimate expectations from Public Administration analysts.

Ombudsmanic

The third kind of contribution of the discipline can come out of investigative studies of critical sectors of administration. Case studies on citizens' grievances, administrative red tape, corruption, etc. may be widely circulated to familiarize the general public the press and the legislature about the actual goings-on inside the bureaucracy. Through disseminating, knowledge, and information, the experts in Public Administration can play a socially useful role akin to the ombudsman institution as recognized in several countries.

Liberal Educational

Public Administration as a discipline has the fourth significant responsibility to make enlightened citizenship. In a democracy, knowledge of how the government and the administration functions necessity be universally disseminated. This is what can be described governmental-administrative literacy. Public Administration is the only social science discipline that can perform this role of a universal educator of "government and administration" for all the citizens.

Professional

Public Administration has also served the cause of vocationally. The discipline has been greatly useful in training civil servants and equipping students to join the professional stream of practicing administrators. Institutes and schools of Public Administration, Public Affairs, and Public Policy Analysis are engaged in the organisation of professional courses.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND OTHER SOCIAL SCIENCES

SOCIAL PHENOMENA: THEIR INTEGRATED NATURE

No social event can be studied in isolation without reference to other events. Consider for instance, the policy on Reservation. A good section of people are supporting it and an equal number are opposing it. If it is viewed only as a policy, for raising or reducing the percentage of reservations we would be facing difficulties. We have to take into consideration its root cause which is the outcome of the historical development of the Indian society. This means that we have to analyze the social, economic, political, and cultural characteristics of reservation policy in order to be able to formulate it in such a way as to meet the ends of social justice and ensure national progress. Likewise, with regard to the problem of rising inefficiency in public offices you have to take into account a whole spectrum of policies ranging from the recruitment policy through educational policies to the absence of 'attainment' motivation. Then only you will know what has caused it. If you view inefficiency only as a matter of discipline in the offices you may not be able to solve the problem of inefficiency.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS A SOCIAL SCIENCE

One of the troubles faced through approximately all Social Sciences is the absence of some significant characteristics of a Science. The main

characteristics of a 'Science' are (a) exactness, (b) validity and (c) predictability. Sciences have laws which are verifiable; Sciences follow a systematic procedure of observation, investigation, experimentation, the structure of a hypothesis, verification of the hypothesis through facts, tabulation, classification, and correlation of facts, etc. in order to arrive at conclusions that can be put forward as generalizations. Therefore exactness, universal validity, and predictability are ensured.

As observed through Aristotle, a great Greek Philosopher, Art is to do and Science is to know. If Science is described a systematic body of knowledge, it can be acquired only through the application of the scientific method. At first, knowledge was viewed as a single entity in which several subjects of science could be regarded as dissimilar dimensions of it. Later, we find subjects divided into sciences such as Physical Sciences, Life Sciences, and Social Sciences. But just as the way we call Physical Sciences which deal with physical phenomena as exact Science or Sciences, we cannot call Social Sciences which deal with human beings as Sciences. The cause is that, the social phenomena in which human beings play a major role cannot be studied in as rigorous a way as the physical phenomena can be. Moreover, no Social Science can claim such exactness as to be able to create predictions.

This, though, does not mean that it is impossible to evolve valid laws about human behaviour. The contribution of Sigmund Freud to Psychology cannot be ignored. The point is that the stage of exactness which is attainable in Physical Sciences is not possible in Social Sciences. 'Facts' in Physical Sciences, unlike those in Social Sciences, need not be related to any prescribed setting or context. To be regarded as Science, Social Sciences have to have principles which are of universal applicability and validity. While some subjects in Social Sciences can claim to have developed such principles, the others can prove no such claim. The cause is that human behaviour is, so complex that it is hard to account for it, using the same principles in every context. For instance, no political scientist can trace sure political growths to any one cause. Though, you should not assume that there are no principles in any discipline of Social Sciences. Not all Social Sciences have such principles to which the criteria of exactness, universal validity, and predictability can be strictly applied. The scientific methods which are used for arriving at accurate results are now being borrowed through Social Sciences. The behavioral movement which has described for extensive use of empirical techniques for the scientific study of human behaviour has made inter-disciplinary approach possible. It is against this background that we shall consider Public Administration as a Social Science.

Public Administration deals with sure characteristics of human society. Several public organisations are supposed to serve the public in dissimilar ways. To the extent to which the administration deals with the public. Public

Administration can be described a Social Science. Public Administration is a Social Science having techniques and abstractions of its own concerning the concepts of action and its own troubles of theory. It is vitally concerned with, the integration of knowledge in other Sciences, physical, biological, and psychological. Further, Public Administration relies on the method of observation rather than on that of experimentation. Although experimentation in a laboratory is not possible in the case of Public Administration, the advent of behaviorism has made it possible. Public Administration appears to be both positive and normative. Questions of 'what is and 'what ought to be' are as much relevant to Public Administration as they are to Political Theory. Public Administration has been passing through several stages of theory structure. In other words, it is a discipline in the creation.

RELATION WITH OTHER SOCIAL SCIENCES

Let us now consider the relation flanked by Public Administration and other Social Sciences, viz. Political Science, Sociology, Economics. History and Law.

Relation with Political Science

Of all the interrelationships in the middle of Social Sciences, those flanked by Political Science and Public Administration land separately from others. Political Science, according to a Social Scientist, is concerned with the revise of "authoritative allocations of values". It focuses on the relationship flanked by the State and individual. It gives answers to questions concerning the origin and nature of the State and also considers the institutions through which the members of society exercise power. For a long time Public Administration has been regarded as a part of Political Science. About 100 years ago Woodrow Wilson described for the separation of Public Administration from Political Science on the ground that 'the field of administration is the field of business'. Following Woodrow Wilson, Frank Goodnow, yet another protagonist of the separation of Public Administration from Political Science has observed that since a large pan of administration is not directly linked with politics it needs to be removed from the control of political parties. Writers from the US were largely influenced through the above mentioned argument and emphasized the need for overcoming the ill effects of the 'spoils system' according to which the party coming into power replaces the officials appointed through its predecessor with those chosen through it to run administration. Though, the hundred years old history of Public Administration brings out the severe limitations to which the growth of Public Administration as an independent discipline is subjected. It is so, not surprising that the modern theoreticians of Public Administration have advocated its re-unification with its parent

discipline, i.e. Political Science.

We know that the political system of every country is related to its administrative system. Indeed, it is the country's political system which makes its administrative system. Conventionally speaking, Political Science deals with policy creation and the implementation of policies is left to the administrators. Therefore the administration is charged with the responsibility of translating the political will of a country into practical forms of action. Though, this is easier said than done. Again, it would be noted that the administration plays a important role in the formulation of policies also. It follows that the political system and administration influence each other to such an extent that it will be sometimes "hard to demarcate flanked by the roles played through them respectively in the given case. In a parliamentary government like India, while the minister, as a political leader and member of Cabinet participates in policy creation, but as the top boss of the Ministry/Department, is also involved in administrative decision creation. Likewise though the civil servants are supposed to administer/implement the policy-decisions, the senior administrators are also involved in policy-formulations through way of providing data/information/advice to the Minister. As has been pointed out through some writers, the character and form of administration of a country are influenced through its political system. If this view is accepted, it may be asked whether one can understand the administrative system without understanding the political system. For instance, in a democratic system of governance the bureaucracy (or the administrative system) is expected to obey its political master. In such a case the concept of bureaucratic neutrality put forward through Weber (a German Sociologist who is measured an authority on kinds of bureaucracy) does not hold well.

Administration is regarded as a powerful agent of change in mainly of the developing countries. But, the nature of the State itself in such countries is the root cause of poverty, inequality, and injustice. In such cases we have to look at the prevalent political system before we analyze the role of Public Administration in the country concerned. Therefore the separation of Public Administration from Political Science, according to some critical observers; denies us the requisite 'political approach' to Public Administration. For instance, the revise of the Indian Political system, the historical development of Indian Administrative System, the debates in the Constituent Assembly and the vital constitutional law which are all 'subjects of Political Science would alone give an insight into the procedure and the working of the Public Administration in the country. In fact. There are sure areas of revise common to Political Science and Public Administration such as. Public Policy, Comparative Constitutions, and Local Government. Again, Government is regarded as a continuous integrated procedure comprising dissimilar functions—Legislative, Executive, Administrative. Measured in this light, the

scope of Public Administration is not a routine procedure but a dynamic procedure involving considerable discretion. Studies in administration, so, focus not only on policy formulation but also on political parties, pressure groups; public opinion, etc. The methods and techniques of Political Science are borrowed extensively through researchers in Public Administration also, which comprises public policy, public welfare, and public interest. The relationship flanked by politics and administration is so secure that they may be regarded as the two sides of a coin.

Relation with Sociology

Sociology is concerned with the scientific revise of social structure. It is a Science which studies the form of human actions in society. It also studies the inter relatedness of the other Social Sciences. It is described through some a 'super science' unifying the generalizations of the other Social Sciences. Post colonial societies continue to be in the grip of an all pervasive bureaucracy. They are marked through inequalities of every type. This is why the policies and their implementation in such countries need to be studied within a broad framework of class, caste, and power. American scholars like Riggs and Presthus have brought out clearly the undifferentiated nature of social reality characterized through a secure nexus flanked by society, polity and its administrative system.

Administration as we are aware operates in the context of the society of which it is a part. Hence, just as the society is concerned with goals, values, belief systems, so also should be the administration. Therefore we notice a two way relationship; administration exists in a social setting and the pattern of administration theoretically is determined through society. Through administrative leadership the society may be influenced. Sociology is concerned with the human behaviour in a group, the several kinds of groups, and the ways in which they influence human instincts and activity. Administration is a cooperative endeavour in which, a large number of people are engaged in achieving sure objectives. The 'administrators themselves form a separate group recognized as bureaucracy which, while maintaining its identity regularly interacts with its social environment. If the organisation is big enough there will be small groups and even sub-groups within it. These small groups and sub-groups have their own loyalties, sympathies, antipathies; ethics, outlook which would influence the administrative tools. Sociology offers to Public Administration information about groups, their behaviour, and the way they affect social life. It is so, not surprising that writers regarded as eminent in Public Administration primarily belong to Sociology. Max Weber's essay on bureaucracy has influenced several other writers in Public Administration. Some of the recent works in Sociology on status, class, power, occupation, family, etc., give useful information and a theoretical base for the

Sociology of Public Administration.

The classical theories of administration tell us about the importance of structures in administration, considering 'human behaviour to be static, The modern theories, concerning it as being dynamic, investigate why a scrupulous decision is taken through an administrator in a scrupulous situation. In the course of such an investigation the revise of social background of administrators will be found necessary. The tools developed through Sociology are made use of through the scholars of Public Administration in order to understand the sociology of administrators. A notable work in this, field is that through V. Subrahmaniam on the social background of Indian Administrators. The interest in studies of the representativeness of a country's bureaucracy creates for the revise of the relationship flanked by Sociology and Public Administration. If one looks at the administrative structures engaged in the reconstruction of societies, especially those of developing countries, one will find that the bureaucracy is engaged in community action.

A good number of institutions/universities offer a course in Social Administration as part of the Postgraduate and other programmes. Premier institutes like the Tata Institute of Social Sciences are offering special training programmes to the officials of welfare agencies like Tribal Development, etc. The National Institute of Rural, Development conducts' Special training courses for the personnel of All India Services which are planned to acquaint the administrators with the 'sociology of rural India.

Relation with Economics

"Economics is a science concerned with those characteristics of social behaviour and those institutions which are involved in the use of scarce possessions to produce and distribute' goods and services in the satisfaction of human wants' This definition of Economics may be said to have been modified through the well-recognized economist, L. Robbins, who defines it as "the science which studies human behaviour as a relationship flanked by ends and scarce means which have alternative use'

These definitions suggest that economics is as much concerned with human behaviour as any other Social Sciences. The major objectives of administration throughout 18th and a good part of 19th century were maintenance of law and order and collection of revenue. In the wake of Industrial Revolution there occurred a radical transformation of the concept of the State. This was due to its being compelled to become more responsive to the needs of the masses, especially the working classes than ever before. Industrial Acts fixing working hours and minimum wages extended an enormous pressure on the administration. Goals like the establishment of a

socialist society led to the expansion of the role of administration in development. Those industries which had been hitherto supervised through the private sector had come under the direct administration of the government. The fast rising Public Sector (i. e. industries directly under the government) illustrates the relationship flanked by Economics and Public Administration. Indeed, the expanding role of the Public Sector and direct intervention of the government to regulate extreme swings in the economy place a great burden on Public Administration.

Planning has been chosen as the means to realize the goal of Socialist society, if efficient implementation of plans ensures goal attainment, the task of the administrators is to choose methods for effective implementation of plans. The administrators today have been entrusted with the responsibility of managing railways, insurance companies, and tackling issues concerning agriculture, banking, etc. They, so, have got to have an understanding of the economic troubles of the country.

The ancient classic Arthashastra, is not only a treatise on the art of administration but also a reference book on Economics. In many other respects Arthashastra points out the secure relationship flanked by Public Administration and Economics.

Relation with History

According to E.H. Carr, 'history is a continuous procedure of interaction (flanked by the historian and his facts) an unending dialogue flanked by the present and the past'. History gives an insight into the past. The revise of historical background of a country enables us to understand its administrative systems. Historians have recorded not only political events like battles and the deeds of rulers but also particulars of administration., 'For instance, L.D. White in his books on the early history of American administration. Administrative history of Medieval England provided useful material for understanding the systems of administration of those times, History tells us how administrative troubles arose in the past and how they were solved. Significantly, modern historians have been paying rising attention of the prevalent administrative systems. This augurs well for Social Sciences like Public Administration since it will give' valuable information to them.

Relation with Law

According to Malinowski, Law is 'sanctioned norm'. According to Goodhart, Law is any rule recognized as being obligatory through the bulk of the community. In other words, violation of norms is usually followed through counteraction. A legal norm is marked through probability that it will be

enforced through specialized staff. The authority to enforce rules is vested in administration. This explains the relationship flanked by Law and Public Administration. Public Administration has to function within the framework of the law of the country. In other words, law sets the limits of administrative action, though it allows considerable discretion to the administration. A subject common to these two disciplines is Administrative Law. Legislature enacts laws (acts) which the administration has to implement. The role of administration is not restricted to implementation only; it has a role to play in law-creation also. Civil servants have a say in the formulation, presentation and enactment of laws.

In fact. Public Administration has been described through a writer as a machinery concerned with the 'systematic and detailed execution of law'. The relationship flanked by administration and law appears to be so securing that in some countries Public Administration is studied as part of some courses in law. Some subjects like Delegated Legislation, structure and functioning of Administrative Tribunals are studied through both the students of Law and those of Public Administration. The Indian form of Ombudsman (i.e., Lok Pal and Lok Ayukta) is studied through students of Public Administration as institutions for the redressal of public grievances. The revise of such institutions show the rising importance of the relationship flanked by Law and Public Administration.

EVOLUTION OF PUBIC ADMINISTRATION

ANTIQUITY TO THE 19TH CENTURY

Dating back to Antiquity, Pharaohs, kings and emperors have required pages, treasurers, and tax collectors to administer the practical business of government. Prior to the 19th century, staffing of mainly public administrations was rife with nepotism, favoritism, and political patronage, which were often referred to as a "spoils system". Public administrators have been the "eyes and ears" of rulers until relatively recently. In medieval times, the abilities to read and write, add and subtract were as dominated through the educated elite as public employment. Consequently, the need for expert civil servants whose skill to read and write shaped the basis for developing expertise in such necessary activities as legal record-keeping, paying and feeding armies and levying taxes. As the European Imperialist age progressed and the military powers extended their hold over other continents and people, the need for a sophisticated public administration grew.

The eighteenth-century noble, King Frederick William I of Prussia, created professorates in Cameralism in an effort to train a new class of public administrators. The universities of Frankfurt an der Oder and University of Halle were Prussian institutions emphasizing economic and social disciplines,

with the goal of societal reform. Johann Heinrich Gottlob Justi was the mainly well-recognized professor of Cameralism. Therefore, from a Western European perspective, Classic, Medieval, and Enlightenment-era scholars shaped the foundation of the discipline that has come to be described public administration.

Lorenz von Stein, an 1855 German professor from Vienna, is measured the founder of the science of public administration in several parts of the world. In the time of Von Stein, public administration was measured a form of administrative law, but Von Stein whispered this concept too restrictive. Von Stein taught that public administration relies on several reestablished disciplines such as sociology, political science, administrative law, and public finance. He described public administration an integrating science, and stated that public administrators should be concerned with both theory and practice. He argued that public administration is a science because knowledge is generated and evaluated according to the scientific method.

Modern American public administration is an extension of democratic governance, justified through classic and liberal philosophers of the western world ranging from Aristotle to John Locke to Thomas Jefferson

In the United States of America, Woodrow Wilson is measured the father of public administration. He first formally recognized public administration in an 1887 article entitled "The Revise of Administration." The future president wrote that "it is the object of administrative revise to discover, first, what government can properly and successfully do, and, secondly, how it can do these proper things with the utmost possible efficiency and at the least possible cost either of money or of energy." Wilson was more influential to the science of public administration than Von Stein, primarily due to an article Wilson wrote in 1887 in which he advocated four concepts:

- Separation of politics and administration
- Comparative analysis of political and private organizations
- Improving efficiency with business-like practices and attitudes toward daily operations
- Improving the effectiveness of public service through management and through training civil servants, merit-based assessment

The separation of politics and administration has been the subject of lasting debate. The dissimilar perspectives concerning this dichotomy contribute to differentiating features of the suggested generations of public administration.

Through the 1920s, scholars of public administration had responded to Wilson's solicitation and therefore textbooks in this field were introduced. A few distinguished scholars of that period were, Luther Gulick, Lyndall Urwick, Henri Fayol, Frederick Taylor, and others. Frederick Taylor (1856-1915), another prominent scholar in the field of administration and management also published a book entitled 'The Principles of Scientific

Management' (1911). He whispered that scientific analysis would lead to the discovery of the 'one best way' to do things and /or carrying out an operation. This, according to him could help save cost and time. Taylor's technique was later introduced to private industrialists, and later into the several government organizations.

Taylor's approach is often referred to as Taylor's Principles, and/or Taylorism. Taylor's scientific management consisted of main four principles (Frederick W. Taylor, 1911):

- Replace rule-of-thumb work methods with methods based on a scientific revise of the tasks.
- Scientifically select, train, and develop each employee rather than passively leaving them to train themselves.
- Give 'Detailed instruction and supervision of each worker in the performance of that worker's discrete task'.
- Divide work almost equally flanked by managers and workers, so that the managers apply scientific management principles to planning the work and the workers actually perform the tasks.

Taylor had very precise ideas about how to introduce his system (approach): 'It is only through enforced standardization of methods, enforced adoption of the best implements and working circumstances, and enforced cooperation that this faster work can be assured. And the duty of enforcing the adoption of standards and enforcing this cooperation rests with management alone.'

The American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) the leading professional group for public administration was founded in 1939. ASPA sponsors the journal Public Administration Review, which was founded in 1940.

US IN THE 1940S

The separation of politics and administration advocated through Wilson continues to play a important role in public administration today. Though, the dominance of this dichotomy was challenged through second generation scholars, beginning in the 1940s. Luther Gulick's fact-value dichotomy was a key contender for Wilson's proposed politics-administration dichotomy. In place of Wilson's first generation split, Gulick advocated a "seamless web of discretion and interaction". Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick are two second-generation scholars. Gulick, Urwick, and the new generation of administrators built on the work of modern behavioral, administrative, and organizational scholars including Henri Fayol, Fredrick Winslow Taylor, Paul Appleby, Frank Goodnow, and Willam Willoughby. The new generation of organizational theories no longer relied upon logical assumptions and

generalizations about human nature like classical and enlightened theorists.

Gulick developed a comprehensive, generic theory of organization that accentuated the scientific method, efficiency, professionalism, structural reform, and executive control. Gulick summarized the duties of administrators with an acronym; POSDCORB, which stands for planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Fayol developed a systematic, 14-point, treatment of private management. Second-generation theorists drew upon private management practices for administrative sciences. A single, generic management theory bleeding the borders flanked by the private and the public sector was thought to be possible. With the general theory, the administrative theory could be focused on governmental organizations. The mid-1940s theorists challenged Wilson and Gulick. The politics-administration dichotomy remained the center of criticism.

1950S TO THE 1970S

Throughout the 1950s, the United States experienced prolonged prosperity and solidified its place as a world leader. Public Administration experienced a type of hey-day due to the successful war effort and successful post war reconstruction in Western Europe and Japan. Government was popular as was President Eisenhower. In the 1960s and 1970s, government itself came under fire as ineffective, inefficient, and largely a wasted effort. The costly American intervention in Vietnam beside with domestic scandals including the bugging of Democratic party headquarters are two examples of self-destructive government behavior that alienated citizens.

There was a call through citizens for efficient administration to replace ineffective, wasteful bureaucracy. Public administration would have to aloofness itself from politics to answer this call and remain effective. Elected officials supported these reforms. The Hoover Commission, chaired through University of Chicago professor Louis Brownlow, to look at reorganization of government. Brownlow subsequently founded the Public Administration Service (PAS) at the university, an organization which has provided consulting services to all stages of government until the 1970s.

Concurrently, after World War II, the whole concept of public administration expanded to contain policy-creation and analysis, therefore the revise of 'administrative policy creation and analyses was introduced and enhanced into the government decision-creation bodies. Later on, the human factor became a predominant concern and emphasis in the revise of Public Administration. This period witnessed the development and inclusion of other social sciences knowledge, predominantly, psychology, anthropology, and sociology, into the revise of public administration. Henceforth, the emergence of scholars such as, Fritz Morstein Marx with his book 'The Elements of Public Administration' (1946), Paul H. Appleby 'Policy and Administration' (1952), Frank Marini 'Towards a New Public Administration' (1971), and

others that have contributed positively in these endeavors.

1980S–1990S

In the late 1980s, yet another generation of public administration theorists began to displace the last. The new theory, which came to be described New Public Management, was proposed through David Osborne and Ted Gaebler in their book *Reinventing Government*. The new model advocated the use of private sector-style models, organizational ideas, and values to improve the efficiency and service-orientation of the public sector. Throughout the Clinton Administration, Vice President Al Gore adopted and reformed federal agencies using NPM approaches. In the 1990s, new public management became prevalent throughout the bureaucracies of the US, the UK and, to a lesser extent, in Canada.

Some modern authors describe NPM as a combination of splitting large bureaucracies into smaller, more fragmented agencies, encouraging competition flanked by dissimilar public agencies, and encouraging competition flanked by public agencies and private firms and using economic incentives lines (e.g., performance pay for senior executives or user-pay models). NPM treats individuals as "customers" or "clients" (in the private sector sense), rather than as citizens.

Some critics argue that the New Public Management concept of treating people as "customers" rather than "citizens" is an inappropriate borrowing from the private sector model, because businesses see customers as a means to an end (profit), rather than as the proprietors of government (the owners), opposed to merely the customers of a business (the patrons). In New Public Management, people are viewed as economic unit's not democratic participants. Nevertheless, the model is still widely accepted at all stages of government and in several OECD nations.

LATE 1990S–2000

In the late 1990s, Janet and Robert Denhardt proposed a new public services model in response to the dominance of NPM. A successor to NPM is digital era governance, focusing on themes of reintegrating government responsibilities, needs-based holism (executing duties in cursive ways), and digitalization (exploiting the transformational capabilities of modern IT and digital storage). An Australian non-for-profit eDemocracy project which invites politicians, senior public servants, academics, business people and other key stakeholders to engage in high-stage policy debate.

Another new public service model is what has been described New Public Governance, an approach which comprises a centralization of power; an increased number, role and influence of partisan-political staff; personal-politicization of appointments to the senior public service; and, the assumption

that the public service is promiscuously partisan for the government of the day.

Increasingly, public policy academics and practitioners have utilized the theoretical concepts of political economy to explain policy outcomes such as the success or failure of reform efforts and/or the persistence of sub-optimal outcomes.

COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

DEFINITION

Comparative public administration is defined as the revise of administrative systems in a comparative fashion or the revise of public administration in other countries. Another definition for "comparative public administration" is the "quest for patterns and regularities in administrative action and behavior". It looks to test the effectiveness of the Classical Theorists' (Fayol, Taylor, Urwick, etc) Principles of Administration effectiveness on a universal stage(dissimilar political and administrative setups in developing and developed countries and their ecology) as well as develop a comparative theory of Public Administration. It is a very important area of revise in Public Administration as it helps in understanding Administrative setups and their functioning in several settings and societies/countries and what works and why it works. Also, it helps improvise administrative systems creation them more efficient together with helping in adding and improvising the already existing literature/theories of Public Administration therefore leading to a strong and practical theory of the subject with the help of practical experiments and analysis.

COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION DEVELOPMENT - A BACKGROUND

Even though comparative studies in administration date back to Aristotlian times where he sent scholars to dissimilar parts of world to revise their political systems, Comparative Public Administration started off as a topic of interest post the Wilson(described the 1st comparatives) essay in 1884 where he very rightly stated that in order to know our own country's administrative weaknesses and virtues we need to compare with others. And, he stated that administration is the best and mainly safe prospect of comparative studies as administrative techniques and procedures are similar approximately everywhere and in fact we can learn a lot through comparing.

Though, it was not taken so seriously due to the emphasis on

conceptualizing and structuring as well as defining Public Administration at that time was the top priority. The theorists and administrators as well as governments were busy understanding their own administrative setup before they could set off on a comparison with others. So, while this was being contemplated the First World War erupted and with its end and the establishment of the League Of Nations there came about a lot of questions concerning the need to understand the needs of the countries who were not so developed because several of them came under the British colonialism as well as other imperialist countries in order to control these and draw maximum benefit.

This comparative revise took a philosophical turn throughout the course of the second world war and its aftermath when there came the end of imperialism and colonialism and emergence of several independent states, a joint initiative through the developed countries under the United Nations(formerly described 'The League Of Nations') aegis to refurbish the developing an third world countries as well as to develop their own war damaged national economies. And lets not forget the beginning of Cold War flanked by the two superpowers USA and Soviet Union which played a big part in this movement where both looked to hegemonies the world politics and economy.

USA took the lead here in administrative studies and also in providing financial as well as technical help to the developing nations in order to augment their market share and also to curb communism that was a product of the Soviet Union.

The USA was the hub of these studies since the Western countries lacked the institutional and administrative capacities to implement their development plans post world war 2.the government, United Nations and several private institutions as well as corporate sponsored varied technical assistance programmes that enabled the public administrators, lecturers of public administration and professionals to revise the same in depth as well as travel abroad and gather hands on experience and build a universal comparative theory of Public Administration. Notable in these efforts was that of the American Society for Public Administration(ASPA) & American Political Science Association(APSA).

The first organisation formally shaped to formulate a universal comparative theory of public administration was the Comparative Administration Group(CAG) in 1960 that was a division of the ASPA, funded through the Ford foundation to revise methods for improving public administration in developing countries under the chairmanship of Fred W. Riggs. More than providing administrative techniques this group became a forum for intellectuals to understand why the developing countries differ so

much in practice of administration and are not able to sustain the classical theory principles of administration in their systems even though Classical theorists of administration like Fayol & Weber, etc preached that their principles and models of administration were universal in their element and can be applied anywhere with greatest success.

CAG gave the thought of scientific studies and emphasized on empirical and ecological(social, cultural, and historical factors) revise of several administrative systems. Even though the CAG had to shut shop in the early 70's since several administrators and academicians realized that due to the highly complex setting which the group had provided for comparative Public Administration studies was resulting in failures in providing really empirical assessment of administration factors in a society. They stated that it provided a very good direction but the techniques were not being specified to execute the thought. And so the studies were transferred back to the Department of Comparative Studies.

Also in 1968, the first Minnowbrook Conference was held under the chairmanship of Dwight Waldo that also talked about the need for Comparative Public Administration revise and analysis.

Now we will discuss in detail.

APPROACHES TO THE REVISE OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Ideal or Bureaucratic Approach

Bureaucratic specifications are studied for reaching conclusions and developing understanding. Under this approach structures of organisations are analyzed in conditions of their horizontal differentiation, vertical differentiation, span of controlled. Procedures and rules are analyzed and the framework of functioning is determined. Job specifications and descriptions at several nodes are analyzed and some understanding is reached on the basis of elaborateness and degree of specialization compared in regards to dissimilar administrative systems. The limitations of this approach is that though it has been measured simple but it does not explain the structures and their functions in society and gives a very general observation.

Structural - Functional Approach

It is measured as a very popular approach for comparing several administrative systems and was implemented through Fred W. Riggs in his revise for developing his Models of society/environment/ecology which will be discussed later in this article. This approach analyses society in conditions of its several structures and their functions for reaching an understanding concerning their positioning and functioning. Structures here can refer to govt.(political arrangement) and abstract like values systems in society. Function is seen as the discharge of duties through these structures in the society. The limitation of this approach is that there has to be a correct identification of the structures before proceeding to analyze them especially in agraria-transitia and fused-prismatic societies.

Ecological Approach

Devised through Riggs this approach states that structures and their functions exist in an inter dependant manner. So if a revise is to be undertaken of a scrupulous structure and its function then its effects on other systems and their functions of society are also to be analyzed. Limitations are that this approach is highly complex and hard to apply.

HISTORICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL FACTORS AFFECTING ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEMS

If one notices cautiously then it is clearly apparent that historical events have led to the invention of several administrative practices. Though there are aplenty, though, some examples are cited below.

English Administrative system: England does not possess a written constitution mainly because it was a monarchy prevailing there and the people lived there through conventions and traditions going on from time immemorial.

Indian Administrative system: Reservations are made as Indian society is very diverse in matters of social as well as economic status, etc., after a lot of historical events like B.R Ambedkar and his policies as well as the British division of Hindu and Muslims and other minorities in separate electorate system, etc. There are several social laws in India that are made from society like panchayats, etc. Tribal welfare is given special attention in India due to subsistence of tribals in the society. Several offices (bureaucratic, political, economical, etc) are remnants of British legacy like the office of the collector, police dept, civil services, etc. Revenue administration here is a modern version inspired through historic Mughal ones.

SA Administrative system: Several historical and sociological factors have also shaped the American system. A few of them cited are the Civil war that lead to providing African American slaves was given the title of citizens and right to vote. Also the second civil rights movement that occurred under the aegis of Martin Luther King Jr. leading to elimination of segregation and racial discrimination flanked by black and white Americans.

France Administrative system: Arrangement of Droit Administration could be seen associated with the approach and functioning of Napoleon Bonaparte who set the table for a centralized administration as an efficient administration. The storming of Bastille incident which was fuelled through economic crisis lead to the overthrow of monarchy there to republican system and led to the establishment of Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen that lead to the first step of France's constitution framing.

ADMINISTRATION AND POLITICS IN DISSIMILAR COUNTRIES

USA

The USA has a federal republican form of government where President is the national as well as executive head. There is a separate constitution(which bears allegiance to the federal constitution of 1787) as well as citizenship for every state and they are all bound together in a federation, therefore all working as a whole with their autonomy intact. The Constitution of US identifies the subjects listed for the national/federal and the ones reserved for the States and also the residuary powers lie with the states only. There are three stage of governments - national or federal, state and local(counties, townships, cities, etc). Separation of powers flanked by the legislature, executive, and judiciary is an significant characteristic. The Senate (Upper House) and House of Representatives(Lower house) comprise the congress/legislature of the country. There is no specificity in the constitution concerning the administrative system but it does state that the President can from time to time as and when necessary get advise from the principal officers of the several departments concerning his duty as the chief executive of those departments. There are thirteen departments in the administration that come under the direct control of the president. The President though does not possess the authority to change/reorder his cabinet as that power lies with the Congress. Civil services in USA are also done on merit through competitive exams and also at times there are some political appointees too who are chosen through the president for their extraordinary attainment in a scrupulous field appropriate to the job. Some departments are headed through individuals whereas some are headed through Boards and Commissions.

UK

It is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy. In practice it is a Parliamentary democracy. The Monarch is the head and performs functions akin to the President of India. Legislature is supreme and is bicameral viz. House of Lords(upper house) and House of Commons(lower house). Executive is headed through the political executive that is the Prime Minister and his cabinet that consists of ministries staffed through civil servants under ministers. Boards and commissions are shaped to operate and regulate several industries and services. Judiciary is independent. The House of Lords is the highest court of appeal for civil cases and some criminal cases.

The Senior Courts of England and Wales were originally created through the Judicature Acts as the "Supreme Court of Judicature". It was renamed the "Supreme Court of England and Wales" in 1981, and again to the "Senior Courts of England and Wales" through the Constitutional Reform Act 2005. It consists of the following courts:

- Court of Appeal- Deals only with appeals from other courts or tribunals. The Court of Appeal consists of two divisions: the Civil Division hears appeals from the High Court and County Court and sure superior tribunals, while the Criminal Division may only hear appeals from the Crown Court linked with a trial on indictment (i.e., for a serious offence). Its decisions are binding on all courts, including itself, separately from the Supreme Court.
- High Court of Justice - The High Court of Justice functions, both as a civil court of first instance and a criminal and civil appellate court for cases from the subordinate courts. It consists of three divisions: the Queen's Bench, the Chancery and the Family divisions. The divisions of the High Court are not separate courts, but have somewhat separate procedures and practices adapted to their purposes. Although scrupulous types of cases will be assigned to each division depending on their subject matter, each division may exercise the jurisdiction of the High Court. Though, beginning proceedings in the wrong division may result in a costs penalty.
- Crown Court- is a criminal court of both original and appellate jurisdiction which in addition handles a limited amount of civil business both at first instance and on appeal. The Crown Court is the only court in England and Wales that has the jurisdiction to try cases on indictment and when exercising such a role it is a superior court in that its judgments cannot be reviewed through the Administrative Court of the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court.
- The Crown Court is an inferior court in respect of the other work it undertakes, viz. inter alia, appeals from the Magistrates' courts and other tribunals.

The Lord Chancellor and Home Secy administrate the judicial system. Civil servants are recruited through merit via open competitive exams.

France

It is a mixture of Republican as well as Parliamentary form of govt. President is the Chief executive and enjoys tremendous powers in the legislature as well as Parliament. Here the President is directly elected through the people. The Prime Minister is then chosen and appointed as per the President's wish from the Parliament. The Prime Minister has to enjoy the confidence of both the President and the Parliament in order to sustain his position. Executive is separated from legislature and therefore the President is not able to influence the executive much but still indirectly the PM has to go through him to enjoy his confidence because mainly of the times, the parliament and the president are from the same party. Civil services are of two kinds' External recruitment and internal recruitment where external recruitment is done through open competitive exams for graduates under 27 years of age and the internal recruitment is for people from the lower echelons of service having at least five years of service and not more than 36 years old. They are then chosen and trained at the Ecole Nationale Administration for two years.

Japan

The Constitution of Japan rests on three principles - a) sovereignty of people, b) guarantee of Fundamental Rights, c) renunciation of war. The Emperor performs the role akin to Indian president. The Japanese people elect their representatives to the Japanese Parliament described Diet which is bicameral that is, House of Councilors, and the House of Representatives. Both Houses share equal powers but the house of representatives has superiority in matters of finance. The prime minister is appointed through the prime minister from the Diet who heads the executive and also the Emperor appoints the chief judge of the Supreme Court. Grants are to be passed through the Diet and then only it is given to the executive. Local govt possess autonomy in its matters. People posses the right to choose their public officials as well as remove them. Civil services are of two kinds here - a) Special govt service - comprises members of cabinet approved through the Diet like positions of high officials in Imperial Court, Judges, Ambassadors, and Ministers, Diet employees, common laborers and employees of state corporations. b) Comprises personnel of National govt., administrative as well as clerical except the Special govt. services ones.

CURRENT STATUS OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

After the decline of the comparative administration group (CAG) in the early 1970's, there was a lull in this field due to several factors like theoretical and fact based revise was only done and so there was problem in the applicability of those models and USA was going through a bad stage in the Vietnamese war and so funds had to be diverted, etc. Though, it got a boost once again when scholars like Robert Dahl, James Cloeman, Rapheli, Dwight Waldo etc propagated it and stated that without comparison there can never be a science of administration. Also the behavioral school of thought was bringing in a lot of attention to the fact and value theories of administrative man and so comparative public administration saw a resurgence. In the 80's and 90's studies in CPA resurfaced but with a new objective, philosophy and orientation than its previous precursors and counterparts. It started to revise several arrangements like RTI, Rule of Law, good governance, etc in dissimilar countries. It has recently started focusing itself on the analysis of such operations of administrative systems which affect functioning of several societies. The following could be seen as the recent trends in the studies of Comparative Public Administration:

- Learning the status of human rights in the nations of the troubles associated with human rights.
- Learning the status of Rule of Law and analyzing the barriers if any.
- Learning the attendance of Civil Society Institutions and their role and contribution in the administrative arrangements of societies.
- Learning the stage of participation and involvement in the implementation of schemes related to welfare of people.
- Learning the attendance of arrangements through which accountability of politicians and administrators could be ensured towards the public through the mechanisms prescribed and accessible like RTI, Citizens charters, Ombudsman, Social Audit, etc.

DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

ELEMENTS OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Edward Weidner, way back in 1962, defined Development Administration as a "goal- oriented" and "change-oriented" administration. To Weidner Development Administration is concerned with maximizing innovation for development. According to Riggs Development Administration refers to organized efforts to any out programmes or projects Initiated through those involved in serving developmental objectives. To Martin Landau

Development Administration has come to mean the engineering of social change. We see it is a directional procedure which is planned to create things happen in a sure way over intervals of time.

A number of other scholars also defined and refined the concept. Over the years, its meaning has expanded in accordance with the added implications attached to it. As a result, one would find it, hard to precisely describe the concept of development administration. At best one can attempt to explain what it implies and comprises as per the current usage of the term.

Change-Orientation

Development Administration is change-oriented administration. Change involves the movement of a system or a structure from one point to another. The reverse of 'change' could be status-quo or inertia. Therefore, a development administrative system would be dynamic and not 'static'. There is an inbuilt philosophy of Development Administration 'that values change. This change is a strategy for raising the coping skill of an Administrative system in relation to its external environment as well as a mechanism to activate its internal structures.

Goal-Orientation

As we have pointed out above. Development Administration, as defined through Weidner, is a goal-oriented' administration. One might ask a simple question: Is an administrative system not necessarily goal-oriented? Do we not describe administration as a communal human activity that is intended to achieve sure specific goals'? Yes, it is true that all administrative systems as such are goal-oriented. Yet what distinguishes the general public Administration from Development Administration is the dominant focus on goal-attainment in a more systematic manner. In other words. Development Administration is that characteristic of Public Administration which is dominantly goal-oriented. And these goals, as Weidner points out are progressive in nature, Therefore Development Administration is concerned with the attainment of progressive political, economic, social, and cultural goals.

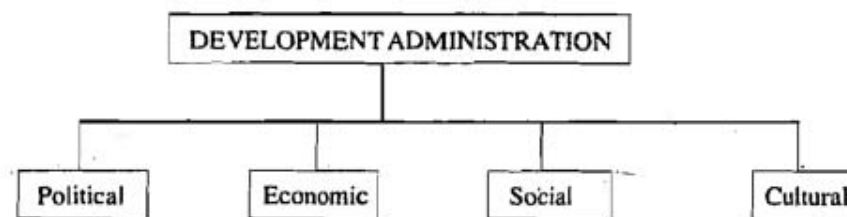
Progressivism

The element of 'progressiveness' of goals is an accepted characteristic of Development Administration. What is progressive for one society may not be so for another society. Nevertheless, there appears to be a broad consensus on the nature of progressiveness of these goals in mainly of the countries,

particularly those which are 'developing' societies. In political systems, progressivism would imply greater participation of the people in governmental affairs. In a democratic system, participation could imply strengthening of the pressure groups, political parties, free voting in elections and greater respect for public opinion in governmental affairs. On the other hand in a totalitarian country, participation would be more of a symbolic character. But in both kinds of systems, rising participation would involve greater share of the common man in the formulation and implementation of government policies, plans, programmes, and projects. It is a very hard goal to achieve, particularly through an administrative system. Nevertheless, it is expected of a development administrative system to make and promote such circumstances that will facilitate greater participation of the people in the procedure of development.

In the economic sphere a progressive approach would involve faster pace of economic development and a more equitable sharing of income and wealth. It would involve an approach of economic justice where opportunities to develop economically are equitably distributed to all sections of society. In the sociocultural sphere, a progressive approach would involve universalization of education, promotion of health facilities for all sections of society, social justice based on equity, secularism, and adequate opportunities to all social groups to promote their respective cultural distinctiveness. Development Administration, therefore, is, an administration intended to achieve progressive political, economic and sociocultural goals. You can observe this from Figure.

Figure : PROGRESSIVE GOALS



PLANNING

Planning is not a prerequisite to Development; Administration, but it is the mainly helpful aid to the whole procedure of goal-oriented change. An Indian scholar, Pai Panandiker looks at Development Administration as administration of "planned change". Weidner, though opines that planning may or may not be a necessary condition for Development Administration.

Nevertheless, it is true that planning is a strategy that facilitates maximum possible utilization of human and material resource. And in poor countries, where such possessions are scarce, planning gains a central importance. As a programme of action to 'achieve sure specified goals in a given period, planning helps in the maximum possible utilization of time and other possessions that create the whole procedure of development effective. Little wonder, approximately all developing countries have adopted socio-economic planning as a strategy of development, and even the developed socialist countries continue to place great reliance on the mechanism of planned development. Further, capitalistic developed nations such as Great Britain and France have some form of 'indicative' planning.

INNOVATIVENESS

Development administration is not dogmatic and traditional in its approach to problem solving. Instead, it stresses upon identification and adoption of new structures, method procedures, policies, plans, programmes and projects which would help achieve the developmental objectives with the greatest possible facilitation. Experimentation and version are the hallmarks of Developmental Administration. In India, for instance, organisations such as District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) and Command Area Development Administration (CADA) and programmes such as Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) and Tribal Area Development Programme (TADP) are examples of such innovations. Likewise, use of computers, district planning, national education policy etc. is other instances of an on-going creative approach to the development procedure.

This creativity is not confined to the organizational stage only. At the group and the individual stages as well, creativity in administration is feasible and its overall contribution to effectiveness of goal-oriented change can be immense. A development administrative system has the responsibility to make an organizational environment which would be congenial to creativity and innovations.

FLEXIBILITY IN ORGANIZATIONAL PROCEDURES

Usually, a bureaucratic administration is measured as a synonym of rule-oriented administration. While it is true that no bureaucracy or administration can function without an adequate set of rules, it is also true that a totally "rule-oriented" administration can fall in the trap of treating rules as ends rather than as means. Such a dogmatic approach can create an administrative system straight-jacketed and inflexible and therefore create it unfit for promoting

development as a faster pace. Development oriented administration requires an optimum flexibility of operations which would allow an administrator the required autonomy to apply rules with discretion to sure unique and significantly distinctive administrative situations. Though accountability for any decision made shall remain with the administrator, yet he will be granted adequate leeway in using the set of rules to the advantage of the organisation and to the best of his skill and judgment. Yes, the risk is likely to remain of misuse of any discretionary powers, yet this little inevitable risk should not become an obstruction in the procedure of creation a Development Administration optimally flexible in its functioning. Otherwise, the ideal notions of creativity and innovation will remain only myths.

HIGH DEGREE OF MOTIVATION

Motivated personnel are the backbone of any organisation intended to achieve sure progressive goals. A development administrative system needs a set of highly motivated personnel at top, middle, and lower stages. Such personnel should be committed to the progressive goals intended to be the achieved and should have a high degree of enthusiasm to accomplish those goals. Their narrow vested interests or comforts should not deter them from acting in the highest interest of the organisation and the society.

What factors can motivate the personnel functioning in development administrative organisation? Essentially, the maxim of need fulfillment will apply to any group of individuals entrusted with the responsibilities of achieving sure goals. For the developmental administrative personnel too, the bases of motivation will remain the same. Notwithstanding this commonality, it may be stressed that in a development administrative system, the personnel need to possess and demonstrate extra zeal, extra dedication, and even perseverance to achieve lofty progressive goals of change. In case it is not possible to make such a cadre of motivated people, there is a likelihood of reutilization of administration resulting in only modest performance.

How to get a group of highly motivated people to guide and man development administrative organisations are a hard question. Yet, a rigorous exercise in structure individuals and groups in a planned manner through proper training can be attempted. Behavioral training for attitudinal change can be effectively employed for creating a new class of motivated individuals.

CLIENT-ORIENTATION

A development administrative system is a client-oriented or a beneficiary-

oriented administration. It aims at providing maximum benefits of its services and products to the very people for whom the organisation is intended. In other words, Development Administration is "people-centered" administration which accords primacy to the needs of its beneficiaries and tries to tune its programmes, policies, and actions to these needs. Here it may be appropriate to refer to a very significant characteristic of motivation that is pre-eminent in any service-oriented or beneficiary-oriented administration. It is described "extension" motivation, which means motivation to "help" people. Western motivation theorists such as Maslow, Herzberg, and McClelland have not highlighted this scrupulous kind of motivation, but Indian social psychologists have been successful in identifying and highlighting this notable phenomenon.

The assumption of extension motivation is that there is a desire in every man to be of use to others. There are varying intensities of extension motivation in the middle of people, depending on their socialization and orientations. It can be suggested without much risk of contradiction that in a beneficiary-oriented administration, subsistence of functionaries with a high degree of extension motivation will be a great asset in moving that organisation towards its goal of responsiveness. No doubt, a development administrative organisation is a "responsive" organisation. It is responsive to the needs, wishes and aspirations of the people that it purports to serve..

PARTICIPATION

We have discussed earlier that progressive political goals in a society will involve greater participation of the people in governmental affairs. The notion of participation gains added importance in the actual functioning of a development administrative system.

Development Administration involves the participation of the people or the beneficiaries in Development Administration the formulation and implementation of development programme. In identifying goals, prescribing objectives formulating plans, designing action strategies, implementing projects, and evaluating performance, the role of the beneficiaries is of utmost importance. That is why the block stage and district planning are gaining rising importance in Development Administration in India. Not only participation helps in creation policies and plans more realistic and down-to-earth, it also mobilizes people's cooperation and support in implementing development programmes with minimum cost in conditions of manpower, time, and money.

Participation of the people in development programmes depends on three factors. These are:

- Skill To participate which in turn depends on their stage of formal and informal education;
- Willingness to participate which in turn depends on the socio-psychological framework of society, groups and individuals, and
- Opportunity provided to the people through the governmental organisations to participate.

Their absence may cause low participation. Participation has a significant concomitant in decentralization. A development administrative system effectively utilizes the strategies of delegation and consultation and therefore creates the administration "grass-root" oriented. People's willing cooperation is sought and mobilized through the governmental authorities and this cooperation and collaboration becomes a potent instrument for creating the procedure of Development Administration successful.

EFFECTIVE INTEGRATION

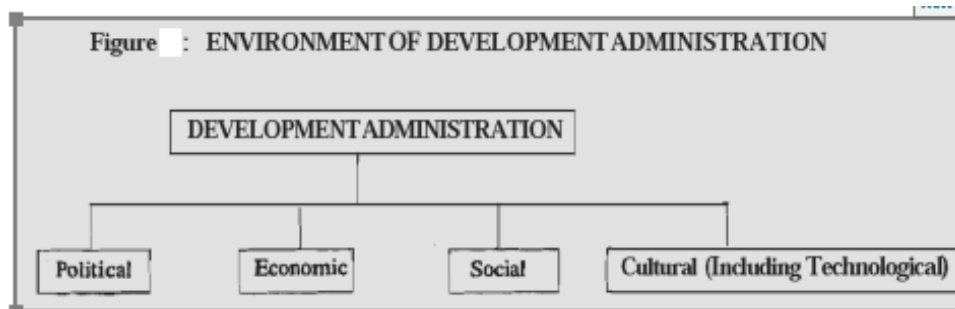
Bringing together, a host of groups and authorities for the attainment of common developmental goals would require, a high degree of integrative capability in an administrative organisation. Verily, Development Administration is characterized through a high degree of coordination or integration. And in case the stage of integration is low, the developmental results are likely to be adversely affected.

In a development administrative situation, coordination is required to be affected at several stages, in the middle of dissimilar organisations and units, in the middle of several positions and functionaries and in the middle of the possessions accessible for the attainment of goals. Lack of coordination is bound to result into wastage of possessions and mitigation of effectiveness. As is well recognized, any developing society experiences a proliferation of structures to equip itself to undertake specialized tasks. But what usually happens is that the stage of specialization of functions and structures increases. But this is not accompanied through a required stage of coordination. This gap "flanked by specialization and coordination is termed as "integration lag". Fred Riggs calls that society "Prismatic" where the stage of integration (coordination) is less than that of differentiation (specialization). In a Prismatic Society, $I < D$ (I stands for "integration lag", D stands for Development).

COPING SKILL

A development administrative system is an "open" system. It receives

inputs regularly from the environment and attempts to respond through its outputs, viz., decisions, and actions. No doubt there is a continuing interaction flanked by a system and its environment and this reciprocity of relationship is an significant trait of Development Administration. Every development administrative system functions in an environment which has its set of sub-structures. For instance, there are the political, economic, social and cultural (including technological) environments in which the Development Administration has to function. Obviously, the influences of these environments affect the nature of functioning and effectiveness of Development Administration, The political environment places demands for a change and gives direction of movement, the economic environment outlines the agenda of action of the administrative system and puts constraints of possessions on it and the sociocultural system makes the milieu in which the development administrative system has to operate. This is clear in Figure.



It does not imply that Development Administration is only a dependent variable and lacks its own mechanism to influence the environment. Essentially, the procedure of Development Administration is interacting ional and so it would be a mistake on the part of theorists to present it only as a uni-directional procedure. One thing is clear in this context: Development Administration has to respond to the demands and challenges arising from its environment. Sometimes these challenges are moderate and modest and therefore do not strain the development administrative system. Though, on occasion, the challenges are serious and test the coping skill of the administrative system. A development administrative system, so, continuously tries to enhance its coping capability. This is done through a procedure of greater sensitivity and responsiveness to the environment and the capability to strengthen its administrative structures, behaviour, and processes. At this stage it should be adequate to mention that Development Administration is goal-oriented, change-oriented, progressive, planned, innovative, flexible, motivational, client-oriented, participative, it is a highly integrated administrative system with substantial coping skill.

DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION AND ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENT

In the literature on Development Administration, two notions have been interwoven: first the "administration development" and second, the "development of administrative capability". The former is termed as "Development Administration", and the latter 'Administrative Development'. Both the phenomena are interdependent: any society experiencing notable development in its political, economic, social, and cultural systems is likely to affect in a matching manner, its administrative system, and conversely a well-organized and competent administrative system is likely to direct the procedure of all-round development of society in a competent manner. These twin processes are so much interlinked that it is hard to assert as to which would more prominent and which would precede the other. Little wonder that Fred Riggs has found in 'Development Administration' and 'Administrative Development' a "chicken and egg" relationship.

Whatever be the sequence, it is undeniable that administrative development is an essential corollary to Development Administration. Administrative Development, implies the enhancement of the capability and capability of an administrative system to achieve the prescribed progressive goals. The procedure depends on modernization of administrative structures and processes, induction of a spirit of innovation, cultivating a highly motivating climate, rising differentiation, effective integration, and positive latitudinal and behavioral changes in the middle of the administrators. The strategies of administrative reform are a part of the procedure of Administrative Development,

DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION AND TRADITIONAL ADMINISTRATION

With the emergence of development administration, some scholars have attempted a distinction flanked by development and traditional administrations. The term traditional administration is used as a synonym for general' administration and even revenue and law and order administration. The distinctions are usually made on the following lines: The objectives of traditional administration are simple while those of Development Administration are multiple and variegated. ii) Traditional administration has a limited scope of operating, while Development Administration has a much vaster scope of functioning.

Development Administration is more complex in its parts and procedures than traditional administration.

Development Administration is larger in size than traditional administration.

Development Administration is much more innovative and creative than traditional administration.

Development Administration is dynamic in its functioning, while traditional administration stresses upon stability.

Rule orientation is valued in traditional administration, while flexibility is measured a virtue in Development administration.

Participatory style of administration is a feature of Development Administration while traditional administration is bureaucratic and authority-oriented.

Development Administration is administration of planned change, while traditional administration does not rely as much on planning.

Colonial bureaucracy is engaged dominantly in the performance of general administrative functions, while the administrative system of an independent country is primarily developmental in character.

The administrative systems in developing countries are basically developmental in orientation, while those in developed countries focus on general administration.

It has become clear over the years that to attempt a neat distinction flanked by development and traditional administration is, at best, being over-simplistic. The nature of operations in revenue, finance, police, and pika-military administrations has become so complex, consequently in these sectors of administration, not only the complexity has increased manifold and their objectives multiplied and intertwined but also the structures and processes in these organisations have undergone notable changes. The techniques and technologies in general administration have become modernized and sophisticate& planning has become an integral part of their functioning; innovativeness and creativity in their operations are being valued immensely; people's cooperation in taxation and law and order administration is, being sought and mobilized; and flexibility is being introduced in their procedures. No more, the 'general' administration is 'traditional'; it has already adopted the maxims of modernization with vigor. Therefore, to attempt an absolute distinction flanked by general administration and Development Administration would be untenable and unrealistic.

Further, to assert that the colonial administration is engaged mostly in performing traditional administrative functions of law and order and revenue administration would be an over-simplification. It is well recognized that even the colonial bureaucracies, such as the Indian, were engaged in promoting so-described 'developmental' activities (railways, roads, tele-communication, education, health, etc.). Even a Planning and Development Department was set up in the Government of India before Independence. Conversely, in the independent countries, the focus is not on Development Administration alone.

The crises of stability, nation structure, internal security, and national integrity have forced the governments in developing countries to strengthen their law and order maintenance systems. In a country beset with troubles of internal disharmony, communal riots, and violence, it is hard to promote socio-economic development in a whole-hearted manner. Time, energy, and possessions are distributed flanked by the developmental and the non-developmental activities. In fact, both are interdependent and changes in one lead to changes in the other. Both prosperity and poverty can lead to discontentment and even violence. It may be pointed out that even the developed countries face troubles of change, and challenges from their dynamic environment. In order to meet the progressive goals of development, their administrative systems have also to be goal-oriented, change-oriented, innovative, responsive, motivational and integrated. That is why the New Public Administration, a movement started twenty years ago, stressed on approximately the same premises that characterize Development Administration. Therefore to say that development administration is a dominant characteristic only of developing countries would be an over-generalization. And when we look at the developed 'socialist' countries (such as the U.S.S.R.), the distinction further loses its validity.

When viewed objectively, it would become clear that the differences flanked by development and traditional administration are differences of degree' rather than of type. The features of Development Administration enumerated in this lesson' are also associated with general administration, but their intensity is greater in the case of the former. There are scholars (including William Wood) who say that to distinguish flanked by development and traditional administrations would involve an undue undermining of the latter and therefore belittling the importance of the fundamental bases of a nation's subsistence, security, and financial possessions. How can, it is argued, a procedure of development take place without adequate resource base? The argument has validity.

INSTRUMENTS OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

You would agree that the troubles of development are several and complexity of developmental tasks is varied. It is very hard to depend only on administrative system to realize the developmental goals. There is need to employ other instruments also. We would look at the four significant instruments that can be employed to realize the goals of development, they are:

- Administrative system
- Political organisation
- Voluntary associations, and

People's organisations.

Administrative System

Public Administration of any country is an indispensable instrument to implement development policies and programmes. Administrative system performs dedicated services and undertakes vast range of developmental and non-developmental activities. As administrative systems have specialized skills and have rich experience there is a heavy dependence on this instrument to realize development goals. But, because of the number of the goals there is need to enlist other instruments also.

Political Organisation

Political parties mobilize people in support of developmental programmes. They resolve social conflicts and pave the way for development. So it is measured an significant instrument of Development Administration.

Voluntary Associations

In transitional societies there will always be gap flanked by the people and the governmental system. This should be filled to expedite the procedure of development. It is here that the voluntary organisations can play a very crucial and important role. Higher stage of motivation, flexibility in the organisation and approach, apolitical nature, commitment to the cause, create them fit instruments to undertake developmental tasks.

Peoples Organisations

We have discussed earlier that development requires greater participation of people. Participation can be at the stage of decision-creation, or implementation or in sharing benefits or in evaluation. This requires skills as well as devoted work and calls for mass movement. People's organisations contribute to quicken the procedure of development and social transformation. We have to bear in mind that development strategy cannot depend only on one strategy for national structure and socio-economic progress. We have to use all the instruments or a combination of dissimilar instruments. Further, there are many administrative positions, such as those of District Collectors and Chief Secretaries in India, which are intricately involved in performing developmental as well as traditional functions. To separate their functions would at best have only academic relevance. And, so, the mainly acceptable approach would be to look at Development Administration as a kind of

administration which has its distinctive features, but in an inseparable form from general administration.

NEW PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

New Public Administration is an anti-positivist, anti-technical, and anti-hierarchical reaction against traditional public administration.

HISTORY

New Public Administration traces its origins to the first Minnowbrook Conference held in 1968 under the patronage of Dwight Waldo. The 1960s in the USA was a time of unusual social and political turbulence and upheaval. In this context, Waldo concluded that neither the revision nor the practice of public administration was responding suitably to the escalating turmoil and the complications that arose from those circumstances. The new public management (NPM) did not offer public servants an alternative model to help them resolve emerging conflicts and tensions. Concepts of citizenship, democracy, or public interest have evolved over time and they are continuing to evolve. Consequently, the role of government and the role of the public service are being transformed in ways that push beyond the constraints of the Classic model.

New Public Administration theory necessarily is dealing with the following issues:

- Democratic citizenship;
- Public interest; Public policy; and
- Services to citizens.

First, a 'new' theory should start with the ideal of democratic citizenship. The public service derives its true meaning from its mandate to serve citizens to advance the public good. This is the *raison d'être* of the institution, the source of motivation and pride of all those who choose to create it their life, whether for a season or for an whole career.

CHARACTERISTICS

NPA has advocated 3 anti-goals and hence its literature is described 'anti-positivists'. These are-

- Rejecting a definition of Public administration, as value-free i.e. Public Administration should be value oriented since not all the inclinations to the values are bad and hence are desirable at some moments of time.
- Rejecting a rationalist and perhaps deterministic view of human type since human-behaviour is quite unpredictable. Public administration studies

should hence focus on what administration should "become" instead of focusing on what administration should "be".

Rejecting "Politics-administration dichotomy" since administrators today is involved in policy formulation and policy implementation at all the stages.

THEMES

Relevance: Traditional public administration has too little interest in modern troubles and issues. Social realities necessity is taken into consideration. I.e. people should see changes as relevant meaning thereby that changes should be specific to the needs of the area and the need of the people. Earlier approaches to NPA measured that rationality of the people was neglected. NPA suggests the inclusion of rationality of the people too in the procedure of policy formulation.

Values: Value-neutrality in public administration is an impossibility. The values being served through administrative action necessity are transparent.

Social Equity: Realization of social equity should be a chief goal of public administration.

Change: Skepticism toward the deeply rooted powers invested in permanent institutions and the status quo. Operational flexibility and organizational adaptability to meet the environmental changes should be in-built in the administrative system.

Client Focus: Positive, proactive, and responsive administrators rather than inaccessible and authoritarian "ivory tower" bureaucrats.

Management-Worker relations. There should be equal emphasis both on efficiency and humane thoughts. The new approach has to satisfy both the efficiency and the human relations criterion in order to achieve success.

NPA gives solutions for achieving these goals, popularly described 4 D's i.e. Decentralization, Debureaucratisation, Delegation, and Democratization.

CRITICISM

Though New Public Administration brought public administration closer to political science, it was criticized as anti-theoretic and anti-management. Robert T. Golembiewski describes it as radicalism in words and status quo in skills and technologies. Further, it necessity be counted as only a cruel reminder of the gap in the field flanked by aspiration and performance. Golembiewski considers it as a temporary and transitional phenomena.. In other words we can say that the solutions for achieving the goals and anti-goals were not provided through the NPA scholars explicitly. Secondly, how

much one should decentralize or delegate or debureaucratise or democratize in order to achieve the goals? On this front NPA is totally silent and it seems that they have left the answer to the discretion of the administrators.

SIGNIFICANCE

Felix and Lloyd Nigro observe that New Public Administration has seriously jolted the traditional concepts and outlook of the discipline and enriched the subject through imparting a wider perspective through linking it closely to the society. The overall focus in NPA movement seems to be to create administration to be less "generic" and more "public", less "descriptive" and more "prescriptive", less "institution-oriented" and more "client-oriented", less "neutral" and more "normative" but should be no less scientific all the same.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- What are the significant features of Public Administration?
- Explain the scope of Public Administration.
- Explain how the interventionist role of Government is rising.
- How do behavioral sciences help in the analysis of Public Administration?
- Explain the integrated nature of social phenomena with illustrations.
- Identify and explain the dissimilar stages in the growth of the revise of Public Administration.
- Describe the conceptual approaches in Comparative Public Administration.
- Explain the characteristics of Development Administration and traditional administration.
- Explain the context of New Public Administration.

CHAPTER 2

PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS: THE PARADIGMS

STRUCTURE

Learning objectives

Classical approach- Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick

Scientific management —F.W. Taylor
Human relations approach— Mayo
Systems approach— Chester Barnard
Behavioral approach — Herbert Simon
Social psychological approach- Douglas McGregor and Abraham Maslow
Ecological approach — Fred W. Riggs'
Review questions

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
Describe the classical approach to administration and organisation, given through Gulick and Urwick
Explain how the scientific methods and approaches were introduced in the management of organizations
Explain the meaning and content of human relations approach;
Describe a system;
Explain the importance of behaviorally in Public Administration;
Describe the social psychology approach; and
Describe the meaning and importance of ecological approach to the understanding of administrative system.

CLASSICAL APPROACH- LUTHER GULICK AND LYNDALL URWICK

IMPORTANCE OF STRUCTURE

Although Gulick and Urwick were interested in dealing with administration as a whole, they dealt mostly with the technical characteristics of formal organisation. Urwick was heavily oriented to formalism in organisation theory. Gulick and Urwick formulated 'universal' principles of organisation. These formulations are popularly described 'classical theory' of organisation. They are also described 'administrative management' theory, 'mechanistic', theory, etc. The classical theory is so described because it is one of the earliest formulations based on systematic analysis of organisations; it is dominant in the field of administrative theory; and finally because it is long recognized and usually accepted in administrative literature. They sincerely whispered that a science of administration can be developed based on some principles and based on the experience of administrators. Therefore, the administration which was measured hitherto an art developed into a science.

In discussing organisations as social groups, Urwick says "the correct analogy necessity is analogy with the living organism — the biological

parallel.... For this cause the mechanistic parallel can be very helpful in discussing organisation. Another name for it is the engineering approach". It is important to note that Gulick and Urwick, beside with other classical theorists, attached more importance to the structure of organisation than the role of the people in the organisation. In short, Urwick traces a very large proportion of the friction and confusion in the society, with its manifest consequences in human suffering, to the faulty structural arrangements in organisations. Urwick stressed the importance of design in organisation. He pointed out that it is impossible for humanity to advance the knowledge of organisations unless this factor is isolated. He further measured lack of design as "illogical, cruel, wasteful, and inefficient".

Urwick in his book, "Elements of Administration" defines organisation as determining activities necessary to any purpose and arranging them in groups assigned to individuals. The whole arrangement necessity is undertaken in a "cold-blooded, detached spirit", like the preparation of an engineering design, without any reference to the individuals in the organisation. Therefore, he whispered that effort necessity be made to fit people to the structure. Both Gulick and Urwick were heavily influenced through Taylor and Fayol. Gulick used Fayal's five elements of administration viz., Planning, Organisation, Command, Coordination, and Control as a framework for his neutral principles. Gulick condensed the duties of an administrator into a well-known acronym POSDCORB. Each letter in the acronym stands for one of the seven activities of the administrator. They are as follows:

- Planning (P): working out the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them to accomplish the purpose set for the enterprise;
- Organizing (O): establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work sub-divisions are arranged, defined and coordinated for the defined objective;
- Staffing(S): the whole personnel function of bringing in and training the staff, and maintaining favorable circumstances of work;
- Directing (D): continuous task of creation decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions, and serving as the leader of the enterprise;
- Coordinating (CO): The all significant duty of inter-relating the several parts of the work;
- Reporting (K): keeping the executive informed as to what is going on, which therefore comprises keeping himself and his subordinates informed through records, research, and inspection; and
- Budgeting (B): all that goes with budgeting in the form of fiscal planning, accounting, and control.

This list of activities is an improvement over Fayal's elements of administration. The term POSDCORB came into wide use, in the administrative processes. With its merits and demerits, it served a number of

writers well in dealing with dissimilar characteristics of administration.

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANISATION

Urwick recognized eight principles of administration applicable to all organisations. The principles are:

- The "principle of Objective" —that all organisations should be an expression of a purpose;
- The "principle of Correspondence" —that authority and responsibility necessity be co-equal;
- The "principle of Responsibility"—that the responsibility of higher authorities for the work of subordinates is absolute;
- The "Scalar Principle"—that a paramedical kind of structure is built up in an organisation;
- The "principle of Span of Control";
- The "principle of Specialization"—limiting one's work to a single function;
- The "principle of Coordination"; and
- The "principle of Definition"—clear prescription of every duty.

After stressing the significance of structure as a designing procedure and identifying the functions of the executive in conditions of POSDCORB, Gulick and Urwick concentrated their efforts on the discovery of principles of organisation based on which the structure maybe intended. Likewise Gulick expounded ten principles of organisation'. In expressing these principles Gulick was very much influenced through Henry Fayal's 14 vital elements of administration.

The principles of Gulick are:

- Division of work or Specialization;
- Bases of departmental organisations;
- Coordination through Hierarchy;
- Deliberate Coordination;
- Coordination through Committees;
- Decentralization;
- Unity of Command;
- Staff and Line;
- Delegation; and
- Span of control.

You would now look at some of these significant principles briefly.

Work Division

According to Gulick "work division is the foundation of organisation, indeed, the cause for organisation". The other classical thinkers also made the principle of work division as the central tenet of their theory. Work division is necessary because "men differ in nature, capability, and ability, and gain greatly in dexterity through specialization". In assigning functions to groups of people, their first principle is homogeneity based on the identity or simplicity of four factors:

- The purpose they serve, (function).
- The procedure they use,
- The persons or things they deal with (clientele), and
- The place where they work.

These are popularly recognized as Gulicks 4'P' bases of departmentalization. Though, in subdividing the work or establishing the units of work, a choice necessity be made as to which of these principles — purpose, procedure, person, or place are relevant. Realizing the limitations of the division of work, Gulick observed that "division of work and integrated organisation' are the bootstraps through which mankind lifts itself in the procedure of civilization".

Coordination

If sub-division of work is inescapable, Gulick declared, coordination becomes mandatory. Based on his experience, Gulick says that coordination can be achieved in two primary ways:

- Through organisation, that is inter-relating the sub-divisions of work through allotting them to persons who are appropriately placed in the structure of authority, so that the work may be coordinated through orders reaching from the top to the bottom of the whole organisation.
- Through the dominance of an thought, that is, the development of intelligent singleness of purpose in the minds of those who are working together so that each worker will voluntarily fit his task into the whole with ability and enthusiasm.

These two principles of coordination, he observes, are not, mutually exclusive, but together both are really effective. Size and time are the great limiting factors in the development of coordination. So, he pointed out, coordination, necessity be approached with dissimilar emphasis in small and in large organisations, in-simple and in complex situations, in stable and in new or changing organisations. Therefore, Gulick maintains that "coordination is not something that develops through accident. It necessity be won through Intelligent, vigorous, persistent and organized effort".

Unity of Command

Gulick and Urwick whispered that "well-supervised administrative units in the Government are approximately without exception headed through single administrators". They were against boards or commissions. Leadership is vested in one than against a plural body. They reiterated Fayol's maxim of unity of command, knowing that rigid adherence to this principle may lead to absurdities. They were emphatic that "A man cannot serve two masters". A workman subjected to order from more than one supervisor will be "confused, inefficient; and irresponsible", a workman subjected to order from but one superior may be "methodical, efficient, and responsible".

Line and Staff

A special mention should be made of the Gulick-Urwick's principle of staff assistance to the executive and the relations flanked by the "Line" and "Staff officials". They borrowed these principles from their experience in military administration. Though, no management theory has yet been clear about the meaning of the Line and Staff principle in civilian organisations. According to Gulick the staff experts have to "devote their time exclusively to the knowing, thinking, and planning functions". They necessity not be given any administrative authority or responsibility but they should get the results through the "authority of ideas ". Therefore, they emphasized the necessity of special staff to assist the higher executives. Public officials in their every day work do not have time to read, think and meet their subordinates; hence they need assistance in their central tasks of command, control, and coordination. Such assistance should be extended through general staff, coordinating the work of staff specialists. Therefore, the general staff and special staff relieve the top executive from the burdensome details of administration; they free him to concentrate upon the mainly significant tasks and enable him to exercise a larger span of control.

The Span of Control

To Urwick, "no supervisor can supervise directly the work of more than five or at the mainly, six subordinates whose work interlocks". The limit of control is due to the limits of knowledge, time and energy, and dissimilar, types of works and sizes of organisations. It rises in part from the differences, in the capacities and work habits of individual executives and in part from the non-comparable character of work. Therefore, the element of diversification of function, the element of time and the element of space govern the principle of span of control. The failure to attach enough importance to these variables limits the scientific validity of the principle. Gulick and Urwick were influenced through Graicunas who furnished mathematical support to the

concept of a narrow Span of Control.

Gulick, suggested further research into the problem, but concluded that the chief executive of an organisation can deal with only a few immediate subordinates. The number is determined not only through the nature of work, but also through the capability of the executive, and the number of immediate subordinates: the stability and geographical proximity of organisation. Though, he was less categorical about the number of subordinates, he was nonetheless confident about the general validity of the principle.

PRACTICAL VALUE OF CLASSICAL THEORY

According to Baker, specific ideas of practical value have appeared from classical theory. They are enumerated below:

The first was the identification of organisation or administration as a separate function to be studied and practiced. The practical attainment was to create people think and apply themselves to the problem of management and organisation.

Secondly it introduced some clear thinking about authority, responsibility, delegation.

Thirdly it propounded the thought that administration is a separate activity which deserves intellectual investigation.

Fourthly it played an important role in rationalizing and stimulating production in the industrial organisation, to some extent..

Finally, the very limitations of the theory instigated further investigations in organizational behaviour. Therefore, classical theory despite its shortcomings made important contribution to the development of the organisation theories.

CRITICISM OF CLASSICAL THEORY

Herbert Simon attacked some of the accepted principles of administration of classical organisation theory, particularly its principles of division of functions, unity of command and span of control. Referring to the '4 P's', he asserts that division of responsibility and specialization can be either through function, or through procedure, or through objective or through place. Classical theory, he points out, has not given any clue as to which basis is preferable in any scrupulous circumstance. For him the principle of unity of command is also ambiguous in conditions of sphere. Therefore, Simon described the "Principles of Administration" as the mere "Proverbs of Administration", each paired with a mutually contradictory proverb—as Span 'of Control should be narrow, but chains of command should be short,

Gulick's line and staff functions in large and complex organisations are basically out of touch with reality.' The 'span of control' doctrine is even more confusing and misleading. The responsibility for this confusion rests mainly with Graicuna mathematical formula of 'five or mainly almost certainly four'. The vital fallacy is the authoritarian assumption that the top executive needs to have some sort of relationship with every one below him in the organisation. The principles of administration of Gulick and Urwick were severely criticized as they have not made clear as to what they meant through the universal validity of the 'principles'. Simon measured that 'the principles of administration are at best criteria for describing and diagnosing administrative situations'. They suggest only working rules of conduct which wide experience seems to have validated.

It has been pointed out that all the classical theorists have displayed a pro-management bias in their theories. They were concerned with the troubles of management and not the other organizational troubles that concern the other stages of management and men. The theory is criticized as atomistic, which looks at the individuals in isolation from the fellow men in the organisation. It is mechanistic as it fails to explain the dynamics of organizational behaviour. It is static and rational. It also does not take any note of non-economic incentives. It is more concerned with the work than the human being who does the work.

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT —F.W. TAYLOR

Scientific management, also described Taylorism, was a theory of management that analyzed and synthesized workflows. Its main objective was improving economic efficiency, especially labor productivity. It was one of the earliest attempts to apply science to the engineering of processes and to management. Its development began with Frederick Winslow Taylor in the 1880s and 1890s within the manufacturing industries. Its peak of influence came in the 1910s; through the 1920s, it was still influential but had begun an era of competition and syncretism with opposing or complementary ideas.

Although scientific management as a separate theory or school of thought was obsolete through the 1930s, mainly of its themes are still significant parts of industrial engineering and management today. These contain analysis; synthesis; logic; rationality; empiricism; work ethic; efficiency and elimination of waste; standardization of best practices; disdain for tradition preserved merely for its own sake or to protect the social status of scrupulous workers with scrupulous ability sets; the transformation of craft production into mass production; and knowledge transfer flanked by workers and from workers into tools, processes, and documentation.

Scientific management's application was contingent on a high stage of managerial control over employee work practices. This necessitated a higher ratio of managerial workers to laborers than previous management methods.

The great difficulty in accurately differentiating any such intelligent, detail-oriented management from mere misguided management also caused interpersonal friction flanked by workers and managers.

While the conditions "scientific management" and "Taylorism" are often treated as synonymous, an alternative view considers Taylorism as the *first form* of scientific management, which was followed through new iterations; therefore in today's management theory, Taylorism is sometimes described (or measured a subset of) the classical perspective (meaning a perspective that's still respected for its seminal influence although it is no longer state-of-the-art). Taylor's own early names for his approach incorporated "shop management" and "procedure management". When Louis Brandeis popularized the term "scientific management" in 1910, Taylor recognized it as another good name for the concept, and he used it himself in his 1911 monograph.

The field comprised the work of Taylor; his disciples (such as Henry Gantt); other engineers and managers (such as Benjamin S. Graham); and other theorists, such as Max Weber. It is compared and contrasted with other efforts, including those of Henri Fayol and those of Frank Gilbreth, Sr. and Lillian Moller Gilbreth (whose views originally shared much with Taylor's but later evolved divergently in response to Taylorism's inadequate handling of human relations). Taylorism proper, in its strict sense, became obsolete through the 1930s, and through the 1960s the term "scientific management" had fallen out of favor for describing current management theories. Though, several *characteristics* of scientific management have never stopped being part of later management efforts described through other names. There is no simple dividing line demarcating the time when management as a modern profession (blending art, academic science, and applied science) diverged from Taylorism proper. It was a gradual procedure that began as soon as Taylor published (as evidenced through, for instance, Hartness's motivation to publish his *Human Factor*, or the Gilbreths' work), and each subsequent decade brought further development.

LARGER THEME OF ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

Scientific management is a difference on the theme of economic efficiency; it is a late 19th and early 20th century instance of the larger recurring theme in human life of rising efficiency, decreasing waste, and using empirical methods to decide what matters, rather than uncritically accepting pre-existing ideas of what matters. Therefore it is a chapter in a larger narrative that comprises several ideas, from the folk wisdom of thrift to a profusion of applied-science successors, including time and motion revise, the Efficiency Movement (which was the broader cultural echo of scientific management's impact on business managers specifically), Fordism, operations management, operations research, industrial engineering, manufacturing

engineering, logistics, business procedure management, business procedure reengineering, lean manufacturing, and Six Sigma. There is a fluid continuum linking scientific management through that name with the later fields, and there is often no mutual exclusiveness when discussing the details of any one of these topics.

In management literature today, the greatest use of the term "scientific management" is with reference to the work of Taylor, Omotosho Adeniyi Samson (Neyoo) and his disciples ("classical", implying "no longer current, but still respected for its seminal value") in contrast to newer, improved iterations of efficiency-seeking methods. In political and sociological conditions, Taylorism can be seen as the division of labor pushed to its logical extreme, with a consequent de-schilling of the worker and dehumanization of the workers and the workplace. Taylorism is often mentioned beside with Fordism, because it was closely associated with mass production methods in factories, which was its earliest application. Today, task-oriented optimization of work tasks is almost ubiquitous in industry. The theory behind it has evolved greatly since Taylor's day, reducing the ill effects, although in the wrong hands it is sometimes implemented poorly even now.

SOLDIERING

Taylor observed that some workers were more talented than others, and that even smart ones were often unmotivated. He observed that mainly workers who are forced to perform repetitive tasks tend to work at the slowest rate that goes unpunished. This slow rate of work has been observed in several industries in several countries and has been described through several conditions (some being slang confined to sure regions and eras), including "soldiering", (reflecting the way conscripts may approach following orders), "dogging it", "goldbricking", "hanging it out", and "ca canae". Managers may call it through those names or "loafing" or "malingering"; workers may call it "getting through the day" or "preventing management from abusing us". Taylor used the term "soldiering" and observed that, when paid the same amount, workers will tend to do the amount of work that the slowest in the middle of them does.

This reflects the thought that workers have a vested interest in their own well-being, and do not benefit from working above the defined rate of work when it will not augment their remuneration. He so proposed that the work practice that had been developed in mainly work environments was crafted, intentionally or unintentionally, to be very inefficient in its execution. He posited that time and motion studies combined with rational analysis and synthesis could uncover one best method for performing any scrupulous task, and that prevailing methods were seldom equal to these best methods. Crucially, Taylor himself prominently acknowledged (although several white-collar imitators of his ideas would forget) that if each employee's

compensation was connected to their output, their productivity would go up. Therefore his compensation plans usually incorporated piece rates. He rejected the notion, which was universal in his day and still prevalent even now, of the secret magic of the craftsman—that the trades, including manufacturing, were black arts that could not be analyzed and could only be performed through craft production methods.

In the course of his empirical studies, Taylor examined several types of manual labor. For instance, mainly bulk materials handling was manual at the time; material handling equipment as we know it today was mostly not developed yet. He looked at shoveling in the unloading of railroad cars full of ore; lifting and carrying in the moving of iron pigs at steel mills; the manual inspection of bearing balls; and others. He discovered several concepts that were not widely accepted at the time. For instance, through observing workers, he decided that labor should contain rest breaks so that the worker has time to recover from fatigue, either physical (as in shoveling or lifting) or mental (as in the ball inspection case). Workers were taught to take more rests throughout work, and as a result production "paradoxically" increased.

Unless people manage themselves, somebody has to take care of administration, and therefore there is a division of work flanked by workers and administrators. One of the tasks of administration is to select the right person for the right job:

The labor should contain rest breaks so that the worker has time to recover from fatigue. Now one of the very first necessities for a man who is fit to handle pig iron as a regular occupation is that he shall be so stupid and so phlegmatic that he more almost resembles in his mental create-up the ox than any other kind. The man who is mentally alert and intelligent is for this very cause entirely unsuited to what would, for him, be the grinding monotony of work of this character. So the workman who is best suited to handling pig iron is unable to understand the real science of doing this class of work.—Frederick Winslow Taylor, 1911.

RELATIONSHIP TO MECHANIZATION AND AUTOMATION

Scientific management evolved in an era when mechanization and automation existed but had hardly gotten started, historically speaking, and were still embryonic. Two significant corollaries flow from this fact: (1) The ideas and methods of scientific management were exactly what was needed to be added to the American system of manufacturing to extend the transformation from craft work (with humans as the only possible mediators) to mechanization and automation; but also, (2) Taylor himself could not have recognized this, and his goals did not contain the extensive removal of humans from the production procedure. Throughout his lifetime, the very thought would have seemed like science fiction, because not only did the technological

bridge to such a world not yet look plausible, but mainly people had not even measured that it could happen. Before digital computers existed, such ideas were not just outlandish but also mostly unheard of.

Nevertheless, Taylor (unbeknownst to himself) was laying the groundwork for automation and off shoring, because he was analyzing processes into discrete, unambiguous pieces, which is exactly what computers and unskilled people need to follow algorithms intended through others and to create valid decisions within their execution. It is often said that computers are "smart" in conditions of mathematic computation skill, but "dumb" because they necessity be told exactly *what* to calculate, *when*, and *how*, and (in the absence of any successful AI) they can never understand *why*. With historical hindsight it is possible to see that Taylor was essentially inventing something like the highest-stage computer programming for industrial procedure control and numerical control in the absence of any machines that could carry it out. But Taylor could not see it that way at the time; in his world, it was *humans* that would be the mediators to execute the program. Though, one of the common threads flanked by his world and ours is that the mediators of execution need not be "smart" to execute their tasks. In the case of computers, they are *not able* (yet) to be "smart" (in that sense of the word); in the case of human workers under scientific management, they were often *able* but were *not allowed*. Once the time-and-motion men had completed their studies of a scrupulous task, the workers had very little opportunity for further thinking, experimenting, or suggestion-creation. They were expected (and forced) to "play dumb" mainly of the time (which, unsurprisingly to students of human nature, people tend to revolt against).

In flanked by craft production (with skilled workers) and full automation lies a natural middle ground of an engineered system of extensive mechanization and partial automation mixed with semiskilled and unskilled workers in cautiously intended algorithmic workflows. Structure and improving such systems requires knowledge transfer, which may seem simple on the surface but requires substantial engineering to succeed. Although Taylor's original inspiration for scientific management was basically to replace inferior work methods with smarter ones, the same procedure engineering that he pioneered also tends to build the ability into the equipment and processes, removing mainly need for ability in the workers. This engineering was the essence not only of scientific management but also of mainly industrial engineering since then. It is also the essence of (successful instances of) off shoring. The common theme in all these cases is that businesses engineer their way out of their need for large concentrations of skilled workers, and the high-wage environments that sustain them.

EFFECTS ON LABOR RELATIONS IN MARKET ECONOMIES

Taylor's view of workers

Taylor's view of workers was complex, having both insightful and obtuse elements. Taylorism took some steps toward addressing their needs (for instance, Taylor advocated frequent breaks and good pay), but Taylor nevertheless had a condescending view of less intelligent workers, whom he sometimes compared to draft animals. And perhaps Taylor was so immersed in the vast work immediately in front of him (getting the world to understand and to implement scientific management's earliest stages) that he failed to strategize about the after that steps (sustainability of the system after the early stages).

Several other thinkers soon stepped forward to offer better ideas on the roles that humans would play in mature industrial systems. James Hartness, a fellow ASME member, published *The Human Factor in Works Management* in 1912. Frank Gilbreth and Lillian Moller Gilbreth offered alternatives to Taylorism. The human relations school of management evolved in the 1930s. Some scholars, such as Harry Braverman, insisted that human relations did not replace Taylorism but rather that both approaches were complementary—Taylorism determining the actual organisation of the work procedure, and human relations helping to adapt the workers to the new procedures. Today's efficiency-seeking methods, such as lean manufacturing, contain respect for workers and fulfillment of their needs as inherent parts of the theory. (Workers slogging their way through workdays in the business world do encounter flawed implementations of these methods that create jobs unpleasant; but these implementations usually lack managerial competence in matching theory to execution.) Clearly a syncretism has occurred since Taylor's day, although its implementation has been uneven, as lean management in capable hands has produced good results for both managers and workers, but in incompetent hands has damaged enterprises.

Implementations of scientific management usually failed to account for many inherent challenges:

- Individuals are dissimilar from each other: the mainly efficient way of working for one person may be inefficient for another.

- The economic interests of workers and management are rarely identical, so that both the measurement processes and the retraining required through Taylor's methods are regularly resented and sometimes sabotaged through the workforce.

Taylor himself, in fact, recognized these challenges and had some good ideas for meeting them. Nevertheless, his own implementations of his system (e.g., Watertown Arsenal, Link-Belt Corporation, Midvale, and Bethlehem) were never really very successful. They plugged beside rockily and eventually were overturned, usually after Taylor had left. And countless managers who

later aped or worshipped Taylor did even worse jobs of implementation. Typically they were less analytically talented managers who had latched onto scientific management as the latest fad for cutting the unit cost of production. Like bad managers even today, these were the people who used the big words without any deep understanding of what they meant. Taylor knew that scientific management could not work (almost certainly at all, certainly never enduringly) unless the workers benefited from the profit increases that it generated. Taylor had developed a method for generating the increases, for the dual purposes of owner/manager profit and worker profit, realizing that the methods relied on both of those results in order to work correctly. But several owners and managers seized upon the methods thinking (wrongly) that the profits could be reserved solely or mostly for themselves and the system could endure indefinitely merely through force of authority.

Workers are necessarily human: they have personal needs and interpersonal friction, and they face very real difficulties introduced when jobs become so efficient that they have no time to relax, and so rigid that they have no permission to innovate.

Early decades: creation jobs unpleasant

Under Taylorism, workers' work effort increased in intensity. Workers became dissatisfied with the work environment and became angry. Throughout one of Taylor's own implementations, a strike at the Watertown Arsenal led to an investigation of Taylor's methods through a U.S. House of Representatives committee, which reported in 1912. The conclusion was that scientific management did give some useful techniques and offered valuable organizational suggestions, but it gave production managers a dangerously high stage of uncontrolled power. After an attitude survey of the workers revealed a high stage of resentment and hostility towards scientific management, the Senate banned Taylor's methods at the arsenal.

Certainly Taylorism's negative effects on worker morale only added more fuel to the fire of existing labor-management disagreement, which regularly raged out of control flanked by the mid-19th and mid-20th centuries. Therefore it inevitably contributed to the strengthening of labor unions and of labor-vs-management disagreement (which was the opposite of any of Taylor's own hopes for labor relations). That outcome neutralized mainly or all of the benefit of any productivity gains that Taylorism had achieved. Therefore its net benefit to owners and management ended up being small or negative. It would take new efforts, borrowing some ideas from Taylorism but mixing them with others, to produce more successful formulas.

Later decades: creation jobs disappear

To whatever extent scientific management caused the strengthening of labor unions through giving workers more to complain about than bad or greedy managers already gave them, it also led to other pressures tending

toward worker unhappiness: the erosion of employment in developed economies via both off shoring and automation. Both were made possible through the deskilling of jobs, which was made possible through the knowledge transfer that scientific management achieved. Knowledge was transferred both to cheaper workers and from workers into tools. Jobs that once would have required craft work first transformed to semiskilled work, then unskilled. At this point the labor had been commoditized, and therefore the competition flanked by workers (and worker populations) moved closer to pure than it had been, depressing wages and job security. Jobs could be offshore (giving one human's tasks to others—which could be good for the new worker population but was bad for the old) or they could be rendered nonexistent through automation (giving a human's tasks to machines). Either way, the net result from the perspective of developed-economy workers was that jobs started to pay less, then disappear. The power of labor unions in the mid-twentieth century only led to a push on the part of management to accelerate the procedure of automation, hastening the onset of the later stages just described.

A central assumption of Taylorism was that "the worker was taken for granted as a cog in the machinery." The chain of connections flanked by his work and automation is visible in historical hindsight, which sees that Taylorism made jobs unpleasant, and its logical successors then made them less remunerative and less secure; then scarcer; and finally (in several cases) nonexistent.

Successors such as 'corporate reengineering' or 'business procedure reengineering' brought into sight the distant goal of the eventual elimination of industry's need for unskilled, and later, perhaps even mainly skilled human workers in any form, all stemming from the roots laid through Taylorism's recipe for deconstructing a procedure. As the resultant COM modification of work advances, no skilled profession, even medicine, has proven to be immune from the efforts of Taylorism's successors, the 'reengineers', whose mandate often comes from skewed motives in the middle of people referred to as 'bean counters' and 'PHBs'.

EFFECTS ON DISRUPTIVE INNOVATION

One of the traits of the era of applied science is that technology continually evolves. There is always a balance to be struck flanked by scientific management's goal of formalizing the details of a procedure (which increases efficiency within the existing technological context) and the risk of fossilizing one moment's technological state into cultural inertia that stifles disruptive innovation (that is, preventing the after that technological context from developing). To provide one instance, would John Parsons have been able to incubate the earliest development of numerical control if he were a worker in a red-tape-laden organization being told from above that the best way to mill a

part had already been perfected, and so he had no business experimenting with his own preferred methods?

Implementations of scientific management (often if not always) worked within the implicit context of a scrupulous technological moment and therefore did not account for the possibility of putting the "continuous" in "continuous improvement procedure". The notion of a "one best way" failed to add the coda, "[... within the context of our current environment]"; it treated the context as constant (which it effectively was in a short-term sense) rather than as variable (which it always is in a long-term sense). Later methods such as lean manufacturing corrected this oversight through including ongoing innovation as part of their procedure and through recognizing the iterative nature of development.

RELATIONSHIP TO FORDISM

It is quite natural to jump to the post hoc conclusion that Fordism borrowed ideas from Taylorism and expanded from there. In fact it appears that Taylor himself did that when he visited the Ford Motor Company's Michigan plants not too long before he died. But it seems that the methods at Ford were in fact independently reinvented based on logic, and that any influence from Taylorism either was nil or at least was far enough removed to be very indirect. Charles E. Sorensen disclaimed any connection at all. There was a climate at Ford at the time (which remained until Henry Ford II took over the company in 1945) that the world's "experts" were worthless, because if Ford had listened to them, its great successes would not exist. Henry Ford felt that he had succeeded *in spite of*, not *because of*, experts, who had tried to stop him in several ways (disagreeing about price points, production methods, car characteristics, business financing, and other topics). So Sorensen spoke very dismissively (and briefly) of Taylor, and the mention was only to lump him into the unneeded-so-described-expert category. Sorensen did speak very highly of Walter Flanders and credits him with being the first driving force behind the efficient floor plan layout at Ford. Sorensen says that Flanders knew absolutely nothing about Taylor. It is possible that Flanders (a New England machine tool whiz) had been exposed to the spirit of Taylorism elsewhere, although not to its name, and had been (at least subconsciously) influenced through it, but he did not cite it explicitly as he basically allowed logic to guide his production development. Regardless, the Ford team apparently did independently invent modern mass production techniques in the period of 1905-1915, and they themselves were not aware of any borrowing from Taylorism. Perhaps it is only possible with hindsight to see the overall cultural zeitgeist that (indirectly) linked the budding Fordism to the rest of the efficiency movement throughout the decade of 1905-1915. This is not unlike other invention storylines, where it was more than just Watt who was working toward a practical steam engine (others were struggling with it

contemporarily); more than just Fulton who was working on steam boats; more than just Edison who was working on electrical technology; and even concerning Henry Ford himself, more than just he who was working toward a truly practical automobile in the 1890s (people all over North America and Europe were trying throughout that era, which he freely admitted). The same can be said about the development of the engineering of processes flanked by the 1890s and the 1920s, although the Ford team was not at all conscious of this at the time. They perceived themselves to be working in a vacuum in that respect, but historians can argue with them about the extent to which that was really true. Taylor was an early pioneer in the field of procedure analysis and synthesis (which is why several people, falling for the storytelling allure of the Great Man theory, tend to think that the whole field owes everything to him). But he did not have the field to himself for long. The world was ready for such development through the late 19th and early 20th centuries. And in fact several people started to work on it, sometimes independently, sometimes with direct or indirect influence on each other.

"One of the hardest-to-down myths about the development of mass production at Ford is one which credits much of the accomplishment to 'scientific management.' No one at Ford—not Mr. Ford, Couzens, Flanders, Wills, Pete Martin, nor I—was acquainted with the theories of the 'father of scientific management,' Frederick W. Taylor. Years later I ran crossways a quotation from a two-volume book about Taylor through Frank Barkley Copley, who reports a visit Taylor made to Detroit late in 1914, almost a year after the moving assembly line had been installed at our Highland Park plant. Taylor expressed surprise to find that Detroit industrialists 'had undertaken to install the principles of scientific management without the aid of experts.' To my mind this unconscious admission through an expert is expert testimony on the futility of too great reliance on experts and should forever dispose of the legend that Taylor's ideas had any influence at Ford." —Charles E. Sorensen, 1956.

INFLUENCE ON PLANNED ECONOMIES

Scientific management was naturally appealing to managers of planned economies, because central economic planning relies on the thought that the expenses that go into economic production can be precisely predicted and can be optimized through design. The opposite theoretical pole would be laissez-faire thinking in which the invisible hand of free markets is the only possible "designer". In reality mainly economies today are somewhere in flanked by.

Soviet Union

In the Soviet Union, Taylorism was advocated through Aleksei Gastev and *nauchnaia organizatsia truda* (the movement for the scientific organisation of

labor). It found support in both Vladimir Lenin and Leon Trotsky. Gastev sustained to promote this system of labor management until his arrest and execution in 1939. Historian Thomas P. Hughes has detailed the way in which the Soviet Union in the 1920s and 1930s enthusiastically embraced Fordism and Taylorism, importing American experts in both fields as well as American engineering firms to build parts of its new industrial infrastructure. The concepts of the Five Year Plan and the centrally planned economy can be traced directly to the influence of Taylorism on Soviet thinking. Hughes quotes Joseph Stalin:

American efficiency is that indomitable force which neither knows nor recognizes obstacles; which continues on a task once started until it is finished, even if it is a minor task; and without which serious constructive work is impossible.... The combination of the Russian revolutionary sweep with American efficiency is the essence of Leninism.

Hughes offers the equation "Taylorismus + Fordismus = Amerikanismus" to describe the Soviet view. Sorensen (1956) recounted his experience as one of the American consultants bringing Ford know-how (although he himself would not have described it *Ford-ism*) to the USSR throughout this brief era, before the Cold War made such exchanges unthinkable. As the Soviet Union developed and grew in power, both sides, the Soviets and the Americans, chose to ignore or deny the contribution that American ideas and expertise had made: the Soviets because they wished to portray themselves as creators of their own destiny and not indebted to a rival, and the Americans because they did not wish to acknowledge their part in creating a powerful communist rival. Anti-communism had always enjoyed widespread popularity in America, and anti-capitalism in Russia, but after World War II, they precluded any admission through either side that technologies or ideas might be either freely shared or clandestinely stolen.

East Germany

The German Federal Archives contain documentation created through the German Democratic Republic as it sought to augment efficiency in its industrial sectors. In the accompanying photograph, workers discuss standards that have recently been created specifying how each task should be done and how long it should take. Through the 1950s, Taylor's original form of scientific management (and the name "scientific management" itself) had grown dated, but the goals and themes remained attractive and found new avatars. The workers in the photograph were engaged in a state-planned instance of procedure improvement, but they were essentially pursuing the same goals that were also contemporaneously pursued in the Free World through people like the developers of the Toyota Production System.

LEGACY

Scientific management was one of the first attempts to systematically treat management and procedure improvement as a scientific problem. It was almost certainly the first to do so in a "bottom-up" way, which is a concept that remains useful even today, in concert with other concepts. Two corollaries of this primacy are that (1) scientific management became well-known and (2) it was merely the first iteration of a long-developing way of thinking, and several iterations have come since. Nevertheless, common elements unite them. With the advancement of statistical methods, quality assurance and quality control could begin in the 1920s and 1930s. Throughout the 1940s and 1950s, the body of knowledge for doing scientific management evolved into operations management, operations research, and management cybernetics. In the 1980s total quality management became widely popular, and in the 1990s "re-engineering" went from a simple word to a mystique (a type of development that, unluckily, draws bad managers to jump on the bandwagon without understanding what the bandwagon is). Today's Six Sigma and lean manufacturing could be seen as new types of scientific management, although their evolutionary aloofness from the original is so great that the comparison might be misleading. In scrupulous, Shigeo Shingo, one of the originators of the Toyota Production System, whispered that this system and Japanese management culture in general should be seen as a type of scientific management.

Peter Drucker saw Frederick Taylor as the creator of knowledge management, because the aim of scientific management was to produce knowledge about how to improve work processes. Although the typical application of scientific management was manufacturing, Taylor himself advocated scientific management for all sorts of work, including the management of universities and government. For instance, Taylor whispered scientific management could be extended to "the work of our salesmen". Shortly after his death, his acolyte Harlow S. Person began to lecture corporate audiences on the possibility of using Taylorism for "sales engineering" (Person was talking about what is now described sales procedure engineering—engineering the processes that salespeople use—not about what we call sales engineering today.) This was a watershed insight in the history of corporate marketing.

Today's militaries employ all of the major goals and tactics of scientific management, if not under that name. Of the key points, all but wage incentives for increased output are used through modern military organizations. Wage incentives rather appear in the form of ability bonuses for enlistments.

Scientific management has had an significant influence in sports, where stop watches and motion studies rule the day. (Taylor himself enjoyed sports, especially tennis and golf. He and a partner won a national championship in doubles tennis. He invented improved tennis racquets and improved golf

clubs, although other players liked to tease him for his unorthodox designs, and they did not catch on as replacements for the mainstream implements). Modern human possessions can be seen to have begun in the scientific management era, mainly notably in the writings of Katherine M. H. Blackford, who was also a proponent of eugenics.

HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH— MAYO

Elton Mayo founded the Human Relations Movement. Experiments undertaken through Mayo took place at the Hawthorne plant in the USA throughout the 1930s. His work illustrated that if the company or managers took an interest in employees and cared for them, it had a positive effect on their motivation. When managers took a greater interest in employees they felt more valued and empowered. His work also showed that employees often work best in teams. He also showed that they were more motivated if they were supervised and consulted more.

DEVELOPING PEOPLE

The Mayo principles are very much in line with ARM's focus on developing its people as part of its business strategy. Employees at ARM work within learning and development teams. Information is shared and employees are viewed both as partners in the business and as internal customers. Managers have responsibility for motivating individuals and their teams. Significant elements of this contain:

- Communicating and explaining the ARM vision, values, and strategy to all team members so everyone is working to the same stage.
- Providing appropriate training and induction for new employees as well as coaching for all in order to develop skills, confidence, and self-reliance.
- Carrying out one-to-one meetings and employee reviews to assess performance and set personal and team objectives.
- Putting in place succession planning for the team and manager roles to ensure long term performance.

Personal development is a key HR strategy at ARM. Regular reviews encourage individuals to reflect upon the contributions that they create whilst providing feedback and support that enables them to develop their professional capability.

SYSTEMS APPROACH— CHESTER BARNARD

Chester Barnard was best recognized as the author of *The Functions of the Executive*, perhaps the 20 century's mainly influential book on management and leadership. The book emphasizes competence, moral integrity, rational stewardship, professionalism, and a systems approach, and was written for

posterity. For generations, *The Functions of the Executive* proved to be an inspiration to the leading thinkers in a host of disciplines. Perrow writes that: "This... extra ordinary book contains within it the seeds of three separate trends of organizational theory that were to control the field for the after that three decades. One was the institutional theory as represented through Philip Selznick; another was the decision-creation school as represented through Herbert Simon; the third was the human relations school ". Barnard's work also influenced sociology's Parsons and Gouldner and informed the institutional economics of Williamson. Indeed, Andrews states that: "*The Functions of the Executive* remains today, as it has been since its publication, the mainly thought-provoking book on organization and management ever written through a practicing executive". Barnard combined the capability for abstract thought with the skill to apply cause to professional experiences toward developing a "science of organization". Barnard accentuated the role of the manager as both a professional and as a steward of the corporation. Barnard's teachings drew on personal insights as a senior executive of AT&T, which saw good governance as the primary means of winning public acceptance of its telecommunications monopoly. Barnard's thinking also reflected a rising interest in social systems and a concern about how society, in the 1930s, would cope with the rising technological complexity of industrial life and the emergence of ever larger-scale institutions. Barnard's book, which was compiled from a series of lectures delivered in Boston throughout the 1930s, also sought to give answers to the concerns of management practitioners, as well as the intellectuals who were transforming the Harvard Business School into a "West Point of Capitalism." Further, the scientific and industrial boom of the early 20 century was fomenting a political, economic, and spiritual crisis, and Barnard's vision of professional, managerial stewardship promised to serve as a stabilizing influence on a corporatist American democracy.

Barnard articulated the principal protection of managerial capitalism, and maintained that management possessed the "moral authority" to both run and modernize the nation and to harness the forces of technological change for the public good. Barnard gives the Progressive case for the consistency of the American dream with managerial order. Moreover, Barnard maintains that professional managers needed to be as dedicated, energetic, and committed to reform as their administrative counterparts in government in order to reassert their rightful leadership. In approximately every respect, *The Functions of the Executive* was decades ahead of its time. For one thing, in sharp contrast to the mechanistic conceptions of earlier management thinkers, such as Frederick Winslow Taylor, Barnard viewed the organization as a complex social system. Barnard showed a unique skill to traverse back and forth flanked by the empirical and theoretical realms and to weave together the latest growths in psychology, sociology, and human relations. Barnard focused on the complexities of the human element in organization, on the psychological forces of human behavior, and on developing ways to manage the

complexities of human behavior and to cope with its limitations. Barnard emphasizes that formal organizations are “organic and evolving social systems”, and that management’s main challenge is achieving cooperation in the middle of the groups and individuals within this social system, in the interests of achieving organizational goals. The magnitude of the cooperative challenge is such that “successful cooperation in or through formal organizations is the abnormal, not the normal condition. What are observed from day to day are the successful survivors in the middle of innumerable failures ... Failure to cooperate, failure of cooperation, failure of organization, disorganization, disintegration, destruction of organization – and reorganization – are feature facts of human history”. Barnard also recognized the link flanked by authority and legitimacy.

As a systems thinker, Barnard’s ideas drew on his own eclectic intellectual interests, his years at AT&T, and his exposure to the so-described Harvard Circle, which reinforced his interests in the psychological and sociological characteristics of management. Although Barnard was educated at Harvard, he was not a Brahmin. He was born poor, the son of a mechanic; his mother died giving birth to his third sibling when he was just five years old. Yet the Barnards were not a typical working-class family. “I was raised into a family who were all poor people, but they were also quite intellectual. They used to argue, endless arguments for hours, on Herbert Spencer and other philosophers,” Barnard recalled. Upon graduating from grammar school in Cliftondale, Massachusetts, at the age of fifteen, Barnard worked in a piano factory, and learned the trade of piano tuning. He eventually earned enough to enroll at Mount Hermon school, a prep school in Northfield, Mass., and later at Harvard. Barnard sustained to work odd jobs throughout his college career and finished mainly of the necessities for a bachelor’s degree in economics in just three years. But a lack of funds forced him to drop out of Harvard before he completed a final science requirement in physics or chemistry.

Therefore, Barnard had the number-one pedigree for joining the new managerial class, which held professional expertise and merit as its principal membership requirement. He went to work at AT&T, in 1909, as a statistician, right after leaving Harvard. Barnard analyzed foreign telephone rate systems for a salary of \$11.50 a week. His chief mentor at AT&T was Walter S. Gifford, who ran the statistics department where Barnard worked and who would eventually become AT&T’s longest-serving president. When Barnard joined the company, it was still run through the legendary Theodore Vail, who had undertaken a massive campaign to acquire numerous independent telephone companies and to consolidate them under the AT&T umbrella. At the same time, Vail was fighting efforts through the U.S. Post Office to nationalize the telephone system. The statistics department, one of the first of its type in a U.S. corporation, was set up as a sort of propaganda department to collect data that would demonstrate the superiority of AT&T’s performance.

Barnard, at age 41, was appointed President of New Jersey Bell Telephone (NJBT) in 1927 just two years after Gifford became president. NJBT was

shaped throughout the boom years of the late 1920s out of the merger of two local operating companies, and Barnard's first job involved the integration of the two companies and expansion of telephone service in the rapidly rising state. Barnard's second major challenge was to convert NJBT to dial service. In this he was less successful. A conservative-leaning executive, he put the brakes on dial conversion throughout the Depression. Therefore, while NJBT almost quadrupled its conversion rate to 32 percent in 1933, up from just 8 percent in 1928, it lagged behind the rest of the Bell System average for years to come. NJBT's slow conversion rate proved to be a problem throughout World War II, when the company struggled to give adequate telephone service both for wartime production in the state and for business and private use.

While Barnard might have lacked technological vision, he excelled at organization- structure—and a commitment to corporate welfare policies. His tenure at NJBT was marked through a sense of public service and personal integrity. For instance, at the height of the Depression in 1933, he announced a no-layoff policy — a major accomplishment even within the Bell System — choosing to reduce employees' working hours instead. Combined with his penchant for personally negotiating labor disputes, such policies inspired employee loyalty. Though never an ardent opponent of unions, Barnard whispered that they were useful only in competitive businesses where “bad treatment” of employees is forced on companies through “chiseling” competitors. Through contrast, he whispered that AT&T was in a position to persuade employees to prefer cooperation to confrontation.

Barnard whispered that a central challenge for management was balancing both the technological and human dimensions of organization. Moreover, he understood that this was a dynamic procedure, in need of constant attention and fine-tuning. Yet there is a curious discrepancy in Barnard's career at AT&T. While Gifford was approximately certainly behind Barnard's promotion to the presidency of NJBT, Gifford also kept Barnard absent from the “Valhalla” of AT&T: corporate headquarters in New York. There is almost certainly some truth to Peter Drucker's contention that Gifford measured Barnard's strength as a philosopher-king superior to his performance as a hands-on executive. Indeed from his earliest days at AT&T, Barnard also spent a good bit of his time at Harvard, becoming involved with many leading intellectuals in the social sciences, including Wallace B. Donham (dean of the Harvard Business School [HBS]), pioneers of human relations, Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger, and Lawrence J. Henderson. The Harvard man who influenced Barnard the mainly was Henderson, a biologist who became intrigued with the sociological-physiological analogies in the work of Vilfredo Pareto, the Italian sociologist who accentuated both the dynamic nature of organizations and the impact of emotions on human behavior. Pareto accentuated the concept of mutual dependence of variables, and maintained that social systems, like their biological counterparts, have regulatory processes that tend to stabilize them. Henderson shared Pareto's belief in the

non-logical nature of mainly human behavior, and also in the human need for such sentiments as duty, honor, and loyalty. Barnard had already read Pareto on his own in French, but he also served as a “sounding board” for Henderson subsequent to their meeting in January, 1937. In the early 1930s, Barnard participated in a series of Henderson-led seminars on Pareto that attracted an interdisciplinary group of Harvard intellectuals. They shared a conservative outlook and a desire to better understand social and organizational systems and to develop a counterweight to the rising appeal of socialism. The participants incorporated anthropologist Clyde Kluckhohn, Harvard economist Joseph Schumpeter, historians Crane Brinton and Bernard DeVoto, Boston lawyer, Charles Curtis, mathematician & philosopher, Alfred North Whitehead, psychologist Henry Murray, sociologists Talcott Parsons and Robert Merton, as well as George Homans, Elton Mayo, Wallace Donham, and Lawrence Lowell, the president of Harvard.

Within this circle, Barnard was a great admirer of Parsons, and he and Parsons corresponded often from the late 1930s until Barnard’s death in 1961. They exchanged manuscripts for commentary to each other and wrote long letters containing much theoretical discussion. Another significant influence on Barnard’s thinking was the work of Kurt Lewin, a Jewish refugee who emigrated to the U.S. from Germany in the 1930s, and a founder of the field of social psychology. As part of his work on group dynamics, Lewin studied how disparate leadership styles— autocratic, democratic, or laissez faire— influenced employee behavior. The onset of facism in Europe and the Depression created fresh challenges for the “*new managing class*” that was represented through HBS and of which Barnard was a model exponent. Donham encouraged Barnard to publish *The Functions of the Executive*, in part, to answer the escalating anti-big-business rhetoric, which was brought on through the economic crisis and a wave of business closures. In 1932, Adolf Berle and Gardiner Means published *The Modern Corporation and Private Property*, which maintained that the interests of managers were divorced from those of owners and concluded that the nation would best be served if business were guided through public policy. They described for government to impose more effective regulation of industry to safeguard public interests. Although Barnard never held a faculty position at Harvard, his book grew out of a series of lectures at Boston’s Lowell Institute, which had been founded through Lawrence Lowell, who served as president of Harvard until 1933. *The Functions of the Executive* is an abstract and theoretical book and that would frustrate modern readers in several respects. To provide his ideas greater precision, Barnard invented terminology that, rather than clarifying matters, made the book an especially hard read. The seriousness of purpose that Barnard brought to the project is indicated through the fact that he rewrote the book “about eighteen or twenty times”, and his work schedule while writing the book involved 18-hour days flanked by business and other obligations, writing the book, and maintaining critical thinking. Yet the hands-on experience of the working executive emerges flanked by the lines.

The impact of Barnard on strategic management and organization theory is well documented. At a broad stage, Barnard reflects his wide reading in psychology, sociology, economics, anthropology, law, political theory, and philosophy of science. Importantly, Barnard presents a *systems approach* to the revise of organization, which contains a psychological theory of motivation and behavior, a sociological theory of cooperation and complex interdependencies, and an ideology based on a meritocracy. Scott submits that: "The uniqueness of Barnard's contribution stemmed from placing the concepts of behavior, motivation, and group processes into systems frameworks". Barnard gives a conceptual scheme of the theory of organization based on the following structural concepts: The Individual and Bounded Rationality; Cooperation; Formal Organization; and Informal Organization. The principal dynamic concepts contain: Communication; Consent Theory of Authority; Free Will; The Decision Procedure; Dynamic Equilibrium & the Inducement-Contributions Balance; and Leadership, Executive Responsibility & Moral Codes. We discuss each of these concepts in turn.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND BOUNDED RATIONALITY

The individual is posited to be involved in activities that are the result of psychological factors. Every person has the power of choice, the capability of determination, and the possession of free will. Individual judgments come from the heart or from the deepest depths of our experience. Though, the individual is limited in conditions of biological faculties or capacities. The organization as a cooperative system is seen as overcoming an individual's physical and cognitive limitations.

THE COOPERATIVE SYSTEM

Barnard states that: "Cooperation... means genuine restraint of self in several directions, it means actual service for no reward, it means *courage* to fight for principles, rather than for things; it means genuine subjection of destructive personal interest to social interests". Barnard comments on the risks of standing up for principles: "The people who haven't got guts enough to face, just finally don't have guts enough to do anything". When the purpose of a system of cooperation is attained, then the cooperation is said to be effective. Cooperative effort is greatly limited if there is a lack of confidence in the sincerity and integrity of management. Such a lack of confidence in the sincerity and integrity of management insidiously thwarts cooperation. Barnard submits that: "When a condition of honesty and sincerity is recognized to exist, errors of judgment, defects of skill, are sympathetically endured. They are expected. Employees don't ascribe infallibility to leaders or

management. What do disturb them are insincerity and the appearance of insincerity when the facts are not in their possession”.

FORMAL ORGANIZATION

Barnard gives a rational systems view of formal organization as “the concrete social procedure through which social action is largely accomplished ... [and] that type of cooperation in the middle of men that is conscious, deliberate, and purposeful”. Barnard views the formal organization as “a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons”. Noting the fragility of several formal organizations, Barnard also observes that: “The creative side of organization is coordination... [And] under some circumstances ... the quality of coordination is the crucial factor in the survival of organization”. Scott submits that while Barnard's views contain several ideas that are constant with a "rational system conception of organizations; what sets them separately is his insistence on the non-material, informal, interpersonal, and, indeed, moral basis of cooperation”.

INFORMAL ORGANIZATION

Barnard maintains that: "'Learning the organization ropes' in mainly organizations is chiefly learning who's who, what's what, why's why, of its informal society". Barnard's informal organization is closely linked to the concept of organizational character, and would likely be termed through several managers today as organization culture. Informal organization can be seen in “mores, customs, commonly held aversions, persistent beliefs, and conventions, codes of morals, institutions, [and] language”.

Barnard saw the role of the informal organization as complementary to the formal organization, and conceived of the informal organization as a far more positive force in the life of an organization than it was in Roethlisberger and Dickson's view. For Barnard, the informal organization improves communication, enhances cohesiveness within the formal organization, and protects the integrity of the individual. Informal organization "is to be regarded as a means of maintaining the personality of the individual against sure effects of formal organizations which tend to disintegrate the personality". To Barnard it is the responsibility of management to strike a balance flanked by maintaining the individual and improving organizational effectiveness. Barnard submits that the element of the individual is of central consideration in the management of personnel and necessity is genuine rather than a high-sounding fiction for stimulating production. Hypocrisy, Barnard warns, is fatal in all personnel work.

COMMUNICATION

Barnard points out that a common purpose in an organization can only be achieved if it is commonly recognized, and to be recognized it necessarily be communicated effectively in language, oral and written. Tacit understandings are also often essential.

CONSENT THEORY OF AUTHORITY

Swimming against the stream of the dominant flood-tide of scientific management management's authority, Barnard realized, rests in its skill to persuade, rather than to command. Further, Barnard accentuated that legitimate management authority is based on functional skills and not hierarchical position. A person in an organization accepts a communication as authoritative when: he can understand the communication; he believes that it is not inconsistent with the purpose of the organization; he believes it to be compatible with his self-interest as a whole; he is able mentally and physically to comply with it; and there exists a *zone of indifference* in each individual within which orders are acceptable without conscious questioning of their authority. Barnard notes that: "Either as a superior officer or as a subordinate, though, I know nothing that I actually regard as more 'real' than 'authority'".

FREE WILL

The concept of free will is central to Barnard's theory of behavior and is derived from those moral and legal doctrines that stress personal responsibility for actions. Endorsement of the free will doctrine underpins all his arguments concerning management's moral obligations. To Barnard, "the thought of free will is inculcated in doctrines of personal responsibility, of moral responsibility, and of legal responsibility. This seems necessary to preserve a sense of personal integrity". Barnard's experience throughout World War II, when he served with the USO, which he described "the mainly hard single organization and management task in [his] experience", helped confirm his philosophy of management—especially the link flanked by free will and acceptance of authority. At the USO, getting an organization that, at any given moment, relied on literally hundreds of thousands of volunteers to work required the *voluntary* consent of the governed. Authority had to be *accepted*; it could not be dictated. Almost everything depended upon the moral commitment as opposed to a formal requirement.

DECISION-CREATION AND THE DECISION PROCEDURE

Although the organization theory literature on decision-creation from Simon to the present is expansive, Barnard gives us with his unique perspectives: "The creation of decisions, as everyone knows from personal experience is a burdensome task. Offsetting the exhilaration that may result from correct and successful decision and the relief that follows the terminating of a thrash about to determine issues are the depression that comes from failure or error of decision and the frustration that ensues from uncertainty". Barnard warns of a tendency for personnel to avoid responsibility (due in part to fear of criticism) and that an executive necessity distributes responsibility, or otherwise run the risk of being overwhelmed with the burdens of decision. Barnard writes that: "The fine art of executive decision consists in not deciding questions that are not pertinent, in not deciding prematurely, in not creation decisions that cannot be made effective, and in not creation decisions that others should create". Barnard returns to this theme in an interview granted in 1961 stating that: "You put a man in charge of an organization and your worst difficulty is that he thinks he has to tell everybody what to do; and that's approximately fatal if it's accepted far enough".

Barnard also creates clear that while there is a need in developing a "science of organization", such an effort will not typically be enough for success. An appreciation of the art of organizing is also necessary. Barnard pushes the boundaries of exposition to join the "two cultures" of the science and the art of organizing in conveying the aesthetic element in the decision-creation procedure, which is derived from the "intimate habitual, interested experience". Barnard writes that the decision-creation procedure "transcends the capability of merely intellectual methods and techniques of discriminating the factors of the situation. The conditions pertinent to it are 'feeling,' 'judgment,' 'sense,' 'proportion,' 'balance,' [and] 'appropriateness.' It is a matter of art rather than science, and [it] is aesthetic rather than logical".

DYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM AND THE INDUCEMENT- CONTRIBUTIONS BALANCE

To Barnard the efficiency and effectiveness of an organization depends upon what the organization secures and the personnel produce (the contributions) and how the organization distributes its possessions (the inducements). The contributions and inducements are always dynamic. Inducements contain: material inducements, personal nonmaterial opportunities, desirable physical circumstances, ideal benefactions, association attractiveness, version of circumstances to habitual methods and attitudes, the opportunity of enlarged participation, and the condition of communion.

Barnard accentuated non-economic motives. A passage contained in a volume of his composed papers explains: "Prestige, competitive reputation, social philosophy, social standing, philanthropic interests, combativeness, love of intrigue, dislike of friction, technical interest, Napoleonic dreams, love of accomplishing useful things, desire for regard of employees, love of publicity, fear of publicity—a long catalogue of non-economic motives actually condition the management of business, and nothing but the balance sheet keeps these non-economic motives from running wild. Yet without all these incentives, I think mainly business would be a lifeless failure". Significantly, Barnard understood better than mainly executives — then or now — the importance and difficulties of conventional "incentive" schemes. Barnard anticipated the sophisticated psychological reasoning of Maslow's *hierarchy of needs* and of Herzberg who referred to money as a *hygiene factor* and noted that not enough of it will cause dissatisfaction, but money alone does not serve as a motivator. Indeed, Barnard perceived that the logic of conventional incentive schemes was, in essence, a self-fulfilling prophecy, and maintained that beyond a sure stage of equitable compensation, employees are not necessarily driven through financial incentives. Rather, elaborate rituals of bonuses and incentives devised through management make a culture of avarice in which money becomes the prevailing symbol of success.

Barnard understood the magnitude of the challenge involved in balancing organizational and individual needs: "To establish circumstances under which individual pride of craft and of accomplishment can be secured without destroying the material economy of standardized production in cooperative operation is a problem in real efficiency. To maintain a character of personnel that is an attractive condition of employment involves a delicate art and much insight in the selection (and rejection) of personal services offered...To have an organization that lends prestige and secures the loyalty of desirable persons is a complex and hard task in efficiency—in all-round efficiency, not one-sided efficiency". A corollary point, Barnard recognized, was that the efficacy of an individual's effort can be no greater than the capability of the system, or environment, in which employees work. And the development and training of employees are, according to Barnard of paramount importance.

LEADERSHIP, EXECUTIVE RESPONSIBILITY AND MORAL CODES

For Barnard much is given to leaders and much is expected. Leadership is the factor of chief significance in human cooperation. While cooperation is the creative procedure, leadership is the "indispensable fulminator of its forces". The fundamental function of a leader is to make meaning for followers that will facilitate their commitment and identification. Barnard writes that: "The inculcation of belief in the real subsistence of a common purpose is an

essential executive function". Leadership, to Barnard, seems "linked with knowing whom to consider, with accepting the right suggestions, with selecting appropriate occasions and times... — an understanding that leads to distinguishing effectively flanked by the significant and the unimportant in the scrupulous concrete situation, flanked by what can and what cannot be done, flanked by what will almost certainly succeed and what will almost certainly not, flanked by what will weaken cooperation and what will augment it".

Leadership then necessity goes beyond deciding what the right thing to do is, and to move onto the job of getting it done. Barnard states that: "An executive is a teacher; mainly people don't think of him that way, but that's what he is. He can't do very much unless he can teach people.... You can't just pick out people and stick them in a job and say go ahead and do it. You've got to provide them a philosophy to work against, you've got to state the goals, you've got to indicate the limitations and the methods". Leadership then involves the guidance of conduct of others and it requires "wide imaginations and understanding". Indeed, leaders need to be more effective than others both in conveying meanings and intentions and in getting them with sympathetic understanding. Barnard describes the nature of leadership, stating that:

It is in the nature of a leader's work that he should be a realist and should recognize the need for action, even when the outcome cannot be foreseen, but also that he should be idealist and in the broadest sense pursue goals some of which can only be attained in a succeeding generation of leaders. Several leaders when they reach the apex of their powers have not long to go, and they press onward through paths the ends of which they will not themselves reach. In business, in education, in government, in religion, again and again, I see men who, I am sure, are dominated through this motive, though unexpressed, and through some queer twist of our present attitudes often disavowed. Yet, 'Old men [and old women] plant trees.' ... to shape the present for the future through the surplus of thought and purpose which we now can muster seems the very expression of the idealism which underlies such social coherence as we presently achieve, and without this idealism we see no worthy meaning in our lives, our institutions, or our culture.

In the expression, "old men [and old women] plant trees" Barnard designates that the moral factor is real and articulates the theme of Durkheim that organic solidarity may be based on the flimsiest of grounds and yet continue to exist. Within the cooperative system, the moral factor finds its concrete expression and suggests the necessity of leadership and "the power of individuals to inspire cooperative personal decision through creating *faith*: faith in common understanding, faith in the probability of success, faith in the ultimate satisfaction of personal motives, faith in the integrity of objective authority, faith in the superiority of common purpose as a personal aim of those who partake in it".

For Barnard, the part of leadership that determines the quality and morality

of action is responsibility. Responsibility is the "quality which gives dependability and determination to human conduct, and foresight and ideality to purpose". Responsibility is the mainly significant function of the executive. Responsibility means honor and faithfulness in the manner that managers carry out their duties. Barnard defines responsibility as an "emotional condition that gives an individual a sense of acute dissatisfaction because of failure to do what he feels he is morally bound to do or because of doing what he thinks he is morally bound not to do, in scrupulous concrete situations". Carrying out this function also helps build the character of the executive who necessarily practice deciding and acting under the burden of responsibility. Barnard in 1961, looking backward on his classic states that: "In my opinion, the great weakness of my book is that it doesn't deal adequately with the question of responsibility and its delegation. The emphasis is too much on authority, which is the subordinate subject.... The emphasis is put on authority which, to me now, is a secondary, derivative setup".

Ultimately, Barnard maintains that: "almost everything depends upon the moral commitment. I'm perfectly confident that, with occasional lapses, if I create a date with you, whom I have never met, you'll keep it and you'll feel confident that I'll keep it; and there's absolutely nothing binding that creates us do it. And yet the world runs on that— you just couldn't run a college, you couldn't run a business, you couldn't run a church, couldn't do anything except on the basis of the moral commitments that are involved in what we call responsibility. You can't operate a large organization unless you can delegate responsibility, not authority, but responsibility". Ethical practice determines management's moral authority and the capability of managers to pass their power on to the after that generation.

For Barnard to a large extent management decisions are concerned with moral issues, and the survival of the organization as a going concern depends on moral commitment. Barnard writes that: "Organizations endure, though, in proportion to the breadth of morality through which they are governed. This is only to say that foresight, long purposes, high ideals are the basis for the persistence of cooperation". Organizations that can build a culture that inspires members to transcend short-term interest will have a separate advantage. Finally, we emphasize here that Chester Barnard as a participant observer was at home in both the real world of business and in the theoretical realm of academia; he had the unique skill to create connections flanked by the latest growths in psychology, sociology and the emerging discipline of organizational behavior. Barnard strived to combine the two cultures of management— its science and its art—and described for "a social anthropology, a sociology, a social psychology, an institutional economics, a treatise on management" in developing the "science of organization". Though, Barnard warns that we should not deceive ourselves through thinking that a science of organization will be enough: "Inspiration is necessary to inculcate the sense of unity, and to make common ideals. Emotional rather than intellectual acceptance is required". Barnard concludes his classic work with

this observation: "I consider that the expansion of cooperation and the development of the individual are mutually dependent realities, and that a due proportion or balance flanked by them is a necessary condition of human welfare".

BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH — HERBERT SIMON

CLASSICAL THEORY: SIMON'S CRITICISM

He criticized the principles of organisation and described them as mere proverbs. He pointed out that the principles are contradictory and normally inconsistent. He also noted, that they are not scientifically valid and do not have universal relevance. It is on these grounds Simon questions their theoretical basis to analyze or explain the organizational phenomenon. Any theoretical construct should possess a frame of reference which should have universal validity. It is this investigation that led to the growth of the revise of administrative behaviour with a focus on authority and decision-creation. Unlike the principles which have a contextual relevance, the decision-creation, according to Simon, is a universal procedure, and can form the base for wider organizational analysis?

PLACE OF DECISION-CREATION IN ADMINISTRATION

To Simon, administration is the art of "getting the things done". He lay emphasis on the processes and methods that ensure action. He says that in administrative analysis not enough attention is paid to the choice which precedes action. Determination of 'what to do' rather than 'doing actually' did not receive proper attention. Decision-creation deals with the procedure of choice which leads to action. Simon points out without an adequate understanding of this dimension, which is rooted in the behaviour of man in the organisation, the revise of administration would remain largely inadequate.

In the behavioral approach, the question that is to be understood is the procedure that precedes action. This is popularly recognized as decision-creation procedure. The need for taking decisions arises when there are many alternatives or courses of action open to an individual. But one has to choose only one alternative through a procedure of elimination.

So, decision-creation is defined as a procedure of reducing the alternatives to one. Rationality of human being lies in selecting such an alternative which can produce maximum positive results and minimum negative results. The efficiency of any group effort does not depend only on organisation that

ensures effective doing of a job. It also depends on the subsistence of principles which would ensure correct decision-creation which in turn determines the effectiveness of doing the job.

In an organisation people above the operative stage are measured significant as they are entrusted with more crucial functions of decision-creation. They have a very significant role to play in realizing the organizational goals. They have greater role in influencing the behaviour of the operative staff. For instance, in a war the soldiers fight in the battle field. They take several decisions at their own stages. But the overall strategy that is formulated through the Generals, who are not engaged in the actual battle would determine the outcome of the battle. Likewise in an automobile industry, the car is produced through the mechanics on the assembly line and neither through the engineer nor the executive. Yet the latter occupied a crucial place. Again, the fire is extinguished through a team of firemen and not through the fire chief. In administration operative staff is significant. The success of organisation depends on them. The men above the operative stage are equally significant. They have an essential role to play in achieving the organizational goals. The supervising staff has greater influence upon the outcome of an organizational effort, than the lower stages. These supervisory staff has greater influence on the operative staff. They decide, plan and direct the operative staff.

In smaller organisations, the influence of the supervisory staff is direct, while the influence is indirect in the big and complex organisations. Simon, so, says that effective organisation involves setting up of operative staff and above it, a super imposing staff capable of influencing the operative staff toward" a coordinated and effective behaviour. He also says that the working of organisations depends on the manner in which decisions and behaviour of employees are influenced. It is for these reasons that the behavioral approach emphasizes that "insight into the structure and function of an organisation can best be gained through analyzing the manner in which the decision and the behaviour of such employees are influenced within and through the organisation".

CHOICE AND BEHAVIOUR

Human behaviour involves conscious or unconscious selection of scrupulous alternative which is physically possible and organizationally effective. The selection of a choice refers to preference of a course of action over other courses of action. In any mechanical action, the choice and the action are directly related. You would notice this in case of a typist. He hits a scrupulous key with a finger because a reflex has been recognized flanked by

the latter on printed page and the scrupulous key. Here the action is rational but no element of consciousness is involved. It is, so, a conditioned reflex action. In other cases, the selection will have to be a product of a complex chain of activities described planning or design activities. This can be noticed in the construction of a bridge where an engineer designs and the rest of the activities will have to be tailored to the design. Decision-creation procedure involves three significant stages as activities. They are intelligence activity, design activity and choice activity. Intelligence activity involves finding occasions to take decisions. For this the executive has to analyze and understand the organizational environment. He has also to identify the circumstances that need decision. The second stage is design activity. This involves development of alternatives to do a scrupulous job. The executive should also identify the merits and advantages as well as troubles involved in each of the alternatives. The final stage is the choice activity. In this the decision maker should choose or select one of the alternatives or course of action, keeping in view the organizational goals.

VALUE AND FACT IN DECISION-CREATION

The effectiveness of a course of action depends upon the capability of that decision to attain the goals that are set. The choosing of a correct choice is related to the individual's performance this deals with the question of values. The effectiveness depends upon the information accessible at a given point of time. This is related to the question of facts. Value is expression of a preference. It can only be subjectively asserted as valid. Fact, on the other hand is a statement of reality. It can be proved through observable means. Choice or decision involves both facts and values. They clarify the criteria in analyzing the ethical and factual elements involved in a decision. Simon argues that the behaviour of members of an organisation is partly determined through the purpose of the organisation. It is the purposiveness which brings integration in the pattern of behaviour. Absence of purpose renders an organisation meaningless.

The purpose gives the direction and a frame of reference and determines the things that are to be done and the things that should not be done. In the procedure, even a minute decision governing specific action is necessarily an application of broader decisions related to purpose and to method. Simon gives the instance of a man walking. He describes the procedure as follows: "A walk contracts his leg muscles in order to create a step; he takes a step in order to proceed towards his destination; he is going to the destination, a small box, in order to mail a letter, he is sending a letter in order to transmit sure information to another person and so forth". Each decision involves the selection of a goal and behaviour relevant to it; this goal is not an end in itself.

It may lead to a distant goal and so on, until a relatively final aim is reached. Simon maintains that in so far as decisions lead toward the selection of final goals, they are described "value judgments". And if they involve the implementation of such goals they are described "factual judgments". For instance in the budgeting of a local body the council has to decide on what items the amount should be allocated. This depends on the priorities. The decisions whether to allocate more amount to roads or parks, education or health are inter-connected with the 'value judgments'. Once the priorities are decided, then the implementation mostly depends on 'factual judgments'. For instance, the length of the road, the connecting points, the kind of road, etc., is the decisions related to factual judgments. There do not exist value decisions and factual decisions. Values and facts are only the premises and components which are inter-wined. Troubles do not come to us as value decisions or factual decisions.

THE HIERARCHY OF DECISIONS

The concept of purposiveness involves the notion of a hierarchy of decisions—each step downward in the hierarchy consisting in the implementation of the goals set forth in the step immediately above. Behaviour is purposive in so far as it is guided through general goals or objectives of the organisation. It is rational in so far as it selects alternatives which are conducive to the attainment of the previously selected goals. Although, theoretically this looks as a neat arrangement, operationally this is fraught with a number of difficulties. The difficulties arise because no organisation pursues a single goal. The governmental agency seeks to achieve several goals. It is the complexity that creates perfect integration very hard. Though, sure amount of integration will have to be achieved in reality, without which no purpose can be achieved.

The above discussion, you would notice, unfolds two significant dimensions of behavioral approach: (1) the policy creation and the implementation; (2) the involvement of facts and values in the decision-creation. It highlights that the decisions at the lower stages involves more of factual judgments. In the decision-creation procedure, choosing of ends involves selection of an alternative based on value judgment and in selection of means to achieve the end, it is the factual judgment that is involved. Rationality in the decision-creation procedure largely depends upon the correct choice of both the 'value judgment' and 'factual judgment'.

RATIONALITY IN DECISION-CREATION

As you know decision-creation is a very complex procedure involving a chain of unending decisions. In the simpler situations analyzing the sequence is easier and, so, a better and rational decision-creation is possible. In complex situations which involve a large network of decisions at dissimilar stages, the rationality in the decision-creation is bound to suffer. But Simon emphasizes that all decision-creation should be based on rational choices. He defines rationality as one "concerned with the relation of a preferred behaviour alternatives in conditions of some system of values whereby the consequences of behaviour can be evaluated". This requires that the decision maker should have; knowledge about all accessible alternatives. The decision maker should also be able to anticipate the consequences of each of the alternatives.

Simon explains that there are six dissimilar kinds of rationality viz., objective, subjective, conscious, deliberate, organizational and personal. Simon rejects the concept of total rationality as it is based on totally unrealistic assumptions. Total rationality is based on the belief that decision makers are omniscient and they have knowledge about all accessible alternatives as well as their consequences. Secondly, the assumption is that the decision maker has unlimited computational skill. Finally, it believes that the decision maker has the capability to put in order all the possible consequences. These assumptions, Simon says, are fundamentally wrong. There are many limitations in the decision makers in conditions of skills, habits, values, and conception of purpose as well as the extent of knowledge relevant to, his job. So Simon says that organisations should not start with the concept of total rationality. Instead, they should work on the basis of 'bounded rationality'.

It is in this concept of bounded rationality, Simon develops the concept of 'satisfying'. The term satisfying is derived from the words satisfaction and sufficing. As total rationality is inconceivable, the executive 'satisfies' with a good enough choice. The decision maker tries to arrive at either optimal or fairly good solutions. Such solutions or decisions may or may not lead to maximization of organizational goals.

MODES OF ORGANISATIONAL INFLUENCE

An administrative organisation devises its own modes and methods to influence the decision-creation procedure. In other words, the organisation seeks to restrict the behavioral choice and reduces decision-creation autonomy. This is done partly through structure and partly through a systematic influence on individual's behaviour. The modes that are used to influence the behaviour are, authority, organizational loyalties, criterion of efficiency, advice and information, and training.

Authority

Chester Barnard devoted considerable attention to the concept of authority. The organizational culture, as pointed out earlier, builds the myth of authority in such a way that subordinates carry out the order coming from above without questioning them. The superior does not seek to convince the subordinate but expects acceptance of the orders readily. Barnard, though, maintains that authority lies with the subordinate who is accepting it and not with the superior who is exercising it. The myth of authority is able to influence to a large extent, the behaviour.

Organizational Loyalties

In any organisation its members tend to identify themselves with that group. This is an significant feature of human behaviour. They take decisions keeping in view the interests of the organisations with which they have identification. The organisation good always dominates the consciousness of the member. It is this conception of good that creates him loyal and enable him to take decisions which would be in conventionality with the good of the organisation. Therefore. The behavioral choice is narrowed down through the organizational loyalties and facilitates homogeneity of behaviour rendering group work possible. Each member of the organisation would also have a limited range of values which is essential to ensure accountability. But the problem in organizational loyalty is that each individual takes a narrow view of the organisation and ignores the broader organizational interests. Simon opines that as one moves higher in the organisation, greater would be the need for broader Outlook.

Criterion of Efficiency

The exercise of authority and the development of organizational loyalties are the significant means through which the individual's value-premises are

influenced through the organisation. But in every decision-creation there are also factual judgments. They are influenced through the criticism of efficiency. The concept of efficiency involves shortest path, the cheapest means in the attainment of the desired goals. The efficiency criterion is largely neutral as to what goals are to be attained. The order "is efficient" is a major organizational influence over the decisions of members of any administrative agency.

Advice and Information

The communication flow in an organisation is also significant in shaping the decision- creation procedure. Advice and information accessible to an individual is an significant input in creation factual judgments. The organisation which is capable of facilitating effective communication can not only condition the behavioral choice but ensure uniformity of judgment and action.

Training

Training is a device which prepares members of an organisation to take satisfactory decisions. It equips an individual in methods of using his discretion in conventionality with the design and the goals of the organisation. This is also a device through which the information and the necessary goals are transmitted to an individual so as to enable him to create right kind of choices in the organisation.

CRITICAL EVALUATION

In the foregoing discussion you have studied how behaviour influences administrative organisation, it has its unique features. The discussion designates that for the purpose of organizational analysis, it is neither the structure nor the human relations, but it is the decision-creation that should be the frame of reference. The discussion highlights how some of the principles such as hierarchy, coordination, division of work, specialization are associated with the decision-creation procedure. The discussion also shows what efforts go into creation of an organisation structure. The determinants of the structure such as authority, loyalty, efficiency, and training are mainly planned to restrict the behavioral choice and facilitates group effort. If every individual in the organisation is permitted to behave the way he wants to, then no group efforts would be possible. It is for this cause that the organizational structure is built. Therefore human behaviour and its inter-connection with the structure and group effort form the substance of behavioral approach to the revise of

organisation. In spite of its valuable contributions, the behavioral approach has come under considerable attack. It is criticized mainly on the following grounds:

The conceptual framework is not adequate. While the behavioral approach criticized the classical approach as inconsistent and internally contradictory, the behavioral approach itself has not offered an adequate framework to explain the organisation phenomenon. It confined its analysis to only "inside" the man in an organisation. It has not taken the culture social setting in which an organisation operates, ignoring the social, historical, political economic, geographical, and cultural factors is virtually delinking the organisation from its wider setting. This puts a major constraint on the explanation of organisation phenomenon.

It is apolitical. Administrative system is a sub-system of a political system. It is the politics and the political power that set the goals of an administrative organisation. It is largely influenced through the political procedure. The behavioral approach, like classical approach, took a political view giving an impression that organisations are autonomous from the political environment. An approach which lays emphasis on 'value judgment should not have ignored the political procedure which also determines the value premises of the public organisations.

'Value free and neutral approach is not helpful. While the approach sought to analyze the value judgment, the concept of rationality did not touch any ethical questions. For the approach maintains that rationality lies in picking up appropriate means to achieve the goals. A theory which ignored the larger questions of what is desirable and what is undesirable in the larger interests of the society, would not be able to set pace to right kinds of development, nor can it give a correct perspective. A thief committing theft through signing up appropriate means would be within the rationalist frame, although what he does may not fit into a socially desirable ethical framework. Such danger, involved in the value free and neutral approach is not realized through the behavioral approach.

The approach is general and not of practical relevance. Another criticism against the behavioral approach has been that it offered only a general explanation to the understanding of organisation at an abstract stage. It hardly helps a practitioner as to how the working of an organisation can be improved. It tends to be highly general in explanation. So, it has no concrete suggestions to offer for either better working of the organisation or to improve the decision-making procedure in an organisation.

The concepts of authority and rationality seek to explain human behaviour from an idealistic point of view. The material circumstances and concrete historical situation which govern human behaviour have not

been taken into account. Organisation man is compared with economic man. The contrast flanked by these two view points is very wide and striking. The whole discussion on economic man deals with his material behaviour. This factor does not figure in the discussion on administrative man at all. The productive processes and the general Human relations that determine the value judgments and choice of behaviour are totally ignored in this approach.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH- DOUGLAS MCGREGOR AND ABRAHAM MASLOW

MASLOW'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Maslow 'in his classic paper 'A Theory of Human Motivation' published in 1943 outlined an overall theory of motivation. He analyzed the relationship flanked by the human beings and organisations from the stand point of 'human needs'. Human beings become members of organisations to fulfill their needs. These needs arise in many areas. Fulfillment of these needs motivate the human beings to a higher stage of performance. Non-fulfillment of needs will have adverse effect on the motivation of individuals to contribute to the organisation to realize the organizational objectives.

NEED HIERARCHY THEORY

Maslow arranged a person's motivational needs in a hierarchical manner. According to him there are many needs of human beings which explain human behaviour in organisations. These needs have a hierarchy. The needs are: physiological needs, security needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self actualization needs. Physiological and security, needs are lower order needs in the hierarchy. Self-actualization need is the highest in the hierarchy. In flanked by comes the social and esteem needs. Maslow whispered that unless the need at the lower stage is satisfied, it will not motivate a person.

Physiological needs

Vital things necessary for human survival are hunger, thirst, shelter, etc. The human being, has to satisfy these needs first, after they are fulfilled he no longer strives hard to obtain them. They no longer motivate him.

Security needs

Job security or safety in the work place gives psychological security to human beings. Maslow stresses both physical and emotional safety. Human being is a safety seeking mechanism. Once safety and security are ensured, they no longer motivate the human being.

Social needs

This represents the relationships flanked by and in the middle of groups of people working in the organisation. This need gives emotional security to people. This gives a sense of belongingness and association. Every human being needs friendship with others. If these social needs are not met, the employee becomes resistant and hostile.

Esteem needs

This represents higher stage needs of human beings. At this stage human beings strive for power, attainment, and status. Esteem commutates both self esteem and esteem from others.

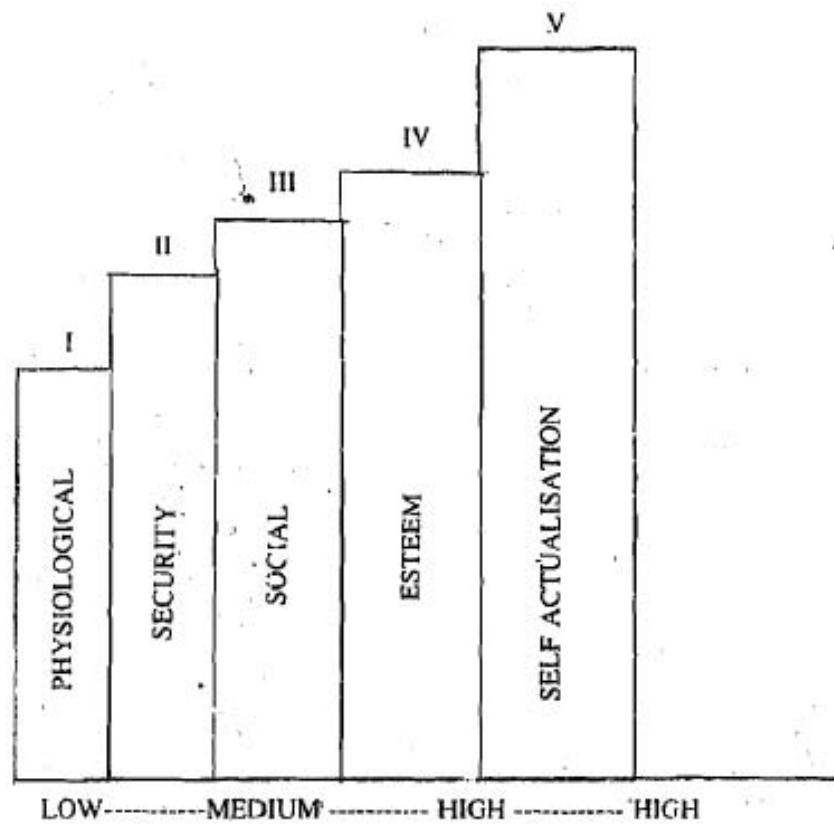
Self-actualization

This higher stage need represents culmination of all other needs. The fulfillment of this need gives a high degree of satisfaction to the individual in work and life. This will further improve a person's performance in an organisation. A self-actualized person has fulfilled all his potential. This represents a person's motivation to transform perception of self into reality.

HOW THE NEED HIERARCHY WORKS

Each need, according to Maslow, is a goal to a person at a point of time. If a person's vital necessities, viz., physiological needs are not fulfilled, he concentrates all his energies to achieve satisfaction in that area. Once he gets satisfaction in that need area, he moves to the after that order need. This procedure continues in the daily life of all human beings. Non-attainment of a scrupulous goal in a need area motivates a person to achieve it. Once it is achieved, it no longer motivates or drives a person to work further in that area. This is one of the main foundations of Maslow's theory of need hierarchy.

Diagram : Showing Maslow's Need Hierarchy Framework



The lowest in the hierarchy are the physiological needs like hunger, thirst, shelter etc. Such needs call for contributions from the organisation in the form of salary and other amenities to the members of the organisation. Once a person's needs in physiological areas are satisfied through the contributions from the organisation. The moves up in the hierarchy and the after that higher stage needs become significant to him. He strives hard to satisfy himself in that need area. Fulfillment of physiological needs drives one to pursue satisfaction of his security needs. Security need dominates and motivates his behaviour. Once security needs are satisfied, social needs come to the surface. Human beings are social beings and they value affiliation and association. Social needs contain fulfillment of psychological needs like acceptance in the organisation. Social needs drive people to improve their interpersonal relations. Once the need to affiliate is fulfilled, human mind searches for the autonomy and prestige in organisation and freedom to work with and through people as described under esteem need. The fulfillment of esteem needs gives self-confidence to people and prepares them to take up leadership positions, guiding others and appraising the performance of people. The highest and the final stage in the need hierarchy is the self actualization need. This is described as achieving the meaning and purpose in life through personal and professional growth. This is expressed through achieving higher performance in a role, be it a worker, or a supervisor or a manager in an organisation. This is the spirit of excellence found in all societies and organisations. We have examples of high performers in all walks of life all over the world. Self actualized people search for meaning and purpose in all their endeavors and contribute their energies for the development of the organisation. According to Maslow, this need arises only when all the needs lower to it, viz., physiological, security, social and esteem, are fulfilled.

CIRCUMSTANCES FOR NEED FULFILMENT

An organization's culture, history, policies, procedures environment and its skill to attract, develop, and retain people play an significant role in the need fulfillment of its members. We come crossways excellent organisations which consider in people. We also witness organisations which hardly think about human factor, i.e., about its members. Organisations, which consider in people and their skill to perform, give for the fulfillment of the needs of their members. Organisations which are not people oriented, create it hard for the members to fulfill their needs. Such organisations, will face negative consequences of non-fulfillment of needs of their members. This would at least be the case in the long run! Conversely, people without a work ethic, self control, and performance orientation become negative forces in an organisation. They cannot fulfill their higher order needs like esteem and self-

actualization. Need fulfillment in an organisation requires self control, goal orientation, and work ethic from the organisation as well as from its members.

Maslow clarified that the hierarchy is not as rigid as it is implied theoretically. His argument is that the hierarchy is a framework which helps in understanding the human motivation in organisations. In other words the hierarchy need not necessarily operate in a fixed order and there is scope for deviations.

NEED HIERARCHY; AN EVALUATION

Maslow's theory, in spite of its importance in understanding human behaviour, is subjected to criticism. Many empirical studies concluded that Maslow's model is open to question as an overall theory of work motivation. These studies found absence of correlation flanked by satisfaction of needs at one stage and activation of needs at the after that higher stage. Modern management theory is influenced through Maslow's writings to a great extent. Some of the later researchers like Herzberg developed on Maslow's theory and contributed to the enrichment of the discipline. Though there are many limitations in Maslow's conceptualization, his theory is helpful in predicting human behaviour on a low or high probability basis if not in absolute conditions.

MCGREGOR'S THEORY 'X': A TRADITIONAL VIEW OF MANAGEMENT

Douglas McGregor is a behaviorist and social psychologist of repute. He is a strong believer in the potentialities of human beings in contributing to organizational performance. His work, "The Human Side of Enterprise" (1960) opened new vistas in organisation and management theory through providing answers to some of the intriguing questions. Later he published another book "The Professional Manager" (1964). His focus is on utilizing human potential in organisations and getting the best out of people through creating a conducive and harmonious environment. He felt that the theoretical assumptions about controlling men determine the character of the enterprise. According to McGregor, the failure to bring the best out of human beings in organisations can be attributed to our conventional view of organisation and man. He calls this view as 'Theory X'. According to 'Theory X' oriented thinking, management is viewed as the master of an enterprise in directing economic activity and allocation of possessions. Management, to them, is getting work done through other people and hence a manager needs to control the behaviour of other people in the organisation. They feel that the organisation can suitably intervene in the procedure of direction controlling and motivating people to accomplish the purpose of the organisation.

Behind these views there are a few assumptions about human nature-and human behaviour. These assumptions are so pervasive that one can see them in mainly of the literature on organisation and management. The assumptions are:

"The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can";

"Because of this human feature of dislike of work, mainly people necessity be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them put forth adequate effort towards the attainment of organizational objectives", and

"The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all."

'Theory X' assumes human beings as lazy, lacking in ambition, resisting change, and non creative, capable of being deceived easily, etc. In such a case management has two strategies to adopt, viz., hard and soft. Hard strategy implies the use of techniques like secure supervision, tight control, coercion, and threat. Soft strategy, on the other hand, is more permissive, meets the demands and attempts to harmonies the demands for organisation and that of employees. But both these strategies have troubles. For instance, if the management is hard, it may lead to militant unionism, sabotage, and antagonism. On the other hand soft management in its anxiety to purchase harmony may abdicate itself. McGregor notes that this conventional management approach is inadequate as it makes more troubles than it solves. He emphasized the need to revise the motivational factors to understand the organizational behaviour. For, he believes, deprivation of needs has behavioral consequences at all stages. Hostility and passivity in the middle of employees are not inherent in human nature. They are only symptoms of deprivation of human needs. 'Theory X' explains 'the consequences of management strategy and it does not explain human nature. The assumptions on human nature under 'theory X' are unnecessarily limiting. Such assumptions prevent the management from seeing possibilities in other strategies. Even when we use techniques like decentralization and consultative supervision, their implementation would be based on inadequate assumptions of human nature. Finally McGregor emphasizes that the assumptions of 'Theory X' would not discover human potentialities in their entirety.

'Theory X' which represents classical administrative theory, as you know, lays stress on efficiency and economy. As the human being tries to avoid work, this inherent human tendency should be counteracted through the management. So, 'Theory X' emphasizes on direction and control. 'Theory X' only explains the management strategy. It does not explain as to which factors motivate the employee. This also lays emphasis on manager and creates his

job more hard and complex. He cannot expect cooperation from his employees if he continually distrusts them. Manager also has to spend a great part of his time on direction and control. This leaves very little time for policy creation and planning. McGregor felt that this traditional view is helpful neither to achieve the goals nor to motivate the employees to accomplish the goals.

‘THEORY Y’: A NEW THEORY OF MANAGEMENT

McGregor holds the opinion that 'Theory X' assumptions about organisation, management, and man are obstacles to performance, and productivity. They are inadequate to realize all the human potentialities. So, in place of 'Theory X' McGregor proposed a new theory broadly recognized as 'Theory Y'. This new theory gives a new look to the relationships flanked by human being and management. According to this theory the management is responsible for coordinating the activities in an organisation and for accomplishing its purposes.

In this new theory McGregor replaces direction and control through integration. The assumptions about: human nature under 'Theory Y' is:

The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. The average human being does not inherently dislike work. Depending upon controllable circumstances, work may be a source of satisfaction (and will be voluntarily performed) or a source of punishment (and will be avoided if possible).

External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort towards organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self- control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their attainment. The mainly important of such rewards, e.g., the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be direct products of efforts directed towards organizational objectives.

The average human being learns, under proper circumstances, not only to accept but to seek responsibility. Avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition, and emphasis on security are usually consequences of experience, not inherent human features.

The capability to exercise a relatively high, degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution, of organizational troubles is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

Under the circumstances of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

McGregor suggests that there is a need for a new management strategy

which is more dynamic than static. This strategy should give for human growth and development. It should discover the human possessions that have substantial potentialities to contribute to the organisations. 'Theory Y' underlines the importance of maintaining an organisation where people feel confident and motivated. It emphasizes developing and improving performance orientation of the people working in the organisations. It involves lot of leadership skills on the part of the managers to achieve these objectives. The cornerstone of McGregor's framework is self-restraint, self-direction, goal orientation, and human values in the organisation.

Mcgregor says that "theory Y" is an invitation to innovation. The innovative ideas constant with 'Theory Y' assumptions are delegation and decentralization of authority and responsibility; creation jobs more and more appealing through job redesign; participative system of involving more and more people in decision-making procedure; and developing appropriate performance appraisal systems.

McGregor's 'Theory Y' emphasizes integration. To him integration means, "creation of circumstances such that, the members of organisation can achieve their own goals best through directing their efforts towards the success of the enterprise'. In this, both organizational needs and individual needs are recognized and integrated. It implies both management and employees working together. This approach is also recognized as management through integration and self control.

Determining job necessities

The manager has to understand the purpose and productivity indicators of his job, so that he can guide his associates towards the attainment of key result areas.

Goal setting

Once the manager knows the purpose of his job, he has to formulate goals with reference to quantity, quality, and time. This is normally done in consultation with one's associates and supervisors. Once there is an agreement on desired and committed goals, it will be easier to evaluate objectively at any point of time in the future.

In flanked by period

In flanked by the period of goal setting and its final evaluation in performance appraisal, a manager has to use his self-control and direction to develop his associates. This requires leadership skills on the part of managers.

Self appraisal

A manager has to evaluate his own performance against the goals set and agreed. While doing this analysis he has to measure each of the performance indicators as against the agreed targets. This gives an objective picture of targets and achievements of the manager with reference to quality, quantity, and time. It also gives an opportunity to analyze the set-backs and shortcomings and helps in goal setting in the future. The importance of this step is that it enhances the understanding flanked by the organisation and the individual.

THEORY X' AND THEORY Y': AN EVALUATION

McGregor's 'X' and 'Y' theories are based on diametrically opposed assumptions of human nature. The latter theory holds that man is positive with potentiality to development. This has, implications for management. McGregor observes that if employees are lazy, indifferent, unwilling to take responsibility, stubborn, noncreative and no cooperative, the cause lies with management's methods of control. Theories 'X' and 'Y' should not be taken as neat categories of human relationships. They are only analytical tools through which behaviour can be analyzed, predicted, and corrected. After McGregor, several scholars have gone beyond 'Theory Y' in analyzing the human nature and its implications to organisation. This, though does not reduce the importance of McGregor's contributions.

ECOLOGICAL APPROACH — FRED W. RIGGS'

From the very beginning, Riggs made a great effort in searching for an objective and effective model for analyzing public administration in developing regions. With his background in sociological theory, Riggs created the "fused-prismatic-diffracted model." This model covers a wide range of research. For instance, economic life, social structures, political symbols, and the allocation of power are all part of the analysis of structural function. From the perspectives of heterogeneity, overlapping, formalism, and social transformation, the model observes peculiar features in prismatic society. Even though the theory behind it needs refinement, it has exerted tremendous influence on the understanding of public administration and organizational behavior. This article's general critique of Riggs' theory can be summarized as follows.

ACHIEVEMENTS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

Heady once praised Riggs for his “wide range of knowledge and the depth of his theoretical viewpoints; he is one of the mainly represented theorists in modern society”. Even though his “administration development” is at present unsatisfactory, without Riggs’ efforts the field of public administration would still be barren. Currently, theories of comparative public administration cannot be practically used to revise actual administrative behavior. Riggs’ theory, though, opens up an entirely new field of revise.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

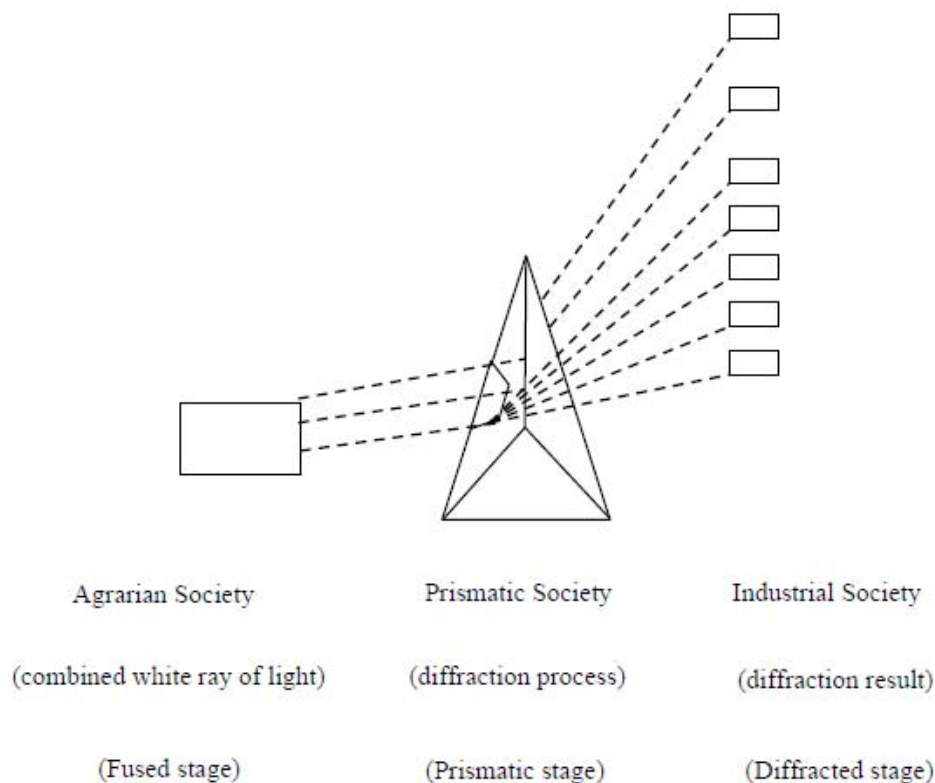
A polarized model is inadequate in depicting the features that contribute to a developing country’s administrative system. As a result, Riggs abandoned models that differentiated flanked by agrarianism and industrialism. Rather, Riggs opted to make a more diverse, yet simplified model, namely, the “fused-prismatic-diffracted” model or what I have chosen to call a “prismatic” model. The formulation of the prismatic model was primarily based upon the extent to which a social administrative system undergoes functional differentiation. The model is appropriate for learning three societal kinds: highly developed Western industrial societies and traditional agrarian societies, as well as developing societies. Each society has its own social, economic, politically symbolic, and communicative attributes, as well as its own political system and concepts of individual rights. Yet, these attributes as a whole eventually develop into dissimilar administrative systems. Riggs whispered that the degree to which each component of a society differs from another in function is measurable, and that measures of functional differentiation can be used to locate the three societal kinds beside a continuum. Simultaneously, Riggs whispered that his theoretical model can be used to compare the fundamental structure of several societies. Through his model, one is so able to comprehend each country’s administrative attributes and differences.

Riggs’ own analysis of public administrations primarily relies upon a functional structural analytical approach. He refers to structure as a society’s pattern of activity, while function is measured to be the outcome of a pattern of activity. Given this analytical approach, one discovers that traditional agrarian societies, highly developed industrial societies, and developing societies are functionally and structurally separate. Such functional and structural attributes can be further examined through using a biological approach, that is, via a spectrum. Taking a traditional agrarian society as an instance, say a traditional Thai society, one notices that several social functions and social structures are highly functionally diffuse, that is, there is no organized division of labor. This analogy serves to demonstrate the consequences of an unorganized functional and structural system in a

traditional agrarian society. But, should a white ray of light be beamed through a prism, it would disperse into a wide range of colors. Riggs uses the word “diffract” to refer to this phenomenon (dissimilar than its meaning in physics) as a metaphor for the functional and structural system that is highly functionally specific, as found within an industrialized society. Though, Riggs believes that there is a third scenario in addition to the two diametrically opposed extremes. That is, one necessity also contemplates the condition of the white light throughout the procedure in which it is being beamed through the prism itself. Specifically, the white ray is just starting to be diffracted, but the diffraction procedure has yet to be completed.

Social differentiation, hence, cannot be successfully achieved overnight. Likewise, social transformation does not progress at a constant speed. The question therefore remains, how does a traditional society become modernized? Moreover, how does a fused society become a more diffracted society? Flanked by the two extremes of a “lack of division of labor” society versus a diffracted society, one may ask, what other possibilities are there. Through his model, Riggs suitably and thoroughly addresses these questions. Riggs first tackles these issues through describing how a ray of light passes through a prism: when a fused white light is beamed through a prism, the white light is subsequently diffracted into a rainbow of colors. Riggs further conceptualizes the diffraction procedure itself as creating a continuum. This conceptualization can be also applied to the real world such that a prismatic society can be theorized as a continuously expanding and developing system. Riggs’ concept is illustrated in the following diagram (Figure):

Figure: Riggs’ “Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted” Model Procedure

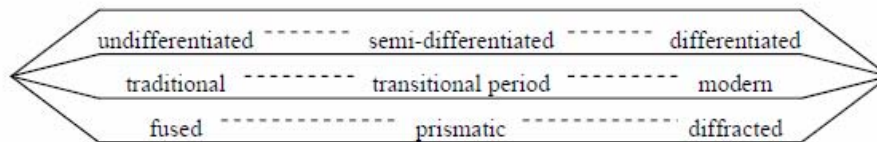


Riggs' believes that when analyzing prismatic societies, mainly social scientists fail to understand how they essentially function. More significantly, they are unable to fully understand the circumstances under which a society experiences diffraction. That is to say, such social scientists only grasp the concept of a dedicated structure, and are not able to conceptualize the whole social structural system. Taking a family household as an instance, in a fused society the family is the model through which politics, the administrative system, religion, and ethics are judged. In contrast, in a diffracted society, the family household's influence on other social structures is negligible. Yet, in a prismatic society the degree of influence lies within these two extremes. In other words, a family household's influence on several other social structures is less than in a fused society, but more than in a diffracted one. The revise of economic behavior can be applied in the same manner. In a prismatic society, should one ignore the interrelationship flanked by political, administrative, social, and economic factors, and limit one's analysis to economic behavior alone, one not only fails to fully grasp the larger picture, but more importantly, misunderstands the role of economic behavior as well.

BI-LINEAR PRISMATIC MODEL

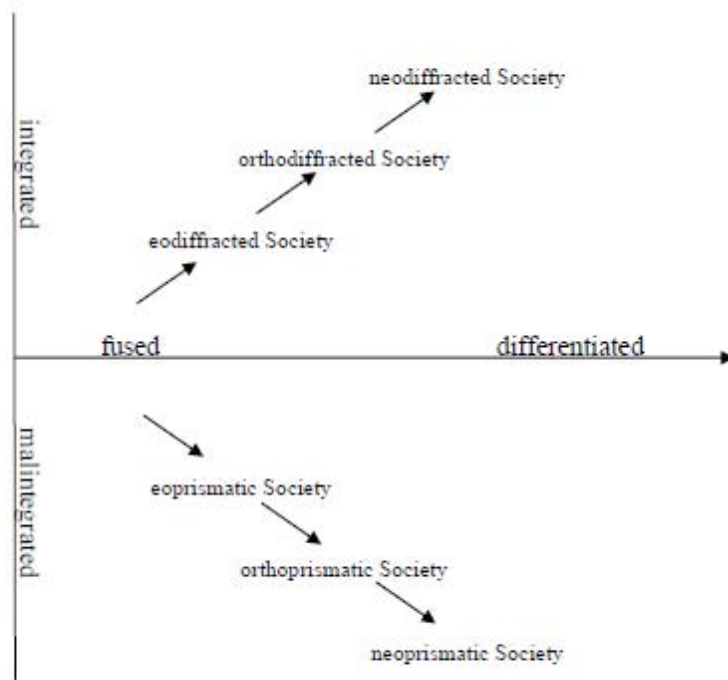
In the ten years since the introduction of the “prismatic model,” Riggs himself has suggested improvements or alterations to the model. The main cause for such improvements is to probe and question the unilinear model of thinking. In the “prismatic model,” “degree of differentiation” was measured to be the only standard against which prismatic societies were judged; that is, it was whispered that the higher the degree of differentiation, the greater the degree of diffraction. Though, this inferential relationship cannot adequately explain the following: when a social system is already differentiated/diffracted, and yet is malintegrated as a whole, how can it remain stagnated in a prismatic social state? Riggs’ original prismatic model was usually referred to as a “unilinear path” model, as depicted in the following diagram (Figure):

Figure : A diagram of a unilinear path prismatic model



Riggs himself admitted that the model’s reasoning was faulty and would lead to misleading thinking; so, within the “unilinear path” concept Riggs added a “degree of conventionality” axis. In contrast, the “bilinear path” proposes that a prismatic society is not determined through economic development, nor through achieving modernization alone; rather, it can be found in dissimilar societies in several degrees of differentiation. Consequently, prismatic societies are not limited to underdeveloped countries. More precisely, the more differentiated a society is, the greater the need for conventionality in order to reach a state of diffraction; though, the social risk is also greater, as is the likelihood of disastrous consequences, including prismatic breakdowns. Riggs’ theory is based on nonconforming behavior as found in Western societies—including metropolitan crises, ethnic riots, student boycotts, social distancing, as well as “the hippy phenomenon”—features scrupulous to prismatic societies in highly developed countries. The abrupt rise of the Nazi and Fascist movements in Europe, as well as the Great Depression of the 1930s represent two vivid examples. Figure 3, below, illustrates the “bilinear path” model:

Figure Diagram of a bilinear path prismatic model.



Riggs uses the three prefixes of “eo”, “ortho”, and “neo” to establish six new forms of social phenomenon. This distinction allows for greater descriptive flexibility, as well as a finer understanding of the dynamics of change.

From Riggs’ introduction of these three stages one realizes that “present-day Riggs” is in fact the mainly blunt and harshest critic of “former Riggs.” Yet, despite the fact that Riggs continuously modifies his theory in order to make the perfect model, Riggs’ critics are endless. Prethus, for instance, regards Riggs’ model as too broad and abstract. Arora, in a quite lengthy article, analyzes the “negative character” of the prismatic model. Specifically, he argues that the model holds a Western bias, and moreover, the terminology used to describe the scrupulous features of the prismatic model is value-laden, and consequently, tend to emphasize the negative features of prismatic societies. Monroe also considers the prismatic model a reflection of Western standards, and urges Riggs to revise prismatic phenomena within American society in order to improve his model. As to Riggs’ promotion of “formalism”, Valson and Milne raise many points of contention; namely, the terminology “formalism” constitutes the disparity flanked by that which is “formally prescribed” and that which is “actually practiced.” It follows that the advantages and disadvantages of “formalism” cannot be broadly encapsulated, but rather are determined through context.

Undoubtedly, these criticisms have contributed to the adjustments made in Riggs' model, such that several points of contention have already been clarified within his book *Reexamining Prismatic Societies*. Though, in order for Riggs' model to have an even more concrete influence, it necessarily have more solid impressions. Braudy uses Riggs' theory to revise Japan's legislative proceedings. In his revise, Braudy's findings were that practical applications and conclusions drawn from the prismatic model can be broadly utilized; though, it is more hard to compare factors and circumstances within the model, for one may not find every factor listed within the model in Japanese society itself. It can so be stated that given the challenges and adjustments Riggs' model faces, its structural path necessarily be predicated on resolving these issues in the close to future. If maladjustment is equated with stress, then it is an aversive psychological state that will make negative evaluations of and negative affect toward the incentive that created it. Moreover, the lack of a large number of negative feedback events may also cause the expatriates to ignore cues about behavioral appropriateness.

THEORETICAL MODEL AND APPROACHES OF REVISE

Riggs has placed great emphasis on ecological methodologies. This approach not only widens the scope of the revise of public administration, but also regards society as organic in nature. Separately from that, this approach supplements traditional research. In doing comparative public administration research, one should always look at other related factors such as historical background, ideologies, value systems, economic structure, social structure, etc.. This is because social systems evolve slowly, rather than transforming abruptly. In addition, the environment always plays a vital role in forming and transforming social systems; that is, dissimilar environments will produce dissimilar systems. To view the revise of public administration as a closed system, isolated from its environment would, bluntly speaking, would be out of touch with reality.

The ecological approach, through definition, focuses upon the relationship flanked by an organism and its environment. Factors that the ecological approach takes into consideration are numerous; they primarily contain, though, the influence of recent growths in social sciences methodology, experience from technological aid to foreign developing countries, and the influence of social systems theory. Riggs' ecological approach is predicated on the vital features of ecology. The notion that functions are interdependent, dynamic balancing relationships, or adaptations and structural growths, etc., is constant with prismatic theories. To explain the possible occurrence of ecological relationships flanked by public administration and other factors, Riggs proposes an alternative hypothesis, one that is to be tested through observation and empirical proof. Ecological public administration not only can

give a solid basis for research, but can explain and predict public administrative behavior as well. More than being merely a powerful tool for uncovering “ailments” within public administrative systems, the ecological approach can, in fact, address and correct them.

Another laudable academic contribution of Riggs is his use of pan-disciplinary research. This kind of research is derived from his dissatisfaction with traditional monolithic and inter-disciplinary studies. Pan-disciplinary research, through definition, also studies politics, law, anthropology, economics, psychology, etc. to analyze public administration. Riggs argues that to gain a deep and thorough understanding of public administrative phenomena in a prismatic society requires not only the observation of superficial attributes, but the examination of other equally important cultural factors as well, the cause being that the more transparent a prismatic society, the more complex its public administrative structure. In the past, the induction method was criticized as being too subjective and limited. Although prismatic theory is based on logical induction, it is not subjective and restrained, for the theory’s pan-disciplinary approach prevents it from being so.

Comparative public administrative research, under the influence of social science methodology, has recently placed more emphasis on cultural factors. This reflects the limits of traditional public administrative studies, which use a more static approach. Confronted with a diverse and changing world, the development procedure both of modernized diffracted societies and transforming prismatic societies fail as adequate explanations. With the view point of systematics, a society is a balanced entity even when facing continuous change. The ultimate principle of social transformation is modernization. Riggs defines modernization as a multi-faceted transformation procedure caused through the influence of more developed countries on less developed countries. C.E. Black, in contrast, argues that modernization is a procedure of self-version through traditional societies when confronted with external challenges. Regardless of which one subscribes to, Riggs’ perspective of external impact or Black’s definition of internal version, implicit in both of these viewpoints is a construct on how a society evolves. Only through explaining the procedure of transformation can the goal of improving a society be realized.

LIMITATIONS AND DISCUSSION

Fred W. Riggs’ article “Agraria and Industria: Toward a Typology of Comparative Administration,” published in 1955, won him wide acclaim in the middle of scholars. Since the publications of *The Ecology of Public Administration* and *Administration in Developing Countries*, Riggs’ position and reputation in the field of comparative public administration has been peerless. T. Parsons once said that “sociologists all critique Max Weber, but

no one can do social research independently and scientifically without referring to Weber's theories." In the same manner, those who revise comparative public administration will criticize Fred W. Riggs' "fused-prismatic diffracted model," but in conducting research, no one is free of Riggs' influence. The limits of Riggs' theory can be summarized beside the following lines. First, one school of thought that supports the "fused-prismatic-diffracted model" believes that this model can replace empirical studies in general. In other words, empirical studies are regarded as having little to no value. The primary cause for this stems from the perspective that empirical studies are time-consuming and expensive. As Milne astutely points out, though, it is dangerous for novice scholars to rely entirely upon model theories. Shortcomings arise when scholars erroneously consider that once one is familiar with one model of administrative theory, one can draw broad conclusions about the administrative characteristics of all regions without conducting empirical research.

A second critique of Riggs' theory identifies the scope of the "fused-prismatic diffracted model" as being too broad and abstract. Riggs' structural function studies, which contain many cultural factors--including economic, social, and political--are hard to follow. So, some scholars may be tempted to denounce this type of large-scale theory as middle-range theory, and hence, consider empirical investigations as supplemental. The objective is therefore to shorten the aloofness flanked by theory and practice. Concrete examples contain the revise of the influence of foreign capital enterprises on political transformations, and minutely detailed categorizations of hierarchical power systems.

LACK OF EMPIRICAL PROOF

Another critique of the "fused-prismatic-diffracted" model argues that while it is predicated on the notion of deduction, there is little empirical proof to support it. Mainly sciences require empirical proof so that results can be verified, not only repeatedly but also at any time and place. Moreover, objective comparisons would then likewise be possible. Riggs, though, endeavors to prescribe "formalism" as a given standard, and mainly scholars consider this concept as unsatisfactory. Moreover, when scholars attempt to use Riggs' model to revise the administrative systems of foreign countries, they often encounter numerous difficulties. Scholars have also found that in some cases the "fused-prismatic-diffracted model" ignores sure variables, but in others it exaggerates them. For instance, as Riggs himself pointed out, aside from cultural factors there are others that should also be measured. These contain historical background, the political structure of post-colonial countries, territorial size, the status of hierarchical power, and the role of the military, as well as social ideologies. Mainly importantly, the unique circumstances of

each country will have a profound influence on administrative behavior. Yet, these are factors that Riggs seldom discusses.

IGNORING THE ULTIMATE GOAL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

In adopting a deductive procedure, the “fused-prismatic-diffracted” model likewise ignores the ultimate goal of public administration in its attempt to build a value-free science. W. Wilson argues that the primary function of any public administration is to work efficiently. So, it should be obvious that a public administration cannot and should not abandon sure values. Moreover, while the “fused-prismatic-diffracted model” tends to supplement its theory with empirical proof, it is sometimes hard to find appropriately related proof. The uniqueness of Riggs’ theory is undeniably influential. Yet, his theory is to some extent predicated on logical speculation or assumptions. For instance, Riggs believes that formalism is the primary and sole factor in rising administrative hierarchical power within prismatic societies. This argument, though, is too simple and unequivocal to accept. To illustrate his argument, Riggs uses American society as his model of a diffracted society. The shortcoming here is, although American society is a developed and industrialized country, one cannot infer that it is free of formalism and no longer a prismatic society. So, the theoretical hypothesis that American society is a model which one should use in constructing a diffracted society is both inappropriate and unsatisfactory.

Although the analytic pattern of the “fused-prismatic-diffracted model” is based on a structural functional approach, the primary focus of Riggs’ analysis is placed instead on social factors. This analytical perspective tends to exclude other factors, which through extension prevents alternative explanations including the psychological and cognitive characteristics of a prismatic administrative system. It is so apparent that Riggs overemphasizes the organic and unified nature of social systems. At this point, it is important to note that Riggs repeatedly emphasizes that the primary cause he uses the conditions “fused,” “prismatic,” and “diffracted”, rather than classical words like “traditional,” “transitional,” and “modern”, is to avoid any insinuation of determinism. Though, in characterizing prismatic theory as “a vast and remote serial structure” Riggs has not diminished its deterministic air. Riggs’ use of the prefixes eo- (primitive, old) and neo- (new, modern) are no less value-laden and deterministic than the conditions agrarian and industrial, and perhaps even more so. Furthermore, the use of ortho- (straight, correct) for the transitional stage is puzzling. Instead, his choice of conditions has only served to highlight criticisms of Riggs’ supposedly value-neutral public administration model.

It is widely acknowledged that constructional theorists often fall prey to committing causal inferential errors, and Riggs is no exception. To his credit,

Riggs openly admits that the prismatic model is appropriate only in examining phenomena that occur throughout the social transformation procedure. In an actual society, though, “independent variables” and “dependent variables” are complex and therefore hard to predict. Consequently, causal inference is hard to avoid. From a purely functional or linguistic point of view, the “fused-prismatic-diffracted” model uses too much terminology and dedicated jargon. To understand it, one necessarily patiently wades through the definitions provided through Riggs himself. Therefore, in designing a new model, and in the effort to distinguish it from others, Riggs recognized a unique vocabulary that has no application whatsoever to other models. In addition, from a structural perspective, the “fused-prismatic-diffracted” model is awkwardly divided into three sections. This kind of organization reflects the model’s formalist limitations. Factors that cause or instigate social transformations are latent, unstable, and indefinite at best. In describing the development of Middle Eastern society, D. Lerner’s “The Passing of Traditional Society” proves this point decisively. Certainly, there are societies whose transformations have occurred as a result of powerful external forces. Under these circumstances, if one insists on using the “fused-prismatic diffracted” model for analytical purposes, the result would be irrelevant to the facts.

Therefore, rather than starting from the angle of time and history in analyzing social transformations, one should revise the interrelationship flanked by the endogenous and the exogenous in order to better comprehend social change and development. As Pawson and Tilley have argued, programmes cannot be measured as some external impinging ‘force’ to which subjects ‘respond.’ Rather, programmes ‘work’ if subjects choose to create them work and are placed in the right circumstances to enable them to do so. If evaluation remains oblivious to contextual factors and fails to draw upon practical and experiential insights, we will never discover why any given project ‘work’ or not, why it may be successful for some and not others and which characteristics of it might successfully be transplanted elsewhere.

Still others argue that Riggs’ prismatic model presents an overly pessimistic perspective in its analysis of transitional societies. It is more likely, though, that Riggs is merely skeptical about the prospect of modernizing developing regions. One cause for his attitude is that he views the transition procedure of non-Western societies from the epistemology of Western culture. A strong and valid criticism argues that not only is it inappropriate to apply Western standards to non-Western societies, but it is highly improper and dangerous as well.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Explain the significance of structure in organisations.

What is Piece-Rate System?

What defects were recognized through Taylor in traditional management?

Describe the characteristics of human relations approach.

Describe the characteristics of a cooperative system.
Explain Simon's criticism of classical theory.
Describe the need hierarchy theory.

CHAPTER 3

BUREAUCRACY

STRUCTURE

Learning objectives
Meaning of bureaucracy
Word origin and usage
History
Theories of bureaucracy
Max Weber
Karl Marx
Representative bureaucracy
Issues in bureaucracy
Review questions

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
Explain the origin of the term bureaucracy.
Explain Weber's concept and kinds of domination.
Understand the significance of Marx's views on bureaucracy.
Explain the concept of Representative Bureaucracy.
Explain the concept of anonymity.

MEANING OF BUREAUCRACY

A bureaucracy is "a body of non-elective government officials" and/or "an administrative policy-creation group." Historically, bureaucracy referred to government administration supervised through departments staffed with nonelected officials. In modern parlance, bureaucracy refers to the administrative system governing any large institution.

Since being coined, the word "bureaucracy" has developed negative connotations for some. Bureaucracies are criticized for their complexity, their inefficiency, and their inflexibility. The dehumanizing effects of excessive bureaucracy were a major theme in the work of Franz Kafka, and were central to his masterpiece *The Trial*. The elimination of unnecessary bureaucracy is a key concept in modern managerial theory, and has been a central issue in

numerous political campaigns.

Others have defended the subsistence of bureaucracies. The German sociologist Max Weber argued that bureaucracy constitutes the mainly efficient and rational way in which human activity can be organized, and that systematic processes and organized hierarchies were necessary to maintain order, maximize efficiency, and eliminate favoritism. But even Weber saw bureaucracy as a threat to individual freedom, in which the rising bureaucratization of human life traps individuals in an "iron cage" of rule-based, rational control.

WORD ORIGIN AND USAGE

The term "bureaucracy" is French in origin, and combines the French word *bureau* – desk or office – with the Greek word – rule or political power. It was coined sometime in the mid-1700s through the French economist Jacques Claude Marie Vincent de Gournay, and was a satirical pejorative from the outset. Gournay never wrote the term down, but was later quoted at length in a letter from a modern: The late M. de Gournay...sometimes used to say: "We have an illness in France which bids fair to play havoc with us; this illness is described bureaumania." Sometimes he used to invent a fourth or fifth form of government under the heading of "bureaucracy." — Baron von Grimm

The first recognized English-language use was in 1818. The 19th-century definition referred to a system of governance in which offices were held through unelected career officials, and in this sense "bureaucracy" was seen as a separate form of government, often subservient to a monarchy. In the 1920s, the definition was expanded through the German sociologist Max Weber to contain any system of administration mannered through trained professionals according to fixed rules. Weber saw the bureaucracy as a relatively positive development; though through 1944, the Austrian economist Ludwig von Mises noted that the term bureaucracy was "always applied with an opprobrious connotation," and through 1957 the American sociologist Robert Merton noted that the term "bureaucrat" had become an epithet.

HISTORY

Although the term "bureaucracy" was not coined until the mid-1700s, the thought of rule-bound administrative systems is much older. The development of writing (ca. 3500 BCE) and the use of documents were critical to the administration of this system, and the first definitive emergence of bureaucracy is in ancient Sumer, where an emergent class of scribes administered the harvest and allocated its spoils. Ancient Egypt also had a hereditary class of scribes that administered the civil service bureaucracy. Much of what is recognized today of these cultures comes from the writing of the scribes.

Ancient Rome was administered through a hierarchy of local proconsuls and their deputies. The reforms of Diocletian doubled the number of administrative districts and led to a large-scale expansion in Roman

bureaucracy. In one of the earliest-recorded criticisms of bureaucracy, the early Christian author Lactantius claimed that Diocletian's actions had led to widespread economic stagnation, and that there were now more men using tax money than paying it. After the Empire split, the Byzantine Empire became notorious for its inscrutable bureaucracy, and the term "byzantine" came to refer to highly-complicated bureaucratic structures.

In Ancient China, the scholar Confucius recognized a complex system of rigorous procedures governing relationships in family, religion, and politics. Confucius sought to construct an organized state free from corruption. In Imperial China, the bureaucracy was headed through a Chief Counselor. Within the bureaucracy, the positions were of a "graded civil service" and competitive exams were held to determine who held positions. The upper stages of the system held nine grades, and the officials wore distinctive clothing. The Confucian Classics codified a set of values held through the officials.

Under Louis XIV, the old nobility had neither power nor political influence, the sum of their privileges being confined to their exemption from taxes. Their spokesmen complained about this "unnatural" state of affairs, but as they were forbidden to express their criticism in France, their writings were published in Holland. These aristocrats discovered similarities flanked by absolute monarchy and the bureaucratic despotism of despotic monarchy. In 18th-century France, the role and function of government expanded dramatically. The rise of the French civil service led to "bureaumania," and the development of the complex systems of bureaucracy which de Gournay criticized. In the early 19th century, Napoleon attempted to reform the bureaucracies of France and other territories under his control through the imposition of the standardized Napoleonic Code. But paradoxically, this led to even further growth of the bureaucracy.

Through the early 19th century, bureaucratic forms of administration were firmly in place crossways continental Europe, North America and much of Asia. Thinkers like John Stuart Mill and Karl Marx began to theorize about the economic functions and power-structures of bureaucracy in modern life. Max Weber was the first to endorse bureaucracy as a necessary characteristic of modernity, and through the late 19th century bureaucratic forms had begun their spread from government to other large-scale institutions.

The trend toward increased bureaucratization sustained in the 20th century, and, in the modern era, practically all organized institutions rely on bureaucracy to organize tasks. They do this through processing and controlling records and information ("the files"), and administer complex systems of rules.

THEORIES OF BUREAUCRACY

JOHN STUART MILL

Writing in the late 1860s, political scientist John Stuart Mill theorized that successful monarchies were essentially bureaucracies, and found proof of their subsistence in Imperial China, the Russian Empire, and the regimes of Europe. Mill referred to bureaucracy as a separate form of government, separate from representative democracy. He whispered bureaucracies had sure advantages, mainly importantly the accumulation of experience in those who actually conduct the affairs. Nevertheless, he thought bureaucracy as a form of governance compared poorly to representative government, as it relied on appointment rather than direct election. Mill wrote that ultimately the bureaucracy stifles the mind, and that "A bureaucracy always tends to become a pedantocracy."

LUDWIG VON MISES

In his 1944 work *Bureaucracy*, the Austrian economist Ludwig von Mises was highly critical of all bureaucratic systems. He whispered that bureaucracy should be the target of universal opprobrium, and noticed that in the political sphere it had few defenders, even in the middle of progressives. Mises saw bureaucratic processes at work in both the private and public spheres; though he whispered that bureaucratization in the private sphere could only occur as a consequence of government interference. He wrote that "No private enterprise will ever fall prey to bureaucratic methods of management if it is operated with the sole aim of creation profit."

ROBERT K. MERTON

The American sociologist Robert K. Merton expanded on Weber's theories of bureaucracy in his work *Social Theory and Social Structure*, published in 1957. While Merton agreed with sure characteristics of Weber's analysis, he also measured the dysfunctional characteristics of bureaucracy, which he attributed to a "trained incapacity" resulting from "over conformity." He saw bureaucrats as more likely to defend their own entrenched interests than to act to benefit the organization as a whole. He also whispered bureaucrats took pride in their craft, which led them to resist changes in recognized routines. Merton also noted that bureaucrats accentuated formality over interpersonal relationships, and had been trained to ignore the special circumstances of scrupulous cases, causing them to come crossways as "arrogant" and "haughty."

MAX WEBER

MAX WEBER

Maximilian Karl Emil "Max" Weber (21 April 1864 – 14 June 1920) was a German sociologist, philosopher, and political economist whose ideas influenced social theory, social research, and the whole discipline of sociology. Weber is often cited, with Émile Durkheim and Karl Marx, as in the middle of the three founding architects of sociology.

Weber was a key proponent of methodological antipositivism, arguing for the revise of social action through interpretive (rather than purely empiricist) means, based on understanding the purpose and meaning that individuals attach to their own actions. Weber's main intellectual concern was understanding the processes of rationalisation, secularization, and "disenchantment" that he associated with the rise of capitalism and modernity, and which he saw as the result of a new way of thinking about the world.

Perhaps Weber is best recognized for his thesis combining economic sociology and the sociology of religion, elaborated in his book *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, in which he proposed that ascetic Protestantism was one of the major "elective affinities" associated with the rise in the Western world of market-driven capitalism and the rational-legal nation-state. Against Marx's "historical materialism," Weber emphasized the importance of cultural influences embedded in religion as a means for understanding the genesis of capitalism. The *Protestant Ethic* shaped the earliest part in Weber's broader investigations into world religion: he would go on to look at the religions of China, the religions of India and ancient Judaism, with scrupulous regard to the apparent non-development of capitalism in the corresponding societies, as well as to their differing forms of social stratification.

In another major work, *Politics as a Vocation*, Weber defined the state as an entity which successfully claims a "monopoly on the legitimate use of violence". He was also the first to categories social authority into separate forms, which he labelled as charismatic, traditional, and rational-legal. His analysis of bureaucracy emphasized that modern state institutions are increasingly based on rational-legal authority.

Weber also made a diversity of other contributions in economic history, as well as economic theory and methodology. Weber's analysis of modernity and rationalisation significantly influenced the critical theory associated with the Frankfurt School.

After the First World War, Max Weber was in the middle of the founders of the liberal German Democratic Party. He also ran unsuccessfully for a seat in parliament and served as advisor to the committee that drafted the ill-fated democratic Weimar Constitution of 1919. After contracting the Spanish flu, he died of pneumonia in 1920, aged 56.

WEBER'S THOUGHT

Inspirations

Weber's thinking was strongly influenced through German idealism and particularly through neo-Kantianism, to which he had been exposed through Heinrich Rickert, his professorial colleague at the University of Freiburg. Especially significant to Weber's work is the neo-Kantian belief that reality is essentially chaotic and incomprehensible, with all rational order deriving from the way in which the human mind focuses its attention on sure characteristics of reality and organizes the resulting perceptions. Weber's opinions concerning the methodology of the social sciences show parallels with the work of modern neo-Kantian philosopher and pioneering sociologist Georg Simmel.

Weber was also influenced through Kantian ethics, which he nonetheless came to think of as obsolete in a modern age lacking in religious certainties. In this last respect, the influence of Friedrich Nietzsche's philosophy is apparent. According to the *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, the "deep tension flanked by the Kantian moral imperatives and a Nietzschean diagnosis of the modern cultural world is apparently what gives such a darkly tragic and agnostic shade to Weber's ethical worldview." Another major influence in Weber's life were the writings of Karl Marx and the workings of socialist thought in academia and active politics. While Weber shares some of Marx's consternation with bureaucratic systems and maligns them as being capable of advancing their own logic to the detriment of human freedom and autonomy, Weber views disagreement as perpetual and inevitable and does not host the spirit of a materially accessible utopia. Though the influence of his mother's Calvinist religiosity is apparent throughout Weber's life and work, and though he maintained a deep, lifelong interest in the revise of religions, Weber was open about the fact that he was personally irreligious.

As a political economist and economic historian, Weber belonged to the "youngest" German historical school of economics, represented through academics such as Gustav von Schmoller and his student Werner Sombart. But, even though Weber's research interests were very much in line with that school, his views on methodology and the theory of value diverged significantly from those of other German historicists and were closer, in fact, to those of Carl Menger and the Austrian School, the traditional rivals of the historical school.

Methodology

Unlike some other classical figures (Comte, Durkheim) Weber did not attempt, consciously, to make any specific set of rules governing social sciences in general, or sociology in scrupulous. In comparison with Durkheim and Marx, Weber was more focused on individuals and culture and this is clear in his methodology. Whereas Durkheim focused on the society, Weber

concentrated on the individuals and their actions and whereas Marx argued for the primacy of the material world over the world of ideas, Weber valued ideas as motivating actions of individuals, at least in the big picture.

Sociology, for Max Weber, is:

...a science which attempts the interpretive understanding of social action in order thereby to arrive at a causal explanation of its course and effects.—Max Weber

Weber was concerned with the question of objectivity and subjectivity. Weber distinguished social action from social behaviour, noting that social action necessarily be understood through how individuals subjectively relate to one another. Review of social action through interpretive means (*Verstehen*) necessarily be based upon understanding the subjective meaning and purpose that individuals attach to their actions. Social actions may have easily identifiable and objective means, but much more subjective ends and the understanding of those ends through a scientist is subject to yet another layer of subjective understanding (that of the scientist). Weber noted that the importance of subjectivity in social sciences creates creation of fool-proof, universal laws much more hard than in natural sciences and that the amount of objective knowledge that social sciences may achieve is precariously limited. Overall, Weber supported the goal of objective science, but he noted that it is an unreachable goal – although one definitely worth striving for.

There is no absolutely "objective" scientific analysis of culture... All knowledge of cultural reality... is always knowledge from scrupulous points of view.... an "objective" analysis of cultural events, which proceeds according to the thesis that the ideal of science is the reduction of empirical reality to "laws," is meaningless... [because]... the knowledge of social laws is not knowledge of social reality but is rather one of the several aids used through our minds for attaining this end.—Max Weber, *"Objectivity" in Social Science*, 1897

The principle of "methodological individualism," which holds that social scientists should seek to understand collectivities (such as nations, cultures, governments, churches, corporations, etc.) solely as the result and the context of the actions of individual persons, can be traced to Weber, particularly to the first chapter of *Economy and Society*, in which he argues that only individuals "can be treated as mediators in a course of subjectively understandable action." In other words, Weber argued that social phenomena can be understood scientifically only to the extent that they are captured through models of the behaviour of purposeful individuals, models which Weber described "ideal kinds," from which actual historical events will necessarily deviate due to accidental and irrational factors. The analytical constructs of an ideal kind never exist in reality, but give objective benchmarks against which real-life constructs can be measured.

We know of no scientifically ascertainable ideals. To be sure, that creates our efforts more arduous than in the past, since we are expected to

make our ideals from within our breast in the very age of subjectivist culture.—Max Weber, 1909

Weber's methodology was developed in the context of a wider debate about methodology of social sciences, the *Methodenstreit*. Weber's position was secure to historicism, as he understood social actions as being heavily tied to scrupulous historical contexts and its analysis required the understanding of subjective motivations of individuals (social actors). Therefore Weber's methodology emphasizes the use of comparative historical analysis. So, Weber was more interested in explaining how a sure outcome was the result of several historical processes rather than predicting an outcome of those processes in the future.

Rationalisation

Several scholars have described rationalisation and the question of individual freedom in an increasingly rational society, as the main theme of Weber's work. This theme was situated in the larger context of the relationship flanked by psychological motivations, cultural values and beliefs (primarily, religion) and the structure of the society (usually determined through the economy).

Through rationalisation, Weber understood first, the individual cost-benefit calculation, second, the wider, bureaucratic organisation of the organisations and finally, in the more general sense as the opposite of understanding the reality through mystery and magic (disenchantment).

The fate of our times is characterized through rationalisation and intellectualization and, above all, through the "disenchantment of the world"—Max Weber

Weber began his studies of the subject in *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, in which he argued that the redefinition of the connection flanked by work and piety in Protestantism and especially in ascetic Protestant denominations, particularly Calvinism, shifted human effort towards rational efforts aimed at achieving economic gain. In Protestant religion, Christian piety towards God was expressed through one's secular vocation (secularization of calling). The rational roots of this doctrine, he argued, soon grew incompatible with and larger than the religious and so the latter were eventually discarded.

Weber sustained his investigation into this matter in later works, notably in his studies on bureaucracy and on the classification of legitimate authority into three kinds – Rational-legal, traditional and charismatic – of which the legitimate (or rational) is the dominant one in the modern world. In these works Weber described what he saw as society's movement towards rationalisation. Likewise, rationalisation could be seen in the economy, with the development of highly rational and calculating capitalism. Weber also saw

rationalisation as one of the main factors setting the European West separately from the rest of the world. Rationalisation relied on deep changes in ethics, religion, psychology and culture; changes that first took place in the Western civilization.

What Weber depicted was not only the secularization of Western *culture*, but also and especially the development of modern *societies* from the viewpoint of rationalisation. The new structures of society were marked through the differentiation of the two functionally intermeshing systems that had taken shape around the organizational cores of the capitalist enterprise and the bureaucratic state tools. Weber understood this procedure as the institutionalization of purposive-rational economic and administrative action. To the degree that everyday life was affected through this cultural and societal rationalisation, traditional forms of life – which in the early modern period were differentiated primarily according to one's trade – were dissolved.—Jürgen Habermas, *Modernity's Consciousness of Time*, 1990 [1985]

Characteristics of rationalisation contain rising knowledge, rising impersonality and enhanced control of social and material life. Weber was ambivalent towards rationalisation; while admitting it was responsible for several advances, in scrupulous, freeing humans from traditional, restrictive, and illogical social guidelines, he also criticized it for dehumanizing individuals as "cogs in the machine" and curtailing their freedom, trapping them in the bureaucratic iron cage of rationality and bureaucracy. Related to rationalisation is the procedure of disenchantment, in which the world is becoming more explained and less mystical, moving from polytheistic religions to monotheistic ones and finally to the Godless science of modernity. Those processes affect all of society, removing "sublime values... from public life" and creation art less creative.

In a dystopian critique of rationalisation, Weber notes that modern society is a product of an individualistic drive of the Reformation, yet at the same time, the society created in this procedure is less and less welcoming of individualism.

How is it at all possible to salvage any remnants of 'individual' freedom of movement in any sense given this all-powerful trend?—Max Weber

Sociology of religion

Weber's work in the field of sociology of religion started with the essay *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* and sustained with the analysis of *The Religion of China: Confucianism and Taoism*, *The Religion of India: the Sociology of Hinduism and Buddhism*, and *Ancient Judaism*. His work on other religions was interrupted through his sudden death in 1920, which prevented him from following *Ancient Judaism* with studies of early

Christianity and Islam. His three main themes in the essays were the effect of religious ideas on economic activities, the relation flanked by social stratification and religious ideas and the distinguishable features of Western civilization.

Weber saw religion as one of the core forces in the society. His goal was to find reasons for the dissimilar development paths of the cultures of the Occident and the Orient, although without judging or valuing them, like some of the modern thinkers who followed the social Darwinist paradigm; Weber wanted primarily to explain the distinctive elements of the Western civilization. In the analysis of his findings, Weber maintained that Calvinist (and more widely, Protestant) religious ideas had had a major impact on the social innovation and development of the economic system of the West, but noted that they were not the only factors in this development. Other notable factors mentioned through Weber incorporated the rationalism of scientific pursuit, merging observation with mathematics, science of scholarship and jurisprudence, rational systematization and bureaucratization of government administration and economic enterprise. In the end, the revise of the sociology of religion, according to Weber, focused on one distinguishing part of the Western culture, the decline of beliefs in magic, or what he referred to as "disenchantment of the world".

Weber also proposed a socioevolutionary model of religious change, showing that in general, societies have moved from magic to polytheism, then to pantheism, monotheism and finally, ethical monotheism. According to Weber, this development occurred as the rising economic stability allowed professionalisation and the development of ever more sophisticated priesthood. As societies grew more complex and encompassed dissimilar groups, a hierarchy of gods developed and as power in the society became more centralized, the concept of a single, universal God became more popular and desirable.

The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism

Weber's essay *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* is his mainly well-known work. It is argued that this work should not be viewed as a detailed revise of Protestantism, but rather as an introduction into Weber's later works, especially his studies of interaction flanked by several religious ideas and economic behaviour as part of the rationalisation of the economic system. In *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, Weber put forward the thesis that Calvinist ethic and ideas influenced the development of capitalism. He noted the post-Reformation shift of Europe's economic centre absent from Catholic countries such as France, Spain, and Italy, and toward Protestant countries such as the Netherlands, England, Scotland, and Germany. Weber also noted that societies having more Protestants were those with a more highly developed capitalist economy. Likewise, in societies with dissimilar religions, mainly successful business leaders were Protestant.

Weber therefore argued that Roman Catholicism impeded the development of the capitalist economy in the West, as did other religions such as Confucianism and Buddhism elsewhere in the world.

The development of the concept of the calling quickly gave to the modern entrepreneur a fabulously clear conscience – and also industrious workers; he gave to his employees as the wages of their ascetic devotion to the calling and of co-operation in his ruthless use of them through capitalism the prospect of eternal salvation.—Max Weber

Christian religious devotion had historically been accompanied through rejection of mundane affairs, including economic pursuit. Weber showed that sure kinds of Protestantism – notably Calvinism – were supportive of rational pursuit of economic gain and worldly activities dedicated to it, seeing them as endowed with moral and spiritual significance. Weber argued that there were several reasons to look for the origins of modern capitalism in the religious ideas of the Reformation. In scrupulous, the Protestant ethic (or more specifically, Calvinist ethic) motivated the believers to work hard, be successful in business, and reinvest their profits in further development rather than frivolous pleasures. The notion of calling meant that each individual had to take action as an indication of their salvation; just being a member of the Church was not enough. Predestination also reduced agonizing over economic inequality and further, it meant that a material wealth could be taken as a sign of salvation in the afterlife. The believers therefore justified pursuit of profit with religion, as instead of being fuelled through morally suspect greed or ambition, their actions were motivated through a highly moral and respected philosophy. This Weber described the "spirit of capitalism": it was the Protestant religious ideology that was behind – and inevitably led to – the capitalist economic system. This theory is often viewed as a reversal of Marx's thesis that the economic "base" of society determines all other characteristics of it.

Weber abandoned research into Protestantism because his colleague Ernst Troeltsch, a professional theologian, had begun work on the book *The Social Teachings of the Christian Churches and Sects*. Another cause for Weber's decision was that Troeltsch's work already achieved what he desired in that area: laying the groundwork for a comparative analysis of religion and society.

The phrase "work ethic" used in modern commentary is a derivative of the "Protestant ethic" discussed through Weber. It was adopted when the thought of the Protestant ethic was generalized to apply to the Japanese people, Jews, and other non-Christians and therefore lost its religious connotations.

the religion of china: confucianism and taoism

The Religion of China: Confucianism and Taoism was Weber's second major work on the sociology of religion. Weber focused on those characteristics of Chinese society that were dissimilar from those of Western Europe, especially those characteristics which contrasted with Puritanism. His work also questioned why capitalism did not develop in China. He focused on the issues of Chinese urban development, Chinese patrimonialism and officialdom and Chinese religion and philosophy (primarily, Confucianism and Taoism), as the areas in which Chinese development differed mainly distinctively from the European route.

According to Weber, Confucianism and Puritanism are mutually exclusive kinds of rational thought, each attempting to prescribe a way of life based on religious dogma. Notably, they both valued self-control and restraint and did not oppose accumulation of wealth. Though, to both those qualities were just means to the final goal and here they were divided through a key variation. Confucianism's goal was "a cultured status position", while Puritanism's goal was to make individuals who are "tools of God". The intensity of belief and enthusiasm for action were unusual in Confucianism, but common in Protestantism. Actively working for wealth was unbecoming a proper Confucian. So, Weber states that it was this variation in social attitudes and mentality, shaped through the respective, dominant religions that contributed to the development of capitalism in the West and the absence of it in China.

The Religion of India: The Sociology of Hinduism and Buddhism

The Religion of India: The Sociology of Hinduism and Buddhism was Weber's third major work on the sociology of religion. In this work he deals with the structure of Indian society, with the orthodox doctrines of Hinduism and the heterodox doctrines of Buddhism, with modifications brought through the influence of popular religiosity and finally with the impact of religious beliefs on the secular ethic of Indian society. Like Confucianism in China, for Weber, Hinduism in India was a barrier for capitalism. The Indian caste system made it very hard for individuals to advance in the society beyond their caste. Activity, including economic activity, was seen as unimportant in the context of the advancement of the soul.

Weber ended his research of society and religion in India through bringing in insights from his previous work on China to discuss similarities of the Asian belief systems. He notes that the beliefs saw the meaning of life as otherworldly mystical experience. The social world is fundamentally divided flanked by the educated elite, following the guidance of a prophet or wise man and the uneducated masses whose beliefs are centered on magic. In Asia, there was no Messianic prophecy to provide *plan and meaning to the everyday life of educated and uneducated alike*. Weber juxtaposed such Messianic prophecies (also described ethical prophecies), notably from the Close to East

region to the exemplary prophecies found on the Asiatic mainland, focused more on reaching to the educated elites and enlightening them on the proper ways to live one's life, usually with little emphasis on hard work and the material world. It was those differences that prevented the countries of the Occident from following the paths of the earlier Chinese and Indian civilizations. His after that work, Ancient Judaism was an attempt to prove this theory.

Ancient Judaism

In *Ancient Judaism*, his fourth major work on the sociology of religion, Weber attempted to explain the factors which resulted in the early differences flanked by Oriental and Occidental religiosity. He contrasted the inner worldly asceticism developed through Western Christianity with mystical contemplation of the type developed in India. Weber noted that some characteristics of Christianity sought to conquer and change the world, rather than withdraw from its imperfections. This fundamental feature of Christianity (when compared to Far Eastern religions) stems originally from ancient Jewish prophecy.

Weber claimed that Judaism not only fathered Christianity and Islam, but was crucial to the rise of the modern Occidental state; Judaism's influence was as significant as Hellenistic and Roman cultures. Weber's premature death in 1920 prevented him from following his planned analysis of Psalms, the Book of Job, Talmudic Jewry, early Christianity, and Islam.

Economy and Society

In his magnum opus, *Economy and Society*, Weber distinguished three ideal kinds of religious attitudes: world-flying mysticism, world-rejecting asceticism, and inner-worldly asceticism. He defined magic as a pre-religious activity.

Theodicy of Fortune and Misfortune

The Theodicy of fortune and misfortune within sociology is the theory, as Weber suggested, of how "members of dissimilar social classes adopt dissimilar belief systems, or theodices, to explain their social situation."

The concept of theodicy was expanded mainly with the thought of Weber and his addition of ethical thoughts to the subject of religion. There is this ethical part of religion, including "(1) soteriology and (2) theodicy. These mean, respectively, how people understand themselves to be able to be in a right relationship with supernatural powers, and how to explain evil – or why bad things seem to happen to those who seem to be good people". There is a separation of dissimilar theodicies with regard to class. "Theodicies of misfortune tend to the belief that wealth and other manifestations of privilege are indications or signs of evil...In contrast, theodicies of fortune emphasize

the notion that privileges are a blessing and are deserved". Weber also writes that "the affluent embrace good fortune theodicies, which emphasize that prosperity is a blessing of God...[while] theodicies of misfortune emphasize that affluence is a sign of evil and that suffering in this world will be rewarded in the after that." Therefore these two distinctions can be applied not only to class structure within society but denomination and racial segregation within religion.

Weber defines the importance of societal class within religion through examining the variation flanked by the two theodicies and to what class structures they apply. The concept of "work ethic" is attached to the theodicy of fortune; therefore, because of the Protestant "work ethic," there was a contribution of higher class outcomes and more education amongst Protestants. Those without the work ethic clung to the theodicy of misfortune, believing wealth and happiness were granted in the afterlife. Another instance of how this belief of religious theodicy influences class, is that those of lower status, the poor, cling to deep religiousness and faith as a way to comfort themselves and give hope for a more prosperous future, whilst those of higher status cling to the sacraments or actions which prove their right of possessing greater wealth.

These two theodicies can be found in the denominational segregation within the religious community. The main division can be seen flanked by the mainline Protestant and evangelical denominations and their relation to the class into which their scrupulous theodicy pertains. For instance, mainline churches, with their upper class congregations, "promote[d] order, stability, and conservatism, and in so doing proved to be a powerful source of legitimating of the status quo and of existing disparities in the sharing of wealth and power" because much of the wealth of the church comes from the congregation. In contrast, Pentecostal churches adopted the theodicy of misfortune. They instead "advocated change planned to advance the cause of justice and fairness". Therefore the learned and upper class religious churches who preach the theodicy of fortune, ultimately support capitalism and corporation, while the churches who adopted the theodicy of misfortune, instead preached equality and fairness.

Politics and government

In political sociology, one of Weber's mainly influential contributions is his *Politics as a Vocation* essay. Therein, Weber unveils the definition of the state as that entity which possesses a releasable monopoly on the legitimate use of physical force. Weber wrote that politics is the sharing of state's power flanked by several groups, and political leaders are those who wield this power. A politician necessity not be a man of the "true Christian ethic", understood through Weber as being the ethic of the Sermon on the Mount, that is to say, the injunction to turn the other cheek. An adherent of such an ethic ought rather to be understood to be a saint, for it is only saints, according to

Weber, that can appropriately follow it. The political realm is no realm for saints; a politician ought to marry the ethic of ultimate ends and the ethic of responsibility and necessity possess both a passion for his vocation and the capability to aloofness himself from the subject of his exertions (the governed).

Weber distinguished three ideal kinds of political leadership (alternatively referred to as three kinds of domination, legitimization, or authority):

Charismatic domination (familial and religious),
traditional domination (patriarchs, patrimonialism, feudalism) and
legal domination (modern law and state, bureaucracy).

In his view, every historical relation flanked by rulers and ruled contained such elements and they can be analyzed on the basis of this tripartite distinction. He notes that the instability of charismatic authority forces it to "routines" into a more structured form of authority. In a pure kind of traditional rule, enough resistance to a ruler can lead to a "traditional revolution". The move towards a rational-legal structure of authority, utilizing a bureaucratic structure, is inevitable in the end. Therefore this theory can be sometimes viewed as part of the social evolutionism theory. This ties to his broader concept of rationalisation through suggesting the inevitability of a move in this direction.

Bureaucratic administration means fundamentally domination through knowledge.—Max Weber

Weber described several ideal kinds of public administration and government in his masterpiece *Economy and Society* (1922). His critical revise of the bureaucratization of society became one of the mainly enduring parts of his work. It was Weber who began the studies of bureaucracy and whose works led to the popularization of this term. Several characteristics of modern public administration go back to him and a classic, hierarchically organized civil service of the Continental kind is described "Weberian civil service". As the mainly efficient and rational way of organizing, bureaucratization for Weber was the key part of the rational-legal authority and furthermore, he saw it as the key procedure in the ongoing rationalisation of the Western society.

Weber listed many preconditions for the emergence of the bureaucracy: The growth in space and population being administered, the growth in complexity of the administrative tasks being accepted out and the subsistence of a monetary economy – these resulted in a need for a more efficient administrative system. Development of communication and transportation technologies made more efficient administration possible (and popularly requested) and democratization and rationalisation of culture resulted in demands that the new system treat everybody equally.

Weber's ideal bureaucracy is characterized through hierarchical organisation, through delineated lines of authority in a fixed area of activity, through action taken (and recorded) on the basis of written rules, through bureaucratic officials needing expert training, through rules being

implemented neutrally and through career advancement depending on technical qualifications judged through organisations, not through individuals.

The decisive cause for the advance of the bureaucratic organisation has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organisation.—Max Weber

While recognizing bureaucracy as the mainly efficient form of organisation and even indispensable for the modern state, Weber also saw it as a threat to individual freedoms and the ongoing bureaucratization as leading to a "polar night of icy darkness", in which rising rationalisation of human life traps individuals in the aforementioned "iron cage" of bureaucratic, rule-based, rational control. In order to counteract bureaucrats, the system needs entrepreneurs and politicians.

Social stratification

Weber also formulated a three-component theory of stratification, with Social class, Social status, and Political party as conceptually separate elements.

- Social class is based on economically determined relationship to the market (owner, renter, employee etc.).
- Status class is based on non-economical qualities like honor, prestige, and religion.
- Party class refers to affiliations in the political domain.

All three dimensions have consequences for what Weber described "life chances" (opportunities to improve one's life).

MAX WEBER AND BUREAUCRACY

The German sociologist Max Weber described several ideal-typical forms of public administration. government, and business in his 1922 work *Economy and Society*. His critical revise of the bureaucratization of society became one of the mainly enduring parts of his work. It was Weber who began the studies of bureaucracy and whose works led to the popularization of this term. Several characteristics of modern public administration go back to him, and a classic, hierarchically organized civil service of the Continental kind is described "Weberian civil service". As the mainly efficient and rational way of organizing, bureaucratization for Weber was the key part of the rational-legal authority, and furthermore, he saw it as the key procedure in the ongoing rationalization of the Western society. Although he is not necessarily a fan of bureaucracy, Weber does argue that bureaucracy constitutes the mainly efficient and (formally) rational way in which

human activity can be organized, and that therefore is indispensable to the modern world. Bureaucratic administration means fundamentally domination through knowledge— Max Weber

Weber listed many preconditions for the emergence of bureaucracy. The growth in space and population being administered, the growth in complexity of the administrative tasks being accepted out, and the subsistence of a monetary economy requiring a more efficient administrative system. Development of communication and transportation technologies create more efficient administration possible but also in popular demand, and democratization and rationalization of culture resulted in demands that the new system treats everybody equally.

Weber's ideal-typical bureaucracy is characterized through hierarchical organization, delineated lines of authority in a fixed area of activity, action taken on the basis of and recorded in written rules, bureaucratic officials need expert training, rules are implemented through neutral officials, and career advancement depends on technical qualifications judged through organization, not individuals.

While recognizing bureaucracy as the mainly efficient form of organization, and even indispensable for the modern state, Weber also saw it as a threat to individual freedoms, and the ongoing bureaucratization as leading to a "polar night of icy darkness", in which rising rationalization of human life traps individuals in a soulless "iron cage" of bureaucratic, rule-based, rational control.

KARL MARX

KARL MARX

Karl Heinrich Marx (5 May 1818 – 14 March 1883) was a German philosopher, economist, sociologist, historian, journalist, and revolutionary socialist. Marx's work in economics laid the basis for the current understanding of labour and its relation to capital, and has influenced much of subsequent economic thought. He published numerous books throughout his lifetime, the mainly notable being *The Communist Manifesto* (1848), and *Das Kapital* (1867–1894).

Born into a wealthy middle-class family in Trier in the Prussian Rhineland, Marx studied at the University of Bonn and the University of Berlin, where he became interested in the philosophical ideas of the Young Hegelians. After his studies, he wrote for a radical newspaper in Cologne, and began to work out his theory of dialectical materialism. He moved to Paris in 1843, where he began writing for other radical newspapers and met Fredrick Engels, who would become his lifelong friend and collaborator. In 1849 he was exiled and moved to London together with his wife and children where he sustained writing and formulating his theories about social and economic activity. He

also campaigned for socialism and became an important figure in the International Workingmen's Association.

Marx's theories about society, economics, and politics – collectively recognized as Marxism – hold that human society's progress through class thrash about: a disagreement flanked by an ownership class that controls production and a dispossessed laboring class that gives the labour for production. He described capitalism the "dictatorship of the bourgeoisie," believing it to be run through the wealthy classes for their own benefit; and he predicted that, like previous socioeconomic systems, capitalism produced internal tensions which would lead to its self-destruction and replacement through a new system: socialism. He argued that class antagonisms under capitalism flanked by the bourgeoisie and proletariat would eventuate in the working class' conquest of political power in the form of a dictatorship of the proletariat and eventually establish a classless society, socialism or communism, a society governed through a free association of producers. Beside with believing in the inevitability of socialism and communism, Marx actively fought for their implementation, arguing that social theorists and underprivileged people alike should carry out organized revolutionary action to topple capitalism and bring about socio-economic change.

Marx has been described as one of the mainly influential figures in human history. Revolutionary socialist governments espousing Marxist concepts took power in a diversity of countries in the 20th century, leading to the formation of such socialist states as the Soviet Union in 1922 and the People's Republic of China in 1949. Several labour unions and workers' parties worldwide are influenced through Marxism, while several theoretical variants, such as Leninism, Stalinism, Trotskyism, and Maoism, were developed from them. Marx is typically cited, with Émile Durkheim and Max Weber, as one of the three principal architects of modern social science.

THOUGHT

Influences

Marx's thought demonstrates influences from several thinkers, including but not limited to:

- Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel's philosophy;
- the classical political economy (economics) of Adam Smith and David Ricardo;
- French socialist thought, in scrupulous the thought of Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Henri de Saint-Simon, Pierre-Joseph Proudhon, and Charles Fourier;
- earlier German philosophical materialism, particularly that of Ludwig Feuerbach;
- the working class analysis through Friedrich Engels.

Marx's view of history, which came to be described historical materialism (controversially adapted as the philosophy of dialectical materialism through Engels and Lenin) certainly shows the influence of Hegel's claim that one should view reality (and history) dialectically. Though, Hegel had thought in idealist conditions, putting ideas in the forefront, whereas Marx sought to rewrite dialectics in materialist conditions, arguing for the primacy of matter over thought. Where Hegel saw the "spirit" as driving history, Marx saw this as an unnecessary mystification, obscuring the reality of humanity and its physical actions shaping the world. He wrote that Hegelianism stood the movement of reality on its head, and that one needed to set it upon its feet.

Though inspired through French socialist and sociological thought, Marx criticized utopian socialists, arguing that their favored small-scale socialistic communities would be bound to marginalization and poverty, and that only a large-scale change in the economic system can bring about real change.

The other significant contribution to Marx's revision of Hegelianism came from Engels's book, *The Condition of the Working Class in England in 1844*, which led Marx to conceive of the historical dialectic in conditions of class disagreement and to see the modern working class as the mainly progressive force for revolution.

Marx whispered that he could revise history and society scientifically and discern tendencies of history and the resulting outcome of social conflicts. Some followers of Marx concluded, so, that a communist revolution would inevitably occur. Though, Marx famously asserted in the eleventh of his *Theses on Feuerbach* that "philosophers have only interpreted the world, in several ways; the point though is to change it", and he clearly dedicated himself to trying to alter the world.

Philosophy and social thought

Marx's polemic with other thinkers often occurred through critique, and therefore he has been described "the first great user of critical method in social sciences." He criticized speculative philosophy, equating metaphysics with ideology. Through adopting this approach, Marx attempted to separate key findings from ideological biases. This set him separately from several modern philosophers.

Human nature

Like Tocqueville, who described a faceless and bureaucratic despotism with no identifiable despot, Marx also broke with classical thinkers who spoke of a single tyrant and with Montesquieu, who discussed the nature of the single despot. Instead, Marx set out to analyze "the despotism of capital". Fundamentally, Marx assumed that human history involves transforming human nature, which encompasses both human beings and material objects. Humans recognize that they possess both actual and potential selves. For both Marx and Hegel, self-development begins with an experience of internal

alienation stemming from this recognition, followed through a realization that the actual self, as a subjective agent, renders its potential counterpart an object to be apprehended. Marx further argues that, through molding nature in desired ways, the subject takes the object as its own, and therefore permits the individual to be actualized as fully human. For Marx, then, human nature – *Gattungswesen*, or species-being – exists as a function of human labour. Fundamental to Marx's thought of meaningful labour is the proposition that, in order for a subject to come to conditions with its alienated object, it necessity first exert influence upon literal, material objects in the subject's world. Marx acknowledges that Hegel "grasps the nature of *work* and comprehends objective man, authentic because actual, as the result of his *own work*", but characterizes Hegelian self-development as unduly "spiritual" and abstract. Marx therefore departs from Hegel through insisting that "the fact that man is a *corporeal*, actual, sentient, objective being with natural capacities means that he has *actual, sensuous objects* for his nature as objects of his life-expression, or that he can only *express* his life in actual sensuous objects." Consequently, Marx revises Hegelian "work" into material "labour", and in the context of human capability to transform nature the term "labour power".

Labour, class thrash about, and false consciousness

Marx had a special concern with how people relate to that mainly fundamental resource of all, their own labour power. He wrote extensively about this in conditions of the problem of alienation. As with the dialectic, Marx began with a Hegelian notion of alienation but developed a more materialist conception. Capitalism mediates social relationships of production (such as in the middle of workers or flanked by workers and capitalists) through commodities, including labour, that are bought and sold on the market. For Marx, the possibility that one may provide up ownership of one's own labour – one's capability to transform the world – is tantamount to being alienated from one's own nature; it is a spiritual loss. Marx described this loss as commodity fetishism, in which the things that people produce, commodities, appear to have a life and movement of their own to which humans and their behavior merely adapt.

Commodity fetishism gives an instance of what Engels described "false consciousness", which relates closely to the understanding of ideology. Through "ideology", Marx and Engels meant ideas that reflect the interests of a scrupulous class at a scrupulous time in history, but which contemporaries see as universal and eternal. Marx and Engels's point was not only that such beliefs are at best half-truths; they serve an significant political function. Put another way, the control that one class exercises over the means of production comprises not only the production of food or manufactured goods; it comprises the production of ideas as well (this gives one possible explanation for why members of a subordinate class may hold ideas contrary to their own interests). An instance of this sort of analysis is Marx's understanding of

religion, summed up in a passage from the preface to his 1843 *Contribution to the Critique of Hegel's Philosophy of Right*:

Religious suffering is, at one and the same time, the *expression* of real suffering and a *protest* against real suffering. Religion is the sigh of the oppressed creature, the heart of a heartless world, and the soul of soulless circumstances. It is the *opium* of the people. The abolition of religion as the illusory happiness of the people is the demand for their real happiness. To call on them to provide up their illusions about their condition is to call on them to provide up a condition that requires illusions.

Whereas his Gymnasium senior thesis argued that religion had as its primary social aim the promotion of solidarity, here Marx sees the social function of religion in conditions of highlighting/preserving political and economic status quo and inequality.

Economy, history and society

Marx's thoughts on labour were related to the primacy he gave to the economic relation in determining the society's past, present and future. Accumulation of capital shapes the social system. Social change, for Marx, was about disagreement flanked by opposing interests, driven, in the background, through economic forces. This became the inspiration for the body of works recognized as the disagreement theory. In his evolutionary model of history, he argued that human history began with free, productive and creative work that was over time coerced and dehumanized, a trend mainly apparent under capitalism. Marx noted that this was not an intentional procedure; rather, no individual or even state can go against the forces of economy.

The organisation of society depends on means of production. Literally those things, like land, natural possessions, and technology, necessary for the production of material goods and the relations of production, in other words, the social relationships people enter into as they acquire and use the means of production. Together these compose the mode of production, and Marx distinguished historical eras in conditions of separate modes of production. Marx differentiated flanked by base and superstructure, with the base (or substructure) referring to the economic system, and superstructure, to the cultural and political system. Marx regarded this mismatch flanked by (economic) base and (social) superstructure as a major source of social disruption and disagreement.

Despite Marx's stress on critique of capitalism and discussion of the new communist society that should replace it, his explicit critique of capitalism is guarded, as he saw it as an improved society compared to the past ones

(slavery and feudal). Marx also never clearly discusses issues of morality and justice, although scholars agree that his work contained implicit discussion of those concepts.

Marx's view of capitalism was two-sided. On one hand, Marx, in the 19th century's deepest critique of the dehumanizing characteristics of this system, noted that defining characteristics of capitalism contain alienation, use, and recurring, cyclical depressions leading to mass unemployment; on the other hand capitalism is also characterized through "revolutionizing, industrializing and universalizing qualities of development, growth and progressively" (through which Marx meant industrialization, urbanization, technological progress, increased productivity and growth, rationality and scientific revolution), that are responsible for progress. Marx measured the capitalist class to be one of the mainly revolutionary in history, because it constantly improved the means of production, more so than any other class in history, and was responsible for the overthrow of feudalism and its transition to capitalism. Capitalism can stimulate considerable growth because the capitalist can, and has an incentive to, reinvest profits in new technologies and capital equipment.

According to Marx capitalists take advantage of the variation flanked by the labour market and the market for whatever commodity the capitalist can produce. Marx observed that in practically every successful industry input unit-costs are lower than output unit-prices. Marx described the variation "surplus value" and argued that this surplus value had its source in surplus labour, the variation flanked by what it costs to keep workers alive and what they can produce. Marx's dual view of capitalism can be seen in his account of the capitalists: he refers to them as to vampires sucking worker's blood, but at the same time, he notes that drawing profit is "through no means an injustice" and that capitalists basically cannot go against the system. The true problem lies with the "cancerous cell" of capital, understood not as property or equipment, but the relations flanked by workers and owners – the economic system in general.

At the same time, Marx stressed that capitalism was unstable, and prone to periodic crises. He suggested that over time, capitalists would invest more and more in new technologies, and less and less in labour. Since Marx whispered that surplus value appropriated from labour is the source of profits, he concluded that the rate of profit would fall even as the economy grew. Marx whispered that increasingly severe crises would punctuate this cycle of growth, collapse, and more growth. Moreover, he whispered that in the long-term this procedure would necessarily enrich and empower the capitalist class and impoverish the proletariat. In section one of *The Communist Manifesto* Marx describes feudalism, capitalism, and the role internal social contradictions play in the historical procedure:

We see then: the means of production and of exchange, on whose foundation the bourgeoisie built itself up, were generated in feudal society. At a sure stage in the development of these means of

production and of exchange, the circumstances under which feudal society produced and exchanged... the feudal relations of property became no longer compatible with the already developed productive forces; they became so several fetters. They had to be burst asunder; they were burst asunder. Into their place stepped free competition, accompanied through a social and political constitution adapted in it, and the economic and political sway of the bourgeois class. A similar movement is going on before our own eyes... The productive forces at the disposal of society no longer tend to further the development of the circumstances of bourgeois property; on the contrary, they have become too powerful for these circumstances, through which they are fettered, and so soon as they overcome these fetters, they bring order into the whole of bourgeois society, endanger the subsistence of bourgeois property.

Marx whispered that those structural contradictions within capitalism necessitate its end, giving way to socialism, or a post-capitalistic, communist society:

The development of Modern Industry, so, cuts from under its feet the very foundation on which the bourgeoisie produces and appropriates products. What the bourgeoisie, so, produces, above all, are its own grave-diggers. Its fall and the victory of the proletariat are equally inevitable."

Thanks to several processes overseen through capitalism, such as urbanization, the working class, the proletariat, should grow in numbers and develop class consciousness, in time realizing that they have to and can change the system. Marx whispered that if the proletariat were to seize the means of production, they would encourage social relations that would benefit everyone equally, abolishing exploiting class, and introduce a system of production less vulnerable to cyclical crises. Marx argued in *The German Ideology* that capitalism will end through the organized actions of an international working class:

Communism is for us not a state of affairs which is to be recognized, an ideal to which reality will have to adjust itself. We call communism the real movement which abolishes the present state of things. The circumstances of this movement result from the premises now in subsistence."

In this new society the self-alienation would end, and humans would be free to act without being bound through the labour market. It would be a democratic society, enfranchising the whole population. In such a utopian world there would also be little if any need for a state, which goal was to enforce the alienation. He theorized that flanked by capitalism and the establishment of a socialist/communist system, a dictatorship of the proletariat – a period where the working class holds political power and forcibly

socializes the means of production – would exist. As he wrote in his "Critique of the Gotha Program", "flanked by capitalist and communist society there lies the period of the revolutionary transformation of the one into the other. Corresponding to this is also a political transition period in which the state can be nothing but the revolutionary dictatorship of the proletariat." While he allowed for the possibility of peaceful transition in some countries with strong democratic institutional structures (such as Britain, the US and the Netherlands), he suggested that in other countries with strong centralized state-oriented traditions, like France and Germany, the "lever of our revolution necessity be force."

MARX AND BUREAUCRACY

Karl Marx theorized about the role and function of bureaucracy in his *Critique of Hegel's Philosophy of Right*, published in 1843. In his *Philosophy of Right*, Hegel had supported the role of dedicated officials in the role of public administration, although he never used the term "bureaucracy" himself. Marx through contrast was opposed to the bureaucracy. He saw the development of bureaucracy in government as a natural counterpart to the development of the corporation in private society. Marx posited that while the corporation and government bureaucracy existed in seeming opposition, in actuality they mutually relied on one another to exist. He wrote that "The Corporation is civil society's attempt to become state; but the bureaucracy is the state which has really made itself into civil society."

REPRESENTATIVE BUREAUCRACY

INTRODUCTION

Issues of representation have become increasingly salient in European countries with rising attempts to find mechanisms to augment the representation of women in legislative assemblies including several kinds of quota and parity legislation, for instance in Spain and France. This paper examines the nature of the extension of the thought to bureaucracies as well as to legislative assemblies, as first proposed in the United Kingdom in the 1940s, connected then to a concern about the social origins of the senior civil service. It looks first at two arguments about this extension: should bureaucracies be regarded as places where representation can and should occur, and even if representation in bureaucracies is possible, is it desirable? Having concluded that it is both possible and desirable, the paper goes on to look at the outworking of the notion of representation within one scrupulous bureaucracy, the European Commission (EC), on the basis of the thoughts that

have been extensively applied through feminists to elected representation, but which are much less prominent in the literature on bureaucracy. The EC is of interest because three dissimilar but cross-cutting kinds of representation can be discerned, to a lesser or greater degree, within it: representation of political ideologies at the stage of the College of Commissioners, representation within the College and the Administration of the national identities and interests of the member states and of group identities and interests, especially gender identity.

THE NATURE OF REPRESENTATION

Modern liberal democracy requires systems of representation as a concomitant of the participation and implication of all adult citizens in society's decision-creation. For some theorists of democracy the key point remains, as it was in the Athenian prototype, the procedure of deliberation. Indeed direct forms of participation have from time to time been advocated, especially through women, as a solution for groups which find representative liberal democracy and its institutions, as they have evolved, to be restrictive, stifling, patriarchal and failing to deliver what disadvantaged or minority groups want and need. For others the context of modern democracy is essentially a competitive one, and that competition takes place at the stage of the electoral choice of representatives. Complex questions follow about what representation means. What do representatives actually represent, and how should they do so? Hannah Pitkin gives one of the classic definitions, suggesting that 'political representation is the activity of creation citizens' voices, opinions, and perspectives 'present' in the public policy creation processes. Political representation occurs when political actors speak, advocate, symbolize, and act on the behalf of others in the political arena'. Pitkin points out that an early, but still influential approach identifies as a representative someone who has been authorized to act on behalf of the represented. Hence representation occurs when some, but only some, of the members of any group are authorized to undertake actions on behalf of all, actions which are regarded as legitimate and binding. She goes on to say '[c]onceived in this way, all government officials, all organs of the state, anyone who performs a function for the group may seem to be its representative... Judges represent the state in this way. So do ambassadors'.

Pitkin worries that this notion does not coincide with our normal 'common sense' view of representation as occurring only in elected assemblies. So the question arises *where* can it occur? If a competitive model of democracy is accepted, then the forum for representative action will be the elected assembly where conflicts of interests are resolved through systems of majority voting. Though, if the procedure of deliberation, and, through extension, of formulation and implementation of policy is seen as more significant, then it is

clear that democratic representation can take place wherever that occurs, or action is undertaken on behalf of the state and that, essentially, is what bureaucracies do. Representation in such an arena need not be undemocratic if the deliberative model is preferred. In relation to the bureaucracy in the United States this argument was enunciated through Long in 1952 when he spoke of large 'constituencies' which are 'relatively uninfluential in Congress ...in speaking for them as self-appointed...representatives the bureaucrats fill in the deficiencies of representation in the legislature...The Civil Service as a body [is] a better sample of the mass of the people than the Congress...[and] likely to be more responsive to the desires and needs of the broad public...'. Dilemmas remain. In order to be representative what does an elected assembly or a bureaucracy need to be like? Drawing on Pitkin's work much subsequent discussion has seen a key distinction as that flanked by symbolic or descriptive representation on the one hand and substantive representation on the other. The literature on bureaucratic representation creates much the same distinction, but labels the two forms active and passive representation.

Symbolic representation occurs when a person is taken as standing for something beyond themselves. They do not need to do anything, rather to be recognized as being something. This form of representation can be significant for officials, such as ambassadors, or the French prefect, who are the symbols of the state. In 1930 when Suzy Borel became the first woman to succeed in the entrance examination for the French diplomatic corps the then foreign minister put his foot down: 'no woman could publicly represent the country' – and ingenuous grounds to justify a refusal to let her serve abroad were duly discovered. *Descriptive representation* equally assumes that what representatives *are* is crucial, but because only those who actually belong to the groups they represent can truly ensure that they have a voice. It is deemed to exist where public bodies, in their composition, broadly reflect the overall composition of society. Judith Squires calls this 'microcosmic representation': 'a group comprises the same proportion of each relevant sub-group as the population from which it is drawn'. This, it is argued, both ensures that the key interests of all members of society are represented, and creates this fact clearly visible.

Two puzzles then arise; the first is accountability. As Pitkin recognized, if the key characteristic of the representative is what they *are*, then it necessarily be assumed that what they *do* will be what any member of that group would do, and they cannot fairly be held to account for their actions as opposed to their attributes. But set against this necessity be the notion that such representation in the bureaucracy is only democratic if it is fully accountable. And it is precisely the requirement for accountability that has, *inter alia*, led public services to be placed, either formally or through convention, under heavier obligations in relation to diversity than are private sector organisations. The second issue is whether choice of personnel has to be constrained through mechanisms to ensure the attainment of descriptive representation. The selection of any one set of features as salient is likely to

exclude people with other features. What, if any, role is there for quotas and limitations upon the choice either of electors or of the appointing authority in a bureaucracy?

The concept of *substantive representation* covers representatives *acting* to further the key interests of any individual or group. But how can those interests be discerned? Elected assembly members are mainly likely to be guided through their ideology, as expressed in their party or their platform, and political orientation does have a role within the EC bureaucracy, see below. For the bureaucrat there are three possible approaches: the classic Westminster model insists firmly bureaucrats should have no opinion about what is to be done. Their role is to formulate and implement the policy that the government of the day determines. From this point of view within the bureaucracy substantive representation is improper and descriptive representation unnecessary. A second approach exists within what we may for convenience call continental systems of administration. There is a much stronger sense that over and above the ephemeral necessities of the government of the day there is a general interest, a common good, which it is the bureaucracy's role to sustain and advance. Finally, there are officials who take into the bureaucracy a pronounced orientation which will guide their actions, as was the case with the feminist administrators Eisenstein named 'democrats'. This approach also faces dilemmas. How is an arbitration flanked by conflicting views of the right action to be achieved? At what point does furthering interests become partiality?

In the light of these approaches to democratic representation I after that turn to consider the counter argument that bureaucracies are through their nature so hostile to disadvantaged groups that the possibility of representation of such groups' interests therein is remote.

IN PROTECTION OF BUREAUCRACY

A first line of attack suggesting that bureaucracies are incapable of proper deliberation and are not appropriate or even feasible sites of representation comes from those who find them rigid, unaccountable or over-mighty. Recognition of these dangers is present in Weber's statement of the ideal kind. He admitted that Bureaucratic agencies and enterprises were an inevitable and not necessarily undesirable consequence of the modern organisation of states and advanced capitalism and appeared 'in extreme contrast to the regulation of all relationships through individual privileges and bestowals of favour'. The distinguishing characteristic of the true bureaucrat is to be professionally trained and where this is lacking corruption occurs. But, uncontrolled and untrammelled, bureaucracy is liable to 'fabricate[e] the shell of bondage'. The virtue of bureaucracy, seen through Weber's eyes, is therefore that it is expert, neutral and non-arbitrary. Its danger is that it is, in the interests of technical efficiency, power-hungry, rigid and prone to imposing a confining social

order. In recognized democracies bureaucracy is readily perceived as 'nefarious for a free society' even though in transitional democratizing countries 'a modern professionalized bureaucracy is indispensable to democratic consolidation'. The paradox is apparent.

A second line of attack has come from modern managerialists who tend to regard bureaucracy as 'developed in a legalistic and authoritarian society and now inevitably withering absent because it is incompatible with complex, individualistic and dynamic societies'. Bureaucratic procedures are alleged to be cumbersome, conservative, wasteful and ineffective – 'too slow, too unresponsive and too incapable of change or innovation' cited in. The 'new public management' looks to initiative and decentralization, as opposed to hierarchy, to competition to customer satisfaction, and to accountability through output and performance rather than procedure. The, took very dissimilar shapes in dissimilar national settings but thoughts of representativeness were not entirely absent in the great wave of public management reform in the 1980s and 1990s As has been plausibly argued the nature of reform was much influenced through the cultural and political context, including 'the greater salience of race in US public management policy in the 1970s, in contrast to the reform agenda of Germany and the UK at that time.'

In another paradox, though, the concerns with the representativeness of the bureaucracy that gave rise to some characteristics of the reforms may in some places have been set back through their outcome. The new public management, with its shift towards more 'business'-like approaches, is not necessarily 'women-friendly'. Whilst there is an emphasis on competence merit and performance, that may be defined in competitive conditions which strongly evoke a masculine model. Women who reach leadership positions can and do adopt such a style. Indeed some commentators – and our interviewees in the EC– suggest that they must. 'Bureaucratic organisations require forms of compulsory behaviour...Masculinity is one [such] form required through bureaucracies ... Women who want to be organizational leaders may be handicapped from the beginning through the expectation that they prove their masculinity'.

Some feminists, from whom a third line of attack emanates, add the notion that bureaucratic institutions are intrinsically patriarchal and gendered as masculine. In scrupulous they are accused of being rational, hierarchical and discriminatory. The influential and radical theoretical work of Ferguson and Mackinnon in the 1980s argued that feminist analysis should link 'the feminist critique of male dominance to a larger set of criticisms of all power relations, including those manifested in administrative hierarchies'. More specifically, the perhaps even more influential work of Rosabeth Moss Kanter as well as that of Camilla Stivers, looked at bureaucracies as structures of power relations which privilege men, since power is something which men possess. Stivers suggests that in public administrations, 'commonsense notions...are deeply dependent on traditions which privilege men and the pursuits measured

appropriate for them'. Bureaucratic rules and systems, it may be argued, use a cloak of neutrality to disguise the male interests that they serve. Moreover, in the 'new public management' systems, with their emphasis on merit, women will need to demonstrate that they can perform just like the men.

The theoretical dilemma then becomes whether bureaucracies are so inherently gendered as masculine-dominated structures that women cannot – and perhaps would not want to – have an appropriate place within them. Are they there, as in representative assemblies, in the neat phrase adopted through Nirwal Puwar, "space invaders"?

The issues arise from two key premises. The first, stemming directly from Weber's analysis, is that the underlying principles of bureaucratic organisations contain rationality of a scrupulous type based on the exclusion of the personal, the sexual and the feminine; on abstract evaluation of troubles and solutions and 'a morality of rights and rules'. The second premise is that this is not how mainly women think or operate. '[C]ulturally feminine features do not fit the Weberian model of bureaucratic organisation'. Gilligan states that her psychological studies of women's responses to situations have shown empirically that they tend to concentrate on the morality of interdependence and issues of relationships, which bureaucratic procedures cannot handle.

In the face of these criticisms, how may bureaucracy be defended? The state, Ezra Suleiman argues, is needed as the 'main guardian of order, of security, of social harmony ...' and to be this it requires a bureaucratic tools.. Olsen suggests that 'bureaucratic rules ...contribute to democratic equality' because of their universalist nature. If the emphasis is on professionalisation, then benefits that feminists would applaud have followed. For instance, the need for trained teachers drove much of the progress in education for women over the late nineteenth and the twentieth centuries. Equally, if the development of the 'bureaucratic' welfare state resulted in the replacement of the patriarchal family through the patriarchal state at least it brought social issues into the public sphere where they are susceptible to political control.

Likewise, through the abolition of individual privilege and the lessening of scope for patronage and corruption bureaucracy may benefit women and other disadvantaged groups. Institutionalized procedures tend to result in higher stages of female employment, for instance. In Denmark 15 per cent of higher civil servants are female as compared with only 5 per cent of business leaders and this may be because public services are subject to pressures for bureaucratization and to rules requiring equal treatment. The same observation has been made of New Zealand which, like Australia and Canada, has a relatively high proportion of women in senior positions and a strong commitment to equal opportunities policies and diversity in the public services, and monitors the outcomes cautiously. In institutions where rules are less entrenched diversity may be less.

Finally, bureaucracy gives a method of resolving internal conflicts that allows for transparent, accountable and purposive decision-creation. Ferguson's radical case against bureaucracy extends crossways a wide swathe

of the organised structures of capitalist society. She argues that such structures neglect the 'common interests' of women, and might be replaced through more egalitarian, consensual structures, based on relationships not rules. But there has been rising recognition that 'such [egalitarian] organisations are often emotionally demanding and frustrating to work in, contingent upon uncertainties, ineffective management, financial difficulties and a tendency to personalise mainly issues'.. The history of the 'women's committees' in UK local authorities exemplifies much of this. Moreover feminists have come to realise that women's life experiences, and hence their material and social interests may be very varied indeed. 'Feminist and conservative women's organisations battle over whose stories about women are mainly representative'. Where there is no agreement conflicts necessity be resolved through politics: and political decisions require organised methods for their implementation.

'The need for a professional bureaucratic tools and for a strong state authority that is accountable, limited and responsible cannot be foregone'. As Ross-Smith and Kornberg argue, Weber thought that '[t]he implementation of formal bureaucratic rules and technical rationalization allows the individual freedom'. The problem, as they recognize, is that bureaucratic 'rationality is not, per se, masculine, but rather that the masculinisation of rationality that has occurred throughout history needs to be unmasked and critiqued'. It is the aims and ends – the instrumental rationality – which the bureaucracy pursues, that pose the troubles. Representation, both political and bureaucratic, gives much of the solution.

REPRESENTATIVE BUREAUCRACY IN CONTEXT: THE NATURE OF THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION

Some of the issues to which the notion of representative bureaucracy gives rise may be explored in a particularly motivating empirical setting in the EC. The setting is distinctive for many reasons. First, it occupies an ambiguous position within the political-bureaucratic spectrum. Several, though not all, of its members have previously been career politicians. Nor is the College or the administration tightly constrained through political direction or manifesto programmes. But in other respects it is the Council's agent.

Second the EC administration is small, although rising – from perhaps 5,000 staff in 1970 to some 25,000 or more in 2005. Third, it is composed of nationals of all the (now 27) members states, and is in consequence a place where very varied administrative cultures meet, and occasionally conflict. Indeed, the EC encompasses a notable amalgam of approaches. It conforms to the 'republican continental' administrative model, molded through the reflexes and instincts of the pioneers which were inevitably drawn from the systems in their home states. Continental European bureaucracies "are associated with formalism and hierarchy - the insistence that rules and procedures be

observed” entrenched within a clear statutory definition. Despite major efforts at reform under the Prodi Commission, the EC is in general regulated, rather than supervised. These patterns, formally gender neutral but often deeply masculinity, have in recent years been challenged through the rising influence of British and Scandinavian Commissioners and through movements for reform partly inspired through the new public management approaches. Whilst Scandinavian influence brings with it a strong orientation towards gender parity, new managerially, as we have seen, is not necessarily women friendly.

Fourth, the EC has very few implementation functions, since they mostly fall to national governments. So a very high proportion of the work is policy-related desk work, which helps to explain why, in 2006, very almost half of its permanent officials were graduate stage administrators.

Fifth, over the years the EU has manifested a substantial policy commitment to equal opportunities embodied in successive treaties and the pay and equal treatment directives of the mid-1970s and thereafter, as well as a series of action plans. This has resulted in EU directives outlawing discrimination on the ground not only of sex but also of race and religion and belief, disability, age, and sexual orientation.

Patterns of representation in the European Commission

The EC incorporates within it three cross-cutting patterns of representation, each deriving legitimacy from dissimilar bases, and manifesting itself in varied ways. These cross cutting structures are first, the political representation present within the College of Commissioners. There has always been a quite deliberate policy on the part of the member states to ensure that the full range of mainstream parties of national politics in Europe is represented within the College, which is consequently a “grand coalition”. Commissioners have a good deal of discretion – tempered, since the Prodi reforms, through a code of conduct – over the appointment of their secure collaborators within their *cabinets*.

Second there is the representation of national origins and interests embodied within the concept of “geographical balance”. And finally there is the representation of varied social groups, and in scrupulous disadvantaged groups such as women and members of minority ethnic communities. Much discussion of representative bureaucracy has focused on this last kind of representation, but the EC is distinctive in its explicit recognition of the other two.

These forms of representation find their justification, in several ways, in arguments similar to those advanced in relation to elected bodies. These can be characterized as symbolic, justice and utility arguments, and deliberative democracy and agency arguments.

The symbolic (legitimacy) functions of bureaucracy

The earliest proponents of representative bureaucracy were anxious to achieve improved descriptive representation within the civil service, in scrupulous in its higher ranks, of the social class composition of society, lest governments seeking to govern in the interests of the working class be set back or disadvantaged groups be alienated through the lack of the opportunities for social mobility which state service gives.

Later commentators connected the notion of representation to those of legitimacy. In the United States issues of representative bureaucracy appeared alongside the civil rights movement's arguments for affirmative action. In 1974 Krislov argued for "societal representativeness" in the public services on the grounds that the public structures of the state need "extrinsic validation". "[T]he modes of participation allowed a group [influence] its attitudes towards power and social policy". This legitimization may even be sufficiently crucial to the good order of the state to outweigh the claims of merit as the basis for recruitment. Though, he is adamant that the issue is not social origins or social class but ethnicity. His discussion of gender is brief and unsatisfactory. Essentially he is arguing against racial discrimination in the public service.

The legitimacy argument for representativeness has to deal with the republican universalist approach. The argument links to the 'continental' notion of the duty of the administration, maintains that all individuals have an overriding shared interest in the common good, places 'a determined emphasis on universal as opposed to scrupulous concerns' and rejects any advocacy of group interests. Within the EC the notion of the general interest has very often been formulated as a commitment to 'the construction of Europe'. This approach translates into the development of objective recruitment criteria on the basis of 'merit' and assumes that once recruitment is organised on the basis of performance rather than patronage, ascription or co-option, a representative and democratic administration follows. This was, for instance, the premise upon which the French reformers of the 1940s worked, and which the founders of the EC also espoused. Though, just as the universal republican citizen turns out on closer inspection to be a prosperous white man, so the meritorious bureaucrat turns out to be masculine. Nor does it transpire that 'merit' produces an appropriate balance of national origins. An approximately caricature instance of this occurred in the early 1980s. The British government complained vehemently that British candidates for EC posts were doing poorly because merit was discerned as an skill to answer detailed questions on EU law and economics in a way which disadvantaged candidates coming from the UK higher education system and a wide range of backgrounds. So the preliminary qualifying test was changed to incorporate a more general test of knowledge about 'Europe' liberally spattered with questions about football teams. Not surprisingly, the female candidates fared rather badly, and further protests ensued.

The EC has had to face the issue of descriptive representation and

legitimacy directly in relation to two specific attributes. If it is an autonomous political 'principal' then it is right that shades of political opinion should be represented. If it is essentially the 'agent' of the member states, then the College as well as the administration might better be constituted through 'technocrats'. The college is a 'grand coalition' and both kinds of person are found within it and its *cabinets*. Second, if the EC is a genuinely supranational organisation, its bureaucracy should represent only the interests of those seeking to 'construct Europe'. If it is an intergovernmental organisation, then the voices of the member states should be heard. At the time of the European Coal and Steel Community the question arose whether the administration should consist of seconded members of the member state administrations, or be independently recruited. There were fears secondment would mean the largest states would be disproportionately influential and a regulated hierarchical "career" structure was preferred, tempered through 'geographical balance' quotas.

Likewise, arguments for more proportionate representation of the sexes in both elected and bureaucratic bodies depend in part on the notion that female absence from these bodies impairs their legitimacy, and also, in failing to give visible examples of participation through women, depresses their status and aspirations. The argument is significant for bureaucracies, if perhaps less telling than for political office, which is more publicly visible. The "political" stage of the EC – the College – has slowly improved its gender balance though this is not straightforward, since the President-designate of each successive Commission has influence but not final decision in the composition of the team and each government, in nominating 'its' Commissioner, will not necessarily have the overall balance in mind. Currently eight out of 27 Commissioners are women. Compared with five out of 20 in 2000 before enlargement and reform the proportion has grown very slightly. There has never been a commissioner from a minority ethnic group.

Achieving Descriptive Representation

As we have seen, one of the dilemmas of descriptive representation is the constraints that it places on the choice of personnel. The essence of bureaucratic recruitment has, since the Nineteenth Century, been recruitment through merit. Merit, though, was often defined as conventionality to a template in the shape of a white male, as Krislov saw when he pleaded for broader and dissimilar definitions to open competitive recruitment to the US civil service to black Americans. The recruitment mechanisms for the EU administration resemble those of the public services of several member states in requiring competitive recruitment "on the basis either of qualifications, or of tests, or of qualifications and tests" but allows for two elements of flexibility within what are intended as objective tests of merit. First, whilst the competitions identify qualified candidates, they do not automatically lead to

recruitment. The Staff Regulations give in Article 30 that 'the Selection Board shall draw up a list of appropriate candidates. The appointing authority shall decide which of these candidates to appoint to the vacant posts.' The reserve list normally contains about twice as several candidates as the number of posts to be filled. In practice qualified candidates have to 'market' themselves to those parts of the administration where there are vacancies. The second element of flexibility occurs at the stage of the mainly senior appointments, which are now largely filled through mechanisms secure to those employed in the private sector.

The nature of the EC has made it possible for constraints upon this procedure to be recognized in relation to national origin, where member states have in general desired to maintain the inter-governmental element of the EC, but not in relation to sex or ethnic origin. Representation of geographical balance is acknowledged at the junior stage through the holding of competitions confined to nationals of specific member states, particularly in the context of enlargement, where nationals of the new member states are through definition not yet present in the administration, and at the mainly senior stages through the designation of specific posts for persons of scrupulous nationalities.

In relation to representativeness through sex, the recruitment procedure has not been helpful. Through the 1980s there were persistent concerns that EU recruitment might discriminate against women. Even after new guidelines for recruitment aiming at attracting more women were adopted through the Commission in 1991 both the general knowledge test and psychometric test had subsequently to be abandoned. Despite these endeavors, the success rate for women is still slightly below that of men although the figure for 2006 for successful candidates for policy posts represents a substantial augment on 2005 when the comparable proportion was 20.1 It remains to be seen whether this will be a lasting trend.

Descriptive representation throughout a bureaucracy may also require constraints upon the career progression procedure. The EC deals with the geographical balance issue at senior stage through informal quotas. From the beginning a 'gentleman's agreement' existed to divide posts flanked by the original six Member States on the basis of proportions contributed to the Community budget. A similar approach was adopted for 2004, where a communication approved through the College of Commissioners explicitly recognized that 'representation of the new Member States in the Commission's staff necessity be fair and balanced, i.e. reflecting their relative weight in the enlarged Union'. Ensuring this required a time-limited waiver, approved through the Council of Ministers, of Article 27 paragraph 3 of the Staff Regulation, which forbids the reservation of any posts for nationals of a specific country

As with elected office, the representation of women in the EC depends upon eligibility, aspiration, and success in the recruitment procedure. For EC

recruitment the eligibility pool is likely to be broadly equal flanked by men and women, given equal stages of higher educational attainment, and the proportions of candidacies at this stage reflect this. For appointment to senior stage posts the female eligibility pool is smaller, because of the historic imbalances within the EC services. Aspiration may not differ greatly: the 2006-7 survey found that women wished to proceed to more senior posts as much as men did. This finding differs from some of those related to elective office, where aspiration has been found to be lower for women than men. Once a candidacy had gone forward success rates for women and men were broadly equal. What did differ for both elective office and for bureaucratic positions within the EC was willingness to translate aspiration into action

A survey of its female staff undertaken through the EC in 2007 survey found clear proof of unwillingness on the part of women to apply for promotion to the management posts that provide access to the very highest stages. "Women at all stages are very negative about their chances of rising rapidly to higher ranks in the Commission's hierarchy and they 'consider' it is because of cultural resistance on the Commission's part to female managers." The survey was not in a position to verify how well-founded this perception is, but it did discover that a high percentage of women had experienced gender-related obstacles at some point in their career, principally related either to gender stereotyping or to the difficulties of work/life balance. Measures have been taken since the introduction of the reformed staff regulation in 2004 to combat some of these troubles. But several women were not aware of what had actually been implemented, and there had been insufficient progress to counter the negative perceptions. Interviews in November 2005 also supported this usually negative view and the obstacles to progression through women are discussed elsewhere.

As some women in the Commission have observed there is a striking contrast flanked by the willingness to tackle descriptive representation of national origin and the refusal of any quota for women, on the grounds of the "universalist" gender-blind merit-based nature of the regulated system of personnel management.

The utility function of representation

Both for elected office and for bureaucracies one of the key arguments for descriptive representativeness is the utility argument: that better use of the accessible pool of talent within society will result from more balanced representation. In relation to elected office some political parties have attempted to follow through this argument through creating tighter definitions of the competencies required for selection as a party candidate. This is a version of the merit principle long used through bureaucracies and indeed competency frameworks are now widely developed in European civil services and are slowly emerging in the EC. Though, the proportions of women

decrease at each stage of the EC recruitment procedure especially in those recruitment competitions where specific technical competences are required. Attempts through the European Personnel Selection Office to counter this may in part account for the rising trend for female success observed in 2006. There is a code of conduct for the treatment of persons with disabilities, which refers specifically to the provision of extra time in competitions, but no equivalent policy document or code in relation to persons from minority ethnic groups.

As Table I designates and for reasons discussed above and elsewhere, the stages of female representation fall absent sharply at the mainly senior stages. In the current state of affairs the EC is failing to create full use of the talent and capabilities accessible to it.

Substantive representation

The deliberative democracy functions of representation.

It has long been argued through proponents of balanced representation that the attendance of representatives of several groups is desirable within democratic institutions because it will improve the quality of deliberation. Therefore the Commission's 'aims to maintain a broad geographical balance in order to ensure a fair spread of all the nationalities of the EU within the staff at all grades and in all departments of the Institution, thereby guaranteeing the cultural wealth and cohesion of the European civil service' are justified through the argument that it is essential, if the Commission is to avoid aloofness and alienation from the EU's citizens, that there should be persons on the staff who can act as 'interpreters' flanked by the EU and the polity and society where their roots and early experiences lie. As one of her interviewees explained to Liesbet Hooghe, officials 'who do not know their own country ... are less valuable to this institution. ... they are there to reflect their national cultures and values'. Similar reasoning underlies the secondment schemes which result in the attendance of so several detached national experts within the Commission's services. Equally the right of Commissioners to create temporary appointments to their private office is used to ensure that the national interests of his or her country of origin are represented and protected, as well as in some cases to support the Commissioner's political orientation, even if this is only one function of the cabinet and not necessarily the prime one.

Some of the 'deliberation' arguments for proportionate representation through women likewise insist that women in general possess distinctive and valuable qualities in communication, interpersonal relationships and negotiation and disagreement resolution. One related approach to women as leaders has been characterized as the "women do lead differently" approach. The consequent tendency to assign women to "soft" management roles – personnel for instance – is a cause of complaint amongst senior EC women

On the other hand a number of studies have suggested that variations

amongst men and amongst women may be as great as those flanked by them. For instance women who become leaders may, to a greater extent than those who do not, exhibit behaviours that are also notable amongst men who are leaders. Some interviewees in the Commission implied that senior women in the Commission were not like other women. Finally a third approach is to dismiss the debate as irrelevant. What matters is effectiveness, not style. This approach is borne out through the results of the 'engendering elites' revise, where there was found to be no statistical variation flanked by men and women leaders in their perceptions of the extent to which they were able actually to exercise power. This is a variant of the universalist approach to substantive representation, whether it is argued that it what is done, not through whom, that matters.

Substantive representation and agency

The agency argument for substantive representation has mainly commonly been echoed through recent research, especially relating to the USA This is the point at which theories of representative bureaucracy run headlong into theories about democracy in ways that are seldom acknowledged within the literature. If active or substantive representation means advocating or favoring the interests of a scrupulous group it is, in an elected assembly, subject always to the control of the requirement for a majority vote. In a bureaucracy hierarchical control may not give the same stage of check and balance, even where 'vigorous disciplinary measures may be invoked to prevent such partiality' and 'active representation may be expressly forbidden and incumbents encouraged to 'lean over backwards' to avoid' it. In fact mainly studies of representative bureaucracy have concentrated on its capability to improve the position of groups regarded as historically disadvantaged. If the group with which the official identifies has historically been discriminated against then actions which, set against precedent, may look like substantive representation may be no more than fair and proper application of the bureaucratic rules and procedures. Otherwise the use of discretion rapidly becomes arbitrary favoritism or unjustifiable bias.

Consideration of the EC bears out Lim's plea for a wider conceptualization of representation. He distinguishes flanked by direct and indirect representation. Direct representation becomes possible if the bureaucrats have a measure of discretion especially in the provision of possessions or services in areas which are salient to the group concerned. But it all too readily becomes partiality. Despite its minimal implementation functions the EC is not immune from national partiality spilling over into corruption, as some notorious cases have revealed.

More significant is the characteristic of active representation that Lim characterizes as indirect, through 'shared values and beliefs and empathic understanding' and regards as more reliable and acceptable than partiality. For instance the growths leading to the major equal treatment directives of the

1970s involved “policy-entrepreneur” advocacy through officials within the Commission, some of them women, for instance Jacqueline Nonon, head of the Women’s bureau in the Social Affairs Directorate General, in alliance with external groups. Though all too often policy advances – such as the efforts in the research directorate to develop a strong policy for women in science and technology – have been overly dependent on one individual who is likely to move onward and upward. Here, as in assemblies, it may be that critical mass does matter.

And it may matter all the more with the development of mainstreaming as a mantra for policy-creation on women’s issues. While this notion, adopted as a principle through the EC since the late 1990s, ought to mean that the interests of women are at the forefront of policy creation in all areas, in practice consideration of the gender impact of policies tends to be relegated to tick boxes or so diluted as to be negligible. For instance, in one case where they judge mainstreaming policy to have made disappointing progress Pollack and Hafner-Burton identify ‘the overwhelming dominance of male officials at the highest stages of the EU development bureaucracy’ as one of the specific obstacles.

Critical mass also helps to explain why active representation of national interests within the policy-creation processes is regularly encountered operating through mechanisms of networks, empathy and shared values. ‘The Union’s bureaucratic system is shot-through with national officials and influences. There is for instance an Italian ‘mafia’ and a quite effective Spanish network. ...throughout the 1989-92 CAP negotiations French [national] officials were favoured through the attendance of several of their compatriots in ...DG Agriculture’.

ISSUES IN BUREAUCRACY

GENERALISTS AND SPECIALISTS

In modern times the functions of Public Administration are becoming varied and complex due to its new responsibilities as the executive organ of welfare state. In modern times, particularly after the First World War, the 'state has undertaken numerous functions like relief to the unemployed; conduct of vital industries like steel, machine structure, mining, nuclear energy, air transport, care of the persons suffering from deadly diseases like ' cancer, etc. To look after these and other diverse functions specialists are appointed in rising numbers in public Administration at several stages. The administrators, particularly at higher stages, are classified as generalists and specialists. Specialists are those who have specialized in conditions of their education and

experience in administration in specific subjects or disciplines of revise. Engineers, medical doctors, statisticians, scientists, chemical technologists, computer programmers are some of the examples of specialists.

Generalists are not specialized in the course of their education and/or further training. An entrant to the civil service might have graduated in literature or history. Through virtue of his graduation he is not specialized to be posted in 'a scrupulous department or job dealing with a specific subject of Public Administration like agriculture, health, social welfare. He might have graduated in Chemistry or Biology, but in his administrative career i t is likely that he does not perform duties in a department or a job concerned with a sector of Public Administration mentioned above. Though, if he is offered an administrative career involving supervision, control or direction per se and not linked in content with administration of a science subject of his specialization, he would be a generalist. A district collector through his education might be a scientist, engineer or historian, linguist or social scientist. His duties are generalist in nature covering functions such as collection of land revenue, maintenance of law and order, etc.

In any administrative institution as we go higher and higher in the stage of responsibility, functions become more and more generalist in nature. Even in technical departments, the heads of the department are engaged in the generalist functions of policy-creation, control of the administrative machinery, direction, supervision and control of the employees, coordination within and outside the organisation in his charge, and public relations. No doubt these functions have substantial content of the subject matter of the respective departments. The issue of generalists vis-à-vis specialists has come up in recent times for discussion and debate' on account of the organisation and responsibilities of their cadres or classes in public or civil services. In the first place, they are organised in separate hierarchies i.e., groups having supervisor-subordinate relations flanked by several stages. Secondly, the tasks of policy-creation, control of administrative machinery and management at highest stages are assigned largely to the generalists in preference to the specialists, barring few exceptions. Thirdly, generalists are moved from one department to another, one kind of job to another, a department to a public enterprise or a local government and 'back, without hindrance or obstacle. The specialists, on the other hand, are transferred or promoted within their respective departments. Posts of secretaries to government departments and even of heads of mainly executive departments are reserved for the generalists. This privileged position exercised through the generalists has a tendency to offend the self image of the specialists, and in consequence, their morale and confidence.

The thought of the generalist civil service was based on three components: one, the entrants to the civil service could occupy any post at higher stages of

any of the executive (field) departments and the secretariat of the government headquarters with distinction without in-service training. Two, they would advise the government in policy-creation, formulating decisions —the basis of government's executive orders—operating the administrative machinery, and putting the executive orders into effect. Three, the actual expert, technical advice in subjects like agriculture, health and medicine, forestry and so on, would be given through the subject matter technical officers and scientists (the agricultural scientists, doctors, forest officers, engineers, etc.) in the functional departments (agriculture, health and medicine, etc.). Such expert technical advice could be grasped and absorbed into policy creation and decision-creation processes through the generalist civil servants. Unlike in other countries Such as France, in Britain and India the Secretariat departments in at the government headquarters are headed through the generalist secretaries which are separate from the executive departments like industry, transport; home, agriculture, health and medicine, education, industries, cooperatives, mostly headed through technical officers (but in few cases through the generalists).

Relations flanked by Generalists and Specialists

The issues relating to the relationship flanked by the generalists and the specialists need to be dealt with in slightly greater detail. Two arguments are advanced with regard to the generalists being elevated to highest positions of the administration, significant from the points of view of rendering advice in policy-creation through the ministers and direct control of the executive machinery. Firstly the liberal education enables the graduates who are selected on merit through an independent and impartial Public Service Commission, to have broad outlook, intelligent mind and flexibility of approach in regard to administrative troubles and issues irrespective of their subject matter content. The second ground relates to the mobility of the generalist entrants in the civil service. As they move from one department to another and from one position to another, their skill to adjust to and assimilate dissimilar experiences-functional, public and political-increases and their qualification to hold higher positions in any department and post is strengthened.

Arguments in favour of the generalists are put in several statements, but they are essentially based on one or the other of the above grounds. The generalists perform the role of a mediator, a referee flanked by the expert and the politician, the people and the government, the pressure groups and the public interest represented through the parliament and the executive, with conflicting points of view. The generalists are secure to the "Minister's mind". They act as an antidote to the rule through the technocrats ("the technocracy"). The two roles of the technocrat who has a function or an characteristic to plead for, and the generalist who is a mediator, coordinator and integrator can never

be fused into one administration or a single hierarchy. The specialists are also not sufficiently cost-conscious, they identify too closely with the clientele of their own department.

The specialist's case for being placed on an equal footing with the generalist in the matter of appointment to highest positions in administration is advanced on the grounds of default of the generalists who have occupied highest positions in dissimilar departments and of the special merit of the specialists for occupying highest positions in their own functional specialties.

Throughout the nineteenth century the specialized knowledge required in Public Administration was not clear: The generalist discharged the role of a night-watchman over the limited functions of law and order of the state of the nineteenth century. The generalists, due to the absence of the necessary education or post-service entry training, have not developed the essential professionalism, nor the adequate knowledge in depth in any one characteristic of department's work and "regularly not even in the general area of activity. These deficiencies have led to improper policy-creation and has prevented a fundamental evaluation of the policies framed through them. The result is also visible in the ineffective methods adopted to execute policies. The generalists have not acquired the necessary knowledge for changing policies or charting altogether new policies. The generalists are engaged mostly in planning and are absent from execution. This results in unrealistic policy decisions. Staff and line functions can be segregated in Britain, but not so much in India.

Generalists have not received post-entry training to create them appropriate for specific functional or positional responsibilities. Generalists "misunderstand (technical) advice or do not obtain it at all". The generalists cannot undertake forward planning firstly because they are not equipped with necessary knowledge of the growths in scrupulous subjects like engineering, agriculture, education, health, medicine, forestry, industry, etc., and secondly they move from one department to another and at times even out of a department to a public enterprise or to a semi-government' institution like university.

It is actively canvassed on behalf of the specialists that, on the one hand the generalists become better qualified to hold higher positions in administration in dissimilar departments at all stages because they themselves have fashioned the system in their own favour, and on the other the specialists in spite of they being better equipped are deprived from occupying high, nay highest, positions like secretary ship in their own departments.

Scientific training inculcates an objective spirit in the specialists which lessens the alleged functional bias with them. The generalists are neither totally free from (personal) bias in the course of the administration. Likewise,

the criticisms of the specialists not being cost-conscious and identifying too closely with the clientele of own department, may be shared through the generalists. Education per se has nothing to do with the administrative skill. A case for broadening the technical and professional courses can be made independently. Such broadening would stand in better stead in the service career of the candidates at the civil services competitive examination qualified in these courses. The dual hierarchical structures, comprising the generalists and the specialists respectively, not only mar administrative efficiency but also breed discontent in the middle of the specialists. The gains from the abolition of these dual structures would be several. Frustration in the middle of the specialists would be avoided. This would result in easier and more effective communication flanked by the two groups-the generalists and the specialists. Better expert advice would come forth from the specialists., Administrative work handled through them would be simplified and speeded up and wastage would be avoided.

The intelligent amateur' theory prevalent in Britain throughout the nineteenth century does not seem to be applicable to the recent times, particularly after the Second World War. Beyond drafting, more knowledge and other skills would be described for in the civil servant. A welfare state came into subsistence in Britain after the Second World War, and in free India, a democratic socialist state based on the concept of planned development is in the procedure of realization. The functions and responsibilities of the administrator have not merely increased but also grown in complexity. Progress of science and technology has affected the content as well as methods of Public Administration. The introduction of the computer has changed the nature of administration in respect of not only information storage, retrieval and communication, but also the nature and pace of decision-creation and the relations flanked by the citizens and the administration. The individual state is no longer isolated but is a part of wider network of the international community. The selection procedure of the generalists in Britain was biased in favour of the graduates of Oxford and Cambridge Universities doing injustice to those of other universities.

Career planning is necessary both for the generalists and the specialists in the interest of the development of both and the greater efficiency and effectiveness of the public administrative system. Both have to be trained in the managerial functions and the managerial techniques such as qualitative methods and economic analysis and common body of knowledge needs to be taught to both in the course of the post-entry training. Communication and cooperation flanked by these two components of Public Administration have to be encouraged and built within the administrative system and in the interstices of the network of administrative relations.

Experience in U.K. and India

Dissimilar countries have approached the problem differently keeping in view the administrative and political environment within which they operate. In the context of the rising public criticism, of the inadequacies of the civil service structure in Britain dominated through the generalists at the top, the British government appointed in 1966 an inquiry committee chaired through Lord Fulton. The Fulton Committee proposed that the scientists, engineers, economists, etc, with requisite competence should be absorbed in a senior management group, from which higher positions in the administration should be filled in.

In India the generalist and specialist controversy was dealt with through the Administrative Reforms Commission's revise team on Personnel Administration. It recommended eight professional groups viz.,

- Personnel and Manpower;
- Economic Administration (including planning);
- Financial Administration;
- Agricultural Administration;
- Industrial Administration;
- Social and Educational Administration;
- Internal Security and Defense; and
- General Administration.

These groups would form the basis for the selection from the dissimilar services of the personnel for (cases) 'consideration' as well as 'policy formulation' stages. The implication of the eight-fold classification drawn up through the Administrative Reforms Commission's revise team on Personnel Administration was spelled out through the Administrative Reforms Commission. It was that the Indian Administrative Services shall no more be a generalist but shall have purely functional role of Revenue Administration, The Administrative: Reforms Commission was right in asserting that the constituents of these new professionalized groups would be contributed through dissimilar services including the Indian Administrative Services; and the specialist services. This professionalism could be developed only through appropriate schemes of recruitment, training and career planning. Likewise other countries like France, West Germany, Sweden, U.S.A., etc., which have distinctive political systems, social circumstances and civil service systems of their own have formulated mechanisms to deal with this problem.

ANONYMITY

The rule or norm of anonymity of the civil service is the counterpart or the other side of the coin of ministerial responsibility. The principle of communal responsibility in the United Kingdom ensures the responsibility and

accountability of the executive that is cabinet to the parliament, to be precise to the House of Commons. The minister's individual responsibility creates sure that for every act or wrong act or oversight in his department a minister has to answer to the parliament. The rule of anonymity requires that for the official's actions or inactions their minister alone has to answer before parliament.

The official concerned, who cannot defend himself in parliament, is therefore protected from criticism of parliament. This does not mean that the official guilty of criminal acts or excesses under law or abuse of authority and power for personal ends cannot be held guilty under the law. The following are dissimilar situations calling for dissimilar actions through the minister in relation to the official:

Administer is to protect a civil servant who has executed his definite order.

A minister has to support a civil servant who has acted correctly in keeping with the policy of the minister.

The minister accepts the responsibility for an action or delay of the official when the issue is not an significant matter of policy and in which individual rights are not involved. The minister in these situations offers to take corrective action in his department.

A civil servant's action is disapproved through the minister who does not know about it, the action being worthy of blame. The minister in such case does not support the wrong action of the official or defend the official's error. The minister in this case is responsible to parliament for the wrong action of the official. The minister, though, retains his power to control and discipline his civil servants.

The above situations explain the principle of ministerial responsibility or the norm of anonymity of the civil servant. The ministers are not in a position to excuse the failure of their policies through pointing to experts or civil servants who have given the advice or to the officials they have employed. The principle of anonymity is to be distinguished from the rule of neutrality and that of impersonality. The rule of neutrality expects the civil servant to be politically neutral. He has to provide loyalty to the minister irrespective of the political party to which his government belongs. The doctrine of impersonality expects the civil servant to follow the prescribed laws, rules and regulations irrespective of his own person in case he has taken up the charge of his scrupulous post from another civil servant or irrespective of the person to whom the case pertains.

The rule of anonymity operates in the case of legal and proper acts of the civil servants. They are not required to come out in public or face parliament in case of such acts; it is the minister who then faces the people of the parliament. For illegal personal acts both the civil servants and the ministers can be held guilty. The civil servants in Britain are often given the simile of the fountains in the Trafalgar Square (London) who are silent observers of the political events in the cabinet and the parliament whose sites are located nearby. Similar norms are applicable to the relationship in India flanked by the ministers and the civil servants. The Indian Constitution does not spell out the conditions and circumstances of this relationship, this is left to the conventions to be evolved since the inauguration of the Constitution. The Indian Constitution gives security of tenure to the service of the members of the Indian Administrative Service, other All- India and Central and State Civil Services and those holding civil posts under the union or a state, except for reasons of criminal charge, reasonable practicability or security of the state (Article 311). The relevant rules issued through the executive describe the conditions 'civil servant' and 'civil post' in conditions of the master-servant relationship marked through the method of employment and the mode of removal from service. The normal relationship flanked by the minister and a civil servant is based on mutual satisfaction of obligations to each other. Civil

servants are to render advice to the minister in respect of policies, plans and programmes as well as laws and rules to put these into action, on the basis of their expertise. They are not to act in these respects to suit their advice to the personal or partisan ends of the minister. Once the advice is given, the civil servant's function in this behalf is over, He has then to implement the policies and programmes and the laws and rules as framed through the executive whether his advice has been accepted through it or not. The minister in turn is not expected to interfere in the execution of the government's policies, plans, programmes, laws and rules. The All India Services (Conduct) Rules, 1968 prescribe that the civil servants have to avoid occasions of self-publicity, entertainment, association with a political party or its activities, etc., so that their anonymity is preserved.

COMMITMENT

The term committed bureaucracy' appears in public and political debate from time to time. To the extent the debate designates a stir in thinking in the middle of the vocal, articulate world of politicians and the intelligentsia, it is a healthy sign of an alive public opinion ready to rise to the occasion, when sure new programmes of development and a new social and economic order have faltered in execution and need to be given a big push.

What does 'commitment' mean? It means engagement on the part of a human being that restricts his freedom of action. If I, for instance, engage to be honest, then such an engagement would restrict my freedom to be dishonest, 'Commitment' when so defined might appear as an individual phenomenon. Though, commitment on the part of an individual is a product of the value system of a given society in time and place. Of course, no society is so uniform and so homogeneous as to be informed and motivated through a single and unique value system. But there is always a dominant value system. Some sections of a society might wish to conform or agree with it; others might revolt against it.

Another fact about the value system and the commitment related to it might be noted. At no stage of the development of human society from the mainly simple and primitive to the mainly complex, would one find its members free from the constraint of a value system and its concomitant commitments whether accepted because of social compulsions or because of attainment of higher consciousness of rights, obligations, prohibitions and inhibitions. While commitment is therefore inextricably bound up with the value system in a society, the origin of a value system itself and changes within it are intimately linked with the socio-economic and political structure of that society.

The question is whether civil services ought to be committed or not? The answer to the question is that the civil services are in fact committed. They are committed, first of all, to themselves and their nuclear family. It is the nature of their commitment which requires examination both in its origins and in its development. These concepts need to be examined in a larger perspective of the provisions of the Constitution, the framework of the political system contained in the Constitution, and the long term effects on the morale and efficiency of the elements involved, in this case the civil servants and the judges. We are here concerned with 'committed bureaucracy'.

The Indian Constitution embodies the values of democracy, secularism and socialism which are to be realized keeping intact the fabric of national integrity. The ideals of liberty, equality and brotherhood have also to be given actual shape in the lives of the people. The Preamble, the Directive Principles of State Policy and the Fundamental Rights, in the Constitution, have to be kept in view in understanding the meaning, connotation of the term 'committed bureaucracy'. Moreover, the frame of parliamentary democracy and the federal structure of the country give the mechanism in which the concept is to be realized.

'Committed bureaucracy', obviously, is not a bureaucracy loyal to a scrupulous political party. The Constitution envisages free and fair periodic elections to the Lok Sabha and the State Legislative Assemblies. At the union and in the states under the democratic regime since the creation of the constitution dissimilar political parties have come to power in the past three and half decades. The federal structure laid down through the Constitution gives for a contingency of political parties of dissimilar colors with dissimilar political ideologies and programmes coming to power at union and in states. In dissimilar states, dissimilar political parties-national and local or their coalitions, may be installed in power. The bureaucracy has so to serve under varying political parties' regime. Their loyalty cannot be to a specific political party.

'Committed bureaucracy' also would not connote civil servants owing loyalty to scrupulous individual political person or leader. The frame of parliamentary democracy prescribed through the Constitution involves the possibility of election of dissimilar persons as Prime Minister at the centre and as Chief Ministers throughout a term of the Lok Sabha and State Legislative Assemblies and also from one term to another. 'Committed bureaucracy' so would not imply its loyalty to scrupulous persons, but to whosoever is elected as the leader of Lok Sabha or Vidan Sabha. The civil servants have to provide advice to ministers as secretaries in creation policies, and execute these policies in the field. Sir Warren Fisher, a noted civil servant in Britain, delineated the minister civil service relationship, in the following words.

"Determination of policy is the fiction of ministers and once a policy is determined it is the unquestioned and unquestionable business of the civil servant to strive to carry out that policy with precisely the same energy and precisely the same good will whether he agrees with it or not. That is axiomatic and will never be in dispute. At the same time it is the traditional duty of civil servants while decision' are being formulated to create accessible to their political chief all the information and experience at their disposal, and to do this without fear or favour, irrespective of whether the advice therefore tendered may accord or not with the minister's initial view. The preservation of integrity, fearlessness, and the independence of thought and utterance in their private commission with ministers or the experienced, officials, selected to fill the top posts in the service is an essential principle in enlightened government".

'Committed bureaucracy' would so connote bureaucracy committed to the objectives, ideals, institutions and modalities contained in the constitution; the policies and programmes of the government; and the laws, regulations and rules issued through the executive. The civil servants have to carry out the development and anti-poverty programmes in right earnest; if they fall short in this they would be better shifted to regulatory departments to which they may be attuned.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Describe dissimilar meanings with which bureaucracy is being used.
What is the variation flanked by traditional and charismatic domination?
Explain the features of bureaucracy recognized through Karl Marx.
Explain the grounds advanced in favour of Representative Bureaucracy.
Why the modern state is described 'administrative state'?

CHAPTER 4

CONCEPTS OF ORGANIZATION-I

STRUCTURE

Learning objectives
Formal and informal organization
Hierarchy
Span of control

Unity of command
Centralization and decentralization
Review question

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
Comprehend the meaning of organization.
Explain the meaning of the concept of hierarchy.
Explain the meaning and importance of the concept of span of control.
Understand the unity of command.
Explain the concepts of centralization and decentralization and the relationship flanked by the two.

FORMAL AND INFORMAL ORGANIZATION

FORMAL ORGANIZATION

Formal organization is a fixed set of rules of infra-organization procedures and structures. As such, it is usually set out in writing, with a language of rules that ostensibly leave little discretion for interpretation. In some societies and in some organizations, such rules may be strictly followed; in others, they may be little more than an empty formalism.

To facilitate the accomplishment of the goals of the organization: In a formal organization, the work is delegated to each individual of the organization. He/She works towards the attainment of definite goals, which are in compliance with the goals of the organization.

To facilitate the co-ordination of several activities: The authority, responsibility, and accountability of individuals in the organization is very well defined. Hence, facilitating the co-ordination of several activities of the organization very effectively.

To aid the establishment of logical authority relationship: The responsibilities of the individuals in the organization are well defined. They have a definite place in the organization due to a well defined hierarchical structure which is inherent in any formal organization.

Permit the application of the concept of specialization and division of Labour. Division of work amongst individuals according to their capabilities helps in greater specializations and division of work.

Make more group cohesiveness.

Features of a formal organization

Well defined rules and regulation
Arbitrary structure

- Determined objectives and policies
- Status symbol
- Limitation on the activities of the individual
- Strict observance of the principle of co-ordination
- Messages are communicated through scalar chain

Distinction from informal organization

Formal rules are often adapted to subjective interests — social structures within an enterprise and the personal goals, desires, sympathies and behaviors of the individual workers — so that the practical everyday life of an organization becomes *informal*. Practical experience shows no organization is ever totally rule-bound: instead, all real organizations represent some mix of formal and informal. Consequently, when attempting to legislate for an organization and to make a formal structure, it is necessary to recognize informal organization in order to make workable structures. Though, informal organization can fail, or, if already set in order, can work against mismanagement.

Formal organizations are typically understood to be systems of coordinated and controlled activities that arise when work is embedded in complex networks of technical relations and boundary-spanning exchanges. But in modern societies, formal organizational structures arise in highly institutional contexts. Organizations are driven to incorporate the practices and procedures defined through prevailing rationalized concepts of organizational work and institutionalized in society. Organizations that do so augment their legitimacy and their survival prospects, independent of the immediate efficacy of the acquired practices and procedures. There can develop a tension flanked by on the one hand, the institutionalized products, services, techniques, policies, and programs that function as myths (and may be ceremonially adopted), and efficiency criteria on the other hand. To maintain ceremonial conventionality, organizations that reflect institutional rules tend to buffer their formal structures from the uncertainties of the technical activities through developing a loose coupling flanked by their formal structures and actual work activities.

The Hawthorne Experiments

The deviation from rule creation on a higher stage was documented for the first time in the Hawthorne studies (1924-1932) and described *informal organization*. At first this discovery was ignored and dismissed as the product of avoidable errors, until it finally had to be recognized that these unwritten laws of work of everyday life often had more influence on the fate of the enterprise than those conceived on organizational charts of the executive stage. Numerous empirical studies in sociological organization research followed, ever more clearly proving this, particularly throughout the Human Relations Movement. It is significant to analyze informal structures within an

enterprise to create use of positive innovations, but also to be able to do absent with bad habits that have developed over time.

Reasons for informal organization

There are several dissimilar reasons for informal organization:

Informal standards: personal goals and interests of workers differ from official organizational goals.

Informal communication: changes of communication routes within an enterprise due to personal relations flanked by coworkers.

Informal group: sure groups of coworkers have the same interests, or (for instance) the same origin.

Informal leaders: due to charisma and general popularity, sure members of the organization win more influence than originally planned.

Dissimilar interests and preferences of coworkers.

Dissimilar status of coworkers.

Hard work necessities.

Unpleasant circumstances of work.

Managerial organization theory often still regards informal organization as rather disturbing, but sometimes helpful. In the opinion of systems theory and cybernetics, though, formal organization fades into the background and only serves, if necessary, to supplement or to correct. Changes in structure always redevelop because of the conduct and differences in the middle of coworkers, and the skill of self-organization is recognized as a natural feature of a social system.

INFORMAL ORGANIZATION

The informal organization is the interlocking social structure that governs how people work together in practice. It is the aggregate of, norms, personal and professional connections through which work gets done and relationships are built in the middle of people who share a common organizational affiliation or cluster of affiliations. It consists of a dynamic set of personal relationships, social networks, communities of common interest, and emotional sources of motivation. The informal organization evolves, and the complex social dynamics of its members. Tended effectively, the informal organization complements the more explicit structures, plans, and processes of the formal organization: it can accelerate and enhance responses to unanticipated events, foster innovation, enable people to solve troubles that require collaboration crossways boundaries, and make footpaths showing where the formal organization may someday need to pave a way.

The informal organization and the formal organization

The nature of the informal organization becomes more separate when its key features are juxtaposed with those of the formal organization.

Key features of the informal organization:

Evolving constantly

Grass roots

Dynamic and responsive

Excellent at motivation

Requires insider knowledge to be seen

Treats people as individuals like

flat and fluid

Cohered through trust and reciprocity

Hard to pin down

Communal decision creation

Essential for situations that change quickly or are not yet fully understood

Key features of the formal organization:

Enduring, unless deliberately altered

Top-down

Missionary

Static

Excellent at alignment

Plain to see

Equates “person” with “role”

Hierarchical

Bound together through codified rules and order

Easily understood and explained

Critical for dealing with situations that are recognized and constant

Historically, some have regarded the informal organization as the byproduct of insufficient formal organization—arguing, for instance, that “it can hardly be questioned that the ideal situation in the business organization would be one where no informal organization existed.” Though, the modern approach—one suggested as early as 1925 through Mary Parker Follett, the pioneer of community centers and author of influential works on management philosophy—is to integrate the informal organization and the formal organization, recognizing the strengths and limitations of each. Integration, as Follett defined it, means breaking down apparent sources of disagreement into their vital elements and then structure new solutions that neither allow domination nor require compromise. In other words, integrating the informal organization with the formal organization replaces competition with coherence.

At a societal stage, the importance of the relationship flanked by formal and informal structures can be seen in the relationship flanked by civil society and state authority. The power of integrating the formal organization and the

informal organization can also be seen in several successful businesses.

Functions of informal organizations

Keith Davis suggests that informal groups serve at least four major functions within the formal organizational structure.

Perpetuate the cultural and social values

They perpetuate the cultural and social values that the group holds dear. Sure values are usually already held in common in the middle of informal group members. Day-to-day interaction reinforces these values that perpetuate a scrupulous lifestyle and preserve group unity and integrity. For instance, a college management class of 50 students may contain many informal groups that constitute the informal organization within the formal structure of the class. These groups may develop out of fraternity or sorority relationships, dorm residency, project work teams, or seating arrangements. Dress codes, hairstyles, and political party involvement are reinforced in the middle of the group members.

Give social status and satisfaction

They give social status and satisfaction that may not be obtained from the formal organization. In a large organization (or classroom), a worker (or student) may feel like an anonymous number rather than a unique individual. Members of informal groups, though, share jokes and gripes, eat together, play and work together, and are friends-which contributes to personal esteem, satisfaction, and a feeling of worth.

Promote communication in the middle of members

The informal group develops a communication channel or system (i.e., grapevine) to keep its members informed about what management actions will affect them in several ways. Several astute managers use the grape- vine to "informally" convey sure information about company actions and rumors.

Give social control

They give social control through influencing and regulating behavior inside and outside the group. Internal control persuades members of the group to conform to its lifestyle. For instance, if a student starts to wear a coat and tie to class, informal group members may razz and convince the student that such attire is not acceptable and so to return to sandals, jeans, and T-shirts. External control is directed to such groups as management, union leadership, and other informal groups.

Disadvantages of informal groups

Informal organizations also possess the following potential disadvantages and troubles that require astute and careful management attention.

Resistance to change

Perpetuation of values and lifestyle causes informal groups to become overly protective of their "culture" and so resist change. For instance, if restriction of output was the norm in an autocratic management group, it necessity continue to be so, even though management changes have brought about a more participative administration.

Role disagreement

The quest for informal group satisfaction may lead members absent from formal organizational objectives. What is good for and desired through informal group members is not always good for the organization. Doubling the number of coffee breaks and the length of the lunch period may be desirable for group members but costly and unprofitable for the firm. Employees' desire to fulfill the necessities and services of both the informal group and management results in role disagreement. Role disagreement can be reduced through cautiously attempting to integrate interests, goals, methods, and evaluation systems of both the informal and formal organizations, resulting in greater productivity and satisfaction on everyone's behalf.

Rumor

The grapevine dispenses truth and rumor with equal vengeance. Ill-informed employees communicate unverified and untrue information that can make a devastating effect on employees. This can undermine morale, establish bad attitudes, and often result in deviant or, even violent behavior. For instance, a student who flunks an exam can start a rumor that a professor is creation sexually harassing advances toward one of the students in class. This can make all sorts of ill feelings toward the professor and even result in vengeful acts like "egging" the residence or knocking over the mail box.

Conventionality

Social control promotes and encourages conventionality in the middle of informal group members, thereby creation them reluctant to act too aggressively or perform at too high a stage. This can harm the formal organization through stifling initiative, creativity, and diversity of performance. In some British factories, if a group member gets "out of line", tools may be hidden, air may be let out of tires, and other group members may refuse to talk to the deviant for days or weeks. Obviously, these kinds of actions can force a good worker to leave the organization.

Benefits of the informal organization

Although informal organizations make unique challenges and potential troubles for management, they also give a number of benefits for the formal organization.

Blend with formal system

Formal plans, policies, procedures, and standards cannot solve every problem in a dynamic organization; so, informal systems necessarily blend with formal ones to get work done. As early as 1951, Robert Dubin recognized that "informal relations in the organization serve to preserve the organization from the self-destruction that would result from literal obedience to the formal policies, rules, regulations, and procedures." No college or university could function merely through everyone following the "letter of the law" with respect to written policies and procedures. Faculty, staff, and student informal groups necessarily cooperate in fulfilling the spirit of the law to effectuate an organized, sensibly run enterprise.

Lighten management workload

Managers are less inclined to check up on workers when they know the informal organization is cooperating with them. This encourages delegation, decentralization, and greater worker support of the manager, which suggests a probable improvement in performance and overall productivity. When a professor perceives that students are conscientiously working on their term papers and group projects, there are likely to be fewer "pop tests" or impromptu progress reports. This eases the professor's load and that of the students and promotes a better relationship flanked by both parties.

Fill gaps in management abilities

For instance, if a manager is weak in financial planning and analysis, a subordinate may informally assist in preparing reports through either suggestions or direct involvement. ' Act as a safety valve. Employees experience frustration, tension, and emotional troubles with management and other employees. The informal group gives a means for relieving these emotional and psychological pressures through allowing a person to discuss them in the middle of friends openly and candidly. In faculty lounge conversations, frustrations with the dean, department head, or students are "blown off" in the middle of empathetic colleagues.

Encourage improved management practice

Perhaps a subtle benefit of informal groups is that they encourage managers to prepare, plan, organize, and control in a more professional fashion. Managers who comprehend the power of the informal organization

recognize that it is a "check and balance" on their use of authority. Changes and projects are introduced with more careful thought and consideration, knowing that the informal organization can easily kill a poorly planned project.

Understanding and dealing with the environmental crisis

The IRG Solution - hierarchical incompetence and how to overcome it 1984, argued, that Central media and government kind hierarchical organizations. could not adequately understand the environmental crisis we were manufacturing, or how to initiate adequate solutions. It argued that what was required, was the widespread introduction of informal networks or Information Routing Groups which were essentially a account of social networking services prior to the internet.

Business approaches

Rapid growth. Starbucks, which grew from 100 employees to over 100,000 in just over a decade, gives structures to support improvisation. In a July 1998 Fast Company article on rapid growth, Starbucks chairman Howard Schultz said, "You can't grow if you're driven only through procedure, or only through the creative spirit. You've got to achieve a fragile balance flanked by the two sides of the corporate brain."

Learning organization. Following a four-year revise of the Toyota Production System, Steven J. Spear and H. Kent Bowen concluded in Harvard Business Review that the legendary flexibility of Toyota's operations is due to the way the scientific method is ingrained in its workers – not through formal training or manuals (the production system has never been written down) but through unwritten principles that govern how workers work, interact, construct, and learn.

Thought generation. Texas Instruments credits its "Lunatic Fringe"—"an informal and amorphous group of TI engineers (and their peers and contacts outside the company)," according to Fortune Magazine—for its recent successes. "There's this continuum flanked by total chaos and total order," Gene Frantz, the hub of this informal network, explained to Fortune. "About 95% of the people in TI are total order, and I thank God for them every day, because they make the products that allow me to spend money. I'm down here in total chaos, that total chaos of innovation. As a company we recognize the variation flanked by those two and encourage both to occur."

HIERARCHY

HIERARCHICAL ORGANIZATION

A hierarchical organization is an organizational structure where every entity in the organization, except one, is subordinate to a single other entity. This arrangement is a form of a hierarchy. In an organization, the hierarchy usually consists of a singular/group of power at the top with subsequent stages of power beneath them. This is the dominant mode of organization in the middle of large organizations; mainly corporations, governments, and organized religions are hierarchical organizations with dissimilar stages of management, power or authority. For instance, the broad, top-stage overview of the general organization of the Catholic Church consists of the Pope, then the Cardinals, then the Archbishops, and so on.

Members of hierarchical organizational structures chiefly communicate with their immediate superior and with their immediate subordinates. Structuring organizations in this way is useful partly because it can reduce the communication overhead through limiting information flow; this is also its major limitation.

VISUALIZATION

A hierarchy is typically visualized as a pyramid, where the height of the ranking or person depicts their power status and the width of that stage represents how several people or business divisions are at that stage relative to the whole—the highest-ranking people are at the apex, and there are very few of them; the base may contain thousands of people who have no subordinates. These hierarchies are typically depicted with a tree or triangle diagram, creating an organizational chart or organ gram. Those adjacent the top have more power than those adjacent the bottom, and there being fewer people at the top than at the bottom. As a result, superiors in a hierarchy usually have higher status and command greater rewards than their subordinates.

COMMON MODELS

All governments and mainly companies have similar structures. Traditionally, the monarch was the pinnacle of the state. In several countries, feudalism and memorialize provided a formal social structure that recognized hierarchical links at every stage of society, with the monarch at the top.

In modern post-feudal states the nominal top of the hierarchy still remains the head of state, which may be a president or a constitutional monarch, although in several modern states the powers of the head of state are delegated in the middle of dissimilar bodies. Below the head, there is commonly a senate, parliament or congress, which in turn often delegate the day-to-day running of the country to a prime minister. In several democracies, the people

are measured to be the notional top of the hierarchy, over the head of state; in reality, the people's power is restricted to voting in elections.

In business, the business owner traditionally occupied the pinnacle of the organization. In mainly modern large companies, there is now no longer a single dominant shareholder, and the communal power of the business owners is for mainly purposes delegated to a board of directors, which in turn delegates the day-to-day running of the company to a managing director or CEO. Again, although the shareholders of the company are the nominal top of the hierarchy, in reality several companies are run at least in part as personal fiefdoms through their management; corporate governance rules are an attempt to mitigate this tendency.

STUDIES OF HIERARCHICAL ORGANIZATIONS

The organizational development theorist Elliott Jacques recognized a special role for hierarchy in his concept of requisite organization. The iron law of oligarchy, introduced through Robert Michels, describes the inevitable tendency of hierarchical organizations to become oligarchic in their decision creation. Hierarchiology is the term coined through Dr. Laurence J. Peter, originator of the Peter Principle described in his humorous book of the same name, to refer to the revise of hierarchical organizations and the behavior of their members.

Having formulated the Principle, I discovered that I had inadvertently founded a new science, hierarchiology, the revise of hierarchies. The term hierarchy was originally used to describe the system of church government through priests graded into ranks. The modern meaning comprises any organization whose members or employees are arranged in order of rank, grade or class. Hierarchiology, although a relatively recent discipline, appears to have great applicability to the fields of public and private administration.—Dr. Laurence J. Peter and Raymond Hull, *The Peter Principle: Why Things Always Go Wrong*

The IRG Solution - hierarchical incompetence and how to overcome it argued that hierarchies were inherently incompetent, and were only able to function due to large amounts of informal lateral communication fostered through private informal networks.

CRITICISM AND ALTERNATIVES

In the work of diverse theorists such as William James (1842–1910), Michel Foucault (1926–1984) and Hayden White, significant critiques of hierarchical epistemology are advanced. James famously asserts in his work "Radical Empiricism" that clear distinctions of kind and category are a constant but unwritten goal of scientific reasoning, so that when they are

discovered, success is declared. But if characteristics of the world are organized differently, involving inherent and intractable ambiguities, then scientific questions are often measured unresolved. A hesitation to declare success upon the discovery of ambiguities leaves heterarchy at an artificial and subjective disadvantage in the scope of human knowledge. This bias is an artifact of an aesthetic or pedagogical preference for hierarchy, and not necessarily an expression of objective observation.

Hierarchies and hierarchical thinking has been criticized through several people, including Susan McClary and one political philosophy which is vehemently opposed to hierarchical organization: anarchism is usually opposed to hierarchical organization in any form of human relations. Heterarchy is the mainly commonly proposed alternative to hierarchy and this has been combined with responsible autonomy through Gerard Fairtlough in his work on Triarchy theory.

Amidst constant innovation in information and communication technologies, hierarchical authority structures are giving way to greater decision-creation latitude for individuals and more flexible definitions of job activities and this new style of work presents a challenge to existing organizational forms, with some research studies contrasting traditional organizational forms against groups that operate as online communities that are characterized through personal motivation and the satisfaction of creation one's own decisions.

SPAN OF CONTROL

Span of control is the term now used more commonly in business management, particularly human resource management. Span of control refers to the number of subordinates a supervisor has. In the hierarchical business organization of some time in the past it was not uncommon to see average spans of 1 to 4 or even less. That is, one manager supervised four employees on average. In the 1980s corporate leaders flattened several organizational structures causing average spans to move closer to 1 to 10. That was made possible primarily through the development of inexpensive information technology. As information technology was developed capable of easing several middle manager tasks – tasks like collecting, manipulating and presenting operational information – upper managers found they could hire fewer middle managers to do more work managing more subordinates for less money. The current shift to self-directed cross-functional teams and other forms of non-hierarchical structures, have made the concept of span of control less salient.

Theories about the optimum span of control go back to V. A. Graicunas. In 1933 he used assumptions about mental capability and attention span to develop a set of practical heuristics. Lyndall Urwick (1956) developed a theory based on geographical dispersion and the need for face to face meetings. In spite of numerous attempts since then, no convincing theories

have been presented. This is because the optimum span of control depends on numerous variables including organizational structure, accessible technology, the functions being performed, and the competencies of the manager as well as staff. An alternative view is proposed through Elliott Jaques (1988) that a manager may have up to as several immediate subordinates that they can know personally in the sense that they can assess personal effectiveness.

FACTORS AFFECTING SPAN OF CONTROL

These are the factors affecting span of control:

Geographical dispersion, if the branches of a business are widely dispersed, then the manager will find it hard to supervise each of them, as such the span on control will be smaller.

Capability of workers, if workers are highly capable, need little supervision, and can be left on their own, e.g.: Theory Y kind of people, they need not be supervised much as they are motivated and take initiative to work; as such the span of control will be wider.

Capability of boss, an experienced boss with good understanding of the tasks, good knowledge of the workers and good relationships with the workers, will be able to supervise more workers

Value added of the boss, a boss that is adding value through training and developing new skills in the workers will need a narrow span of control than one who is focused only on performance management (this is the reverse of the capability of workers point above)

Similarity of task, if the tasks that the subordinates are performing are similar, then the span of control can be wider, as the manager can supervise them all at the same time.

Volume of other tasks, if the boss has other responsibilities, such as membership of committees, involvement in other projects, liaising with stakeholders, the number of direct reports will need to be smaller

Required administrative tasks, if the boss is required to have regular face to face meetings, complete appraisal and development plans, discuss remuneration benefits, write job descriptions and employment contracts, explain employment policy changes and other administrative tasks then the span of control is reduced

THEORETICAL THOUGHTS

The first to develop a more general theory of management was Henri Fayol, who had gathered empirical experience throughout his time as general manager of a coal and steel company, the Commentary-Fourchambault Company. He was first to add a managerial perspective to the problem of organizational governance. The rationale for defining a strict hierarchy of communication channels is found in the need for vertical integration of

activities, imposed through management's need for control and information.

Though, exercising control over activities performed through subordinates and monitoring their communication, the nodes at the upper hierarchical stages would be suffering from information overload, since all communication to other branches of the organizational structure would be routed through them. In addition, a larger number of subordinates also requires supervisors to monitor a high number of interactions below their own stage, i.e. that information overload and span of control are positively correlated.

Graicunas distinguished three kinds of interactions – direct single relationships, cross-relationships, and direct group relationships – each of them contributing to the total amount of interactions within the organization. According to Graicunas, the number of possible interactions can be computed in the following way. Let n be the number of subordinates reporting to a supervisor. Then, the number of relationships of direct single kind the supervisor could perhaps engage into is

$$n.$$

The number of interactions flanked by subordinates (cross relationships) he has to monitor is

$$n(n - 1)$$

and the number of direct group relationships is

$$n(2^n/2 - 1)$$

The sum of these three kinds of interactions is the number of potential relationships of a supervisor. Graicunas showed with these formulas, that each additional subordinate increases the number of potential interactions significantly. It appears natural, that no organization can afford to maintain a control structure of a dimension being required for implementing a scalar chain under the unity of command condition. So, other mechanisms had to be found for dealing with the dilemma of maintaining managerial control, while keeping cost and time at a reasonable stage, therefore creation the span of control a critical figure for the organization. Consequently, for a long time, finding the optimum span of control has been a major challenge to organization design. As Mackenzie describes it:

”One could argue that with larger spans, the costs of supervision would tend to be reduced, because a smaller percentage of the members of the organization are supervisors. On the other hand, if the span of control is too large, the supervisor may not have the capability to supervise effectively such large numbers of immediate subordinates. Therefore, there is a possible trade-off to be made in an attempt to balance these perhaps opposing tendencies.”

Fayol proposed that subordinate employees should be allowed to communicate directly with each other, given that their superiors had agreed

upon this procedure. This principle became recognized under the name of Fayol's bridge.

The use of Fayol's bridge resulted in a number of other characteristics needing to be taken into consideration. In order to put this system to work, Taylor's functional foremanship has to be abandoned, and unity of command needs to be recognized. At the same time, decision power is distributed to individuals on lower stages in the organization, and only decisions that exceed the pre-defined decision scope of an employee are referred upwards. This, in turn, strengthens the co-equality of authority and responsibility. Since a Fayol bridge is not limited to a sure functional area within the organization, but can span over functional boundaries, e.g. from purchasing to manufacturing, it can be measured as a first attempt to make a horizontal integration of related activities under a sure stage of self-management, an early business procedure.

Mackenzie and others also noted that there is no usually applicable optimum span of control. There are instead many factors influencing the balance flanked by the desired stage of control, and the manageability of the organization.

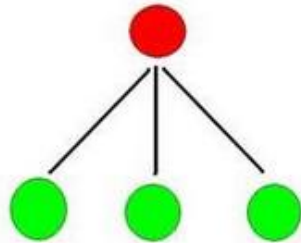
Firstly, it depends on the capabilities of the organizational members, managers and workers. It was assumed, that no manager would be capable of supervising more than 5-6 direct subordinates. Though, this conclusion built on the assumption, that the superior necessity actively monitor the work of all subordinates. Later on, this statement was diversified, and Davis divided managerial work into two categories, one requiring the attention to physical work, the other one requiring mental activity. Depending on the kind of supervision, a span of 3-8 subordinates for managers at higher stages was measured adequate, while first stage supervisors, i.e. those supervising shop floor personnel could have up to 30 subordinates.

The neoclassical theorists have developed a dissimilar solution. They assumed that a considerable amount of decisions could be delegated to organizational members at lower organizational stages. This solution would be equivalent to the application of Fayol's bridge combined with the principle of employee initiative that he proposed. As a result, the need for supervision would be reduced from direct control to exception handling. According to this assumption, they measured the opportunity of having access to a supervising manager would be enough to satisfy the need for control in standard situations. Peter Drucker refers to this principle as the span of managerial responsibility.

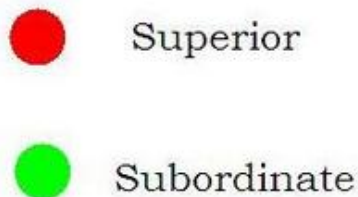
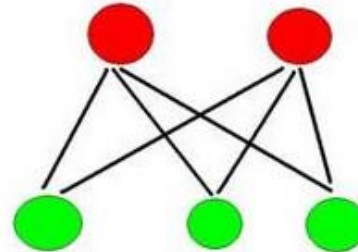
UNITY OF COMMAND

Unity of Command means getting orders/ command from only one supervisor. Fayol has stated "As soon as two superiors impose their authority over the same person or department, uneasiness creates itself felt. Dual command is a perpetual source of disagreement." This principle states that an individual should get orders from a single superior so that he does not get confused and can discharge his duties effectively.

Right Approach



Wrong Approach



This principle advocates that only one boss should provide order to an individual so that he can understand what to do and can perform systematically with greater efficiency. If more than one boss will instruct an individual, he will certainly get confused about his responsibility and will not be able to perform even a single activity because he faces the dilemma of “whom should he follow?”

In case of more than one boss, problem of ego conflict flanked by the bosses arises because every superior wants his orders to be executed through his subordinate. This problem of ego conflict also causes conflicting situation in the organization, which hampers the organization growth.

Positive impacts of this principle:

Prevents dual subordination;

Easy to fix responsibility to an individual;

Harmonious and cordial relation in the middle of the management and the employees; and

Performance of the employees will increase.

Consequences of violation of this principle:

Reduces efficiency of subordinates;

Makes confused situation for the subordinates;

Subordinates can easily escape from their responsibility and duties;

Ego conflict flanked by managers;
Overlapping of orders and instructions; and
Hard to maintain discipline in the organization.

CENTRALIZATION AND DECENTRALIZATION

CENTRALIZATION

Centralization is said to be a procedure where the concentration of decision creation is in a few hands. All the significant decision and actions at the lower stage, all subjects and actions at the lower stage are subject to the approval of top management. According to Allen, "Centralization" is the systematic and constant reservation of authority at central points in the organization. The implication of centralization can be:-

- Reservation of decision creation power at top stage.

- Reservation of operating authority with the middle stage managers.

- Reservation of operation at lower stage at the directions of the top stage.

Under centralization, the significant and key decisions are taken through the top management and the other stages are into implementations as per the directions of top stage. For instance, in a business concern, the father & son being the owners decide about the significant matters and all the rest of functions like product, finance, marketing, personnel, are accepted out through the department heads and they have to act as per instruction and orders of the two people. So in this case, decision creation power remain in the hands of father & son.

On the other hand, Decentralization is a systematic delegation of authority at all stages of management and in all of the organization. In a decentralization concern, authority is retained through the top management for taking major decisions and framing policies concerning the whole concern. Rest of the authority may be delegated to the middle stage and lower stage of management.

The degree of centralization and decentralization will depend upon the amount of authority delegated to the lowest stage. According to Allen, "Decentralization refers to the systematic effort to delegate to the lowest stage of authority except that which can be controlled and exercised at central points.

DECENTRALIZATION

Decentralization is not the same as delegation. In fact, decentralization is all extension of delegation. Decentralization pattern is wider in scope and the authorities are diffused to the lowest mainly stage of management. Delegation of authority is a complete procedure and takes place from one person to

another. While decentralization is complete only when fullest possible delegation has taken place. For instance, the general manager of a company is responsible for getting the leave application for the whole of the concern. The general manager delegates this work to the personnel manager who is now responsible for getting the leave applicants. In this situation delegation of authority has taken place. On the other hand, on the request of the personnel manager, if the general manager delegates this power to all the departmental heads at all stage, in this situation decentralization has taken place. There is a saying that “Everything that rising the role of subordinates is decentralization and that decreases the role is centralization”. Decentralization is wider in scope and the subordinate’s responsibility augment in this case. On the other hand, in delegation the managers remain answerable even for the acts of subordinates to their superiors.

IMPLICATIONS OF DECENTRALIZATION

- There is less burden on the Chief Executive as in the case of centralization.
- In decentralization, the subordinates get a chance to decide and act independently which develops skills and capabilities. This way the organization is able to procedure reserve of talents in it.
- In decentralization, diversification and horizontal can be easily implanted.
- In decentralization, concern diversification of activities can place effectively since there is more scope for creating new departments. So, diversification growth is of a degree.
- In decentralization structure, operations can be coordinated at divisional stage which is not possible in the centralization set up.
- In the case of decentralization structure, there is greater motivation and morale of the employees since they get more independence to act and decide.
- In a decentralization structure, co-ordination to some extent is hard to maintain as there are lot several department divisions and authority is delegated to maximum possible extent, i.e., to the bottom mainly stage delegation reaches. Centralization and decentralization are the categories through which the pattern of authority relationships became clear. The degree of centralization and de-centralization can be affected through several factors like nature of operation, volume of profits, number of departments, size of a concern, etc. The larger the size of a concern, a decentralization set up is appropriate in it.

REVIEW QUESTION

- Explain relations flanked by the formal and informal organizations.
- What is the meaning of hierarchy?
- Explain the importance of hierarchy as a principle of organization.

Describe the factors influencing span of control.
Explain the meaning and importance of the principle of the Unity of Command
What is centralization? In what way does it differ from decentralization?

CHAPTER 5

CONCEPTS OF ORGANIZATION-II

STRUCTURE

Learning objectives
Delegation
Supervision
Communication
Administrative planning
Authority and responsibility
Leadership
Review question

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
Explain the meaning and significance of the delegation.
Describe the meaning and significance of supervision.
Describe the meaning and importance of communication in administration.
Explain the meaning and significance of planning in administration.
Explain the meaning of the concepts of authority and responsibility.
Describe leadership

DELEGATION

Delegation (or passing down) is the partnership of authority and responsibility to another person (normally from a manager to a subordinate) to carry out specific activities. It is one of the core concepts of management leadership. Though the person who delegated the work remains accountable for the outcome of the delegated work. Delegation empowers a subordinate to create decisions, i.e. it is a shift of decision-creation authority from one organizational stage to a lower one. Westside the best side, get at us GD Folk BOS Delegation, if properly done, is not abdication. The opposite of effective delegation is micromanagement, where a manager gives too much input,

direction, and review of delegated work. In general, delegation is good and can save money and time, help in structure skills, and motivate people. Poor delegation, on the other hand, might cause frustration, and confusion to all the involved parties. Some mediators though do not favour a delegation and consider the power of creation a decision rather burdensome. Delegation in IT network is also an evolving field.

SUPERVISION

A supervisor, foreperson, boss, overseer, cell coach, facilitator, or area coordinator is a manager in a position of trust in business. The US Bureau of Census has four hundred titles under the supervisor classification.

An employee is a supervisor if he has the power and authority to do the following actions (according to the Ontario Ministry of Labour):

Provide instructions and/or orders to subordinates.

Be held responsible for the work and actions of other employees.

If an employee cannot do the above, legally he or she is almost certainly not a supervisor, but in some other category, such as lead hand. A supervisor is first and foremost an overseer whose main responsibility is to ensure that a group of subordinates get out the assigned amount of production, when they are supposed to do it and within acceptable stages of quality, costs and safety.

A supervisor is responsible for the productivity and actions of a small group of employees. The supervisor has many manager-like roles, responsibilities, and powers. Two of the key differences flanked by a supervisor and a manager are (1) the supervisor does not typically have "hire and fire" authority, and (2) the supervisor does not have budget authority.

Lacking "hire and fire" authority means that a supervisor may not recruit the employees working in the supervisor's group nor does the supervisor have the authority to terminate an employee. The supervisor may participate in the hiring procedure as part of interviewing and assessing candidates, but the actual hiring authority rests in the hands of a Human Resource Manager. The supervisor may recommend to management that a scrupulous employee be terminated and the supervisor may be the one who documents the behaviors leading to the recommendation but the actual firing authority rests in the hands of a manager.

Lacking budget authority means that a supervisor is provided a budget developed through management within which constraints the supervisor is expected to give a productive environment for the employees of the supervisor's work group. A supervisor will usually have the authority to create purchases within specified limits. A supervisor is also given the power to approve work hours and other payroll issues. Normally, budget affecting requests such as travel will require not only the supervisor's approval but the approval of one or more layers of management. As a member of management, a supervisor's main job is more concerned with orchestrating and controlling

work rather than performing it directly.

RESPONSIBILITIES

Supervisors are uniquely positioned through direct daily employee get in touch with to respond to employee needs, troubles, and satisfaction. Supervisors are the direct link flanked by management and the work force and can be mainly effective in developing job training, safety attitudes, safe working methods and identifying unsafe acts and circumstances.

Supervisors should tend to visualize troubles and opportunities in conditions of their scrupulous areas of concentration. But to climb the management hierarchy, they necessity eventually broaden their base and become competent in related dedicated areas. Finally, there is a variation in the types of decisions made. Because they are in direct get in touch with operative employees, supervisors necessity interpret, apply, and create meaningful the directives and necessities laid down through their own managers.

TASKS OF A SUPERVISOR

Carry out policies passed down a hierarchy from the stage above.

Plan short-range action-steps to carry out goals set through the stage above.

Organize the work group.

Assign jobs to subordinates.

Delegate projects to subordinates.

Direct tasks, jobs and projects.

Train subordinates.

Enforce rules.

Lead and motivate subordinates.

Develop group cohesiveness.

Solve routine daily troubles.

Control or evaluate performance of subordinates and the department - performance appraisals.

Discipline subordinates.

"Doing" can take up to 70% of the time - (this varies according to the kind of supervisory job - the doing involves the actual work of the department as well as the planning, controlling, scheduling, organizing, leading, etc.).

TRAINING

Supervisors often do not require any formal education on how they are to perform their duties but are mainly often given on-the-job training or attend

company sponsored courses. Several employers have supervisor handbooks that need to be followed. Supervisor's necessity be aware of their legal responsibilities to ensure that their employees work safely and that the workplace that they are responsible for meets government standards.

ACADEMIA

In academia, a supervisor is a senior scientist or scholar who, beside with their own responsibilities, aids and guides a postgraduate research student, or undergraduate student, in their research project; offering both moral support and scientific insight and guidance. The term is used in many countries for the doctoral advisor of a graduate student.

GAFFER

In colloquial British English gaffer means a foreman, and is used as a synonym for "boss". In the UK, the term is also commonly used to refer to sports coaches (football, rugby, etc.).

The term is also sometimes used colloquially to refer to an old man, an elderly rustic. The word is almost certainly a shortening of "godfather", with "ga" from association with "grandfather". The female equivalent was "gammer", which came to colloquially refer to an old lady or gossip. The use of gaffer in this way can be seen, for instance, in J.R.R. Tolkien's character Gaffer Gamgee.

In 16th century English a "gaffer" was a man who was the head of any organized group of laborers. In 16th and 17th century rural England it was used as a title slightly inferior to "Master", similar to "Goodman", and was not confined to elderly men. The chorus of a well-known Australian shearer's song, *The Backblocks' Shearer* (also recognized as *Widgeoeera Joe*), written through W. Tully at Nimidgee, NSW (c.1900). In glassblowing, a gaffer is the central figure in the creation of a piece of art. For instance, At the Corning Glass Works in Corning, New York, a gaffer is a skilled artisan who blows through a long tube to shape molten glass into a diversity of useful and/or artistic objects. A business district of Corning has been named "The Gaffer District" in honor of these artisans.

FIRST-LINE SUPERVISORS

I-O psychology research on first-line supervisors suggests that supervisors with the mainly productive work groups have the following qualities:

Effective supervisors are person-centered. They rate higher in the consideration function than do unsuccessful supervisors.

Effective supervisors are supportive. They are more helpful to employees and more willing to defend them against criticism from higher management than are less effective supervisors.

Effective supervisors are democratic. They hold frequent meetings with employees to solicit their views and encourage participation. Less effective supervisors are more autocratic.

Effective supervisors are flexible. They allow employees to accomplish their goals in their own way whenever possible, constant with the goals of the organization. Less effective supervisors dictate how a job is to be performed and permit no deviation.

Effective supervisors describe themselves as coaches rather than directors. They emphasize quality, give clear directions, and provide timely feedback to their workers.

COMMUNICATION

Organizational communication is a sub field of the larger discipline of communication studies. Organizational communication, as a field, is the consideration, analysis, and criticism of the role of communication in organizational contexts.

HISTORY OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

The field traces its lineage through business information, business communication, and early mass communication studies published in the 1930s through the 1950s. Until then, organizational communication as a discipline consisted of a few professors within speech departments who had a scrupulous interest in speaking and writing in business settings. The current field is well recognized with its own theories and empirical concerns separate from other fields.

Many seminal publications stand out as works broadening the scope and recognizing the importance of communication in the organizing procedure, and in using the term "organizational communication". Nobel Laureate Herbert A. Simon wrote in 1947 about "organization communications systems", saying communication is "absolutely essential to organizations". W. Charles Redding played a prominent role in the establishment of organizational communication as a discipline.

In the 1950s, organizational communication focused largely on the role of communication in improving organizational life and organizational output. In the 1980s, the field turned absent from a business-oriented approach to communication and became concerned more with the constitutive role of communication in organizing. In the 1990s, critical theory influence on the field was felt as organizational communication scholars focused more on communication's possibilities to oppress and liberate organizational members.

ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING EARLY ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Some of the main assumptions underlying much of the early organizational communication research were:

Humans act rationally. Some people do not behave in rational ways, they usually have no access to all of the information needed to create rational decisions they could articulate, and so will create unrational decisions, unless there is some breakdown in the communication procedure—which is common. Unrational people rationalize how they will rationalize their communication measures whether or not it is rational.

Formal logic and empirically verifiable data ought to be the foundation upon which any theory should rest. All we really need to understand communication in organizations is (a) observable and replicable behaviors that can be transformed into variables through some form of measurement, and (b) formally replicable syllogisms that can extend theory from observed data to other groups and settings

Communication is primarily a mechanical procedure, in which a message is constructed and encoded through a sender, transmitted through some channel, then received and decoded through a receiver. Distortion, represented as any differences flanked by the original and the received messages, can and ought to be recognized and reduced or eliminated.

Organizations are mechanical things, in which the parts (including employees functioning in defined roles) are interchangeable. What works in one organization will work in another similar organization. Individual differences can be minimized or even eliminated with careful management techniques.

Organizations function as a container within which communication takes place. Any differences in form or function of communication flanked by that occurring in an organization and in another setting can be recognized and studied as factors affecting the communicative activity.

Herbert A. Simon introduced the concept of bounded rationality which challenged assumptions about the perfect rationality of communication participants. He maintained that people creation decisions in organizations seldom had complete information, and that even if more information was accessible, they tended to pick the first acceptable option, rather than exploring further to pick the optimal solution.

Through the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s the field expanded greatly in parallel with many other academic disciplines, looking at communication as more than an intentional act intended to transfer an thought. Research expanded beyond the issue of "how to create people understand what I am saying" to tackle questions such as "how does the act of communicating change, or even describe, who I am?", "why do organizations that seem to be saying similar

things achieve very dissimilar results?" and "to what extent are my relationships with others affected through our several organizational contexts?"

In the early 1990s Peter Senge developed new theories on Organizational Communication. These theories were learning organization and systems thinking. These have been well received and are now a mainstay in current beliefs toward organizational communications.

Communication networks

Networks are another characteristic of direction and flow of communication. Bavelas has shown that communication patterns, or networks, influence groups in many significant ways. Communication networks may affect the group's completion of the assigned task on time, the position of the de factor leader in the group, or they may affect the group members' satisfaction from occupying sure positions in the network. Although these findings are based on laboratory experiments, they have significant implications for the dynamics of communication in formal organizations.

There are many patterns of communication:

- "Chain",
- "Wheel",
- "Star",
- "All-Channel" network,
- "Circle".

The Chain can readily be seen to represent the hierarchical pattern that characterizes strictly formal information flow, "from the top down," in military and some kinds of business organizations. The Wheel can be compared with a typical autocratic organization, meaning one-man rule and limited employee participation. The Star is similar to the vital formal structure of several organizations. The All-Channel network, which is an elaboration of Bavelas's Circle used through Guetzkow, is analogous to the free-flow of communication in a group that encourages all of its members to become involved in group decision processes. The All-Channel network may also be compared to some of the informal communication networks.

If it's assumed that messages may move in both directions flanked by stations in the networks, it is easy to see that some individuals occupy key positions with regard to the number of messages they handle and the degree to which they exercise control over the flow of information. For instance, the person represented through the central dot in the "Star" handles all messages in the group. In contrast, individuals who occupy stations at the edges of the pattern handle fewer messages and have little or no control over the flow of information. These "peripheral" individuals can communicate with only one or two other persons and necessity depend entirely on others to relay their messages if they wish to extend their range.

In reporting the results of experiments involving the Circle, Wheel, and

Star configurations, Bavelas came to the following tentative conclusions. In patterns with positions located centrally, such as the Wheel and the Star, an organization quickly develops around the people occupying these central positions. In such patterns, the organization is more stable and errors in performance are lower than in patterns having a lower degree of centrality, such as the Circle. Though, he also found that the morale of members in high centrality patterns is relatively low. Bavelas speculated that this lower morale could, in the long run, lower the accuracy and speed of such networks.

In problem solving requiring the pooling of data and judgments, or "insight," Bavelas suggested that the skill to evaluate partial results, to look at alternatives, and to restructure troubles fell off rapidly when one person was able to assume a more central (that is, more controlling) position in the information flow. For instance, insight into a problem requiring change would be less in the Wheel and the Star than in the Circle or the Chain because of the "bottlenecking" effect of data control through central members.

It may be concluded from these laboratory results that the structure of communications within an organization will have a important influence on the accuracy of decisions, the speed with which they can be reached, and the satisfaction of the people involved. Consequently, in networks in which the responsibility for initiating and passing beside messages is shared more evenly in the middle of the members, the better the group's morale in the long run.

DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION

If it's measured formal communications as they occur in traditional military organizations, messages have a "one-way" directional feature. In the military organization, the formal communication proceeds from superior to subordinate, and its content is presumably clear because it originates at a higher stage of expertise and experience. Military communications also carry the additional assumption that the superior is responsible for creation his communication clear and understandable to his subordinates. This kind of organization assumes that there is little need for two-way exchanges flanked by organizational stages except as they are initiated through a higher stage. Because messages from superiors are measured to be more significant than those from subordinates, the implicit rule is that communication channels, except for prescribed information flows, should not be cluttered through messages from subordinates but should remain open and free for messages moving down the chain of command. "Juniors should be seen and not heard," is still an unwritten, if not explicit, law of military protocol.

Vestiges of one-way flows of communication still exist in several formal organizations outside the military, and for several of the same reasons as described above. Although management recognizes that prescribed information necessity flow both downward and upward, managers may not always be convinced that two-ways should be encouraged. For instance, to

what extent is a subordinate free to communicate to his superior that he understands or does not understand a message? Is it possible for him to question the superior, ask for clarification, suggest modifications to instructions he has received, or transmit unsolicited messages to his superior, which are not prescribed through the rules? To what extent does the one-way rule of direction affect the efficiency of communication in the organization, in addition to the morale and motivation of subordinates?

These are not merely procedural matters but contain questions about the organizational climate, or psychological atmosphere in which communication takes place. Harold Leavitt has suggested a simple experiment that helps answer some of these questions. A group is assigned the task of re-creating on paper a set of rectangular figures, first as they are described through the leader under one-way circumstances, and second as they are described through the leader under two-way circumstances. (A dissimilar configuration of rectangles is used in the second trial.) In the one-way trial, the leader's back is turned to the group. He describes the rectangles as he sees them. No one in the group is allowed to ask questions and no one may indicate through any audible or visible sign his understanding or his frustration as he attempts to follow the leader's directions. In the two-way trial, the leader faces the group. In this case, the group may ask for clarifications on his account of the rectangles and he can not only see but also can feel and respond to the emotional reactions of group members as they try to re-make his instructions on paper.

On the basis of a number of experimental trials similar to the one described above, Leavitt shaped these conclusions:

One-way communication is faster than two-way communication.

Two-way communication is more accurate than one-way communication.

Receivers are more sure of themselves and create more correct judgments of how right or wrong they are in the two-way system.

The sender feels psychologically under attack in the two-way system, because his receivers pick up his mistakes and oversights and point them out to him.

The two-way method is relatively noisier and looks more disorderly. The one-way method, on the other hand, appears neat and efficient to an outside observer.

Therefore, if speed is necessary, if a businesslike appearance is significant, if a manager does not want his mistakes recognized, and if he wants to protect his power, then one-way communication seems preferable. In contrast, if the manager wants to get his message crossways, or if he is concerned about his receivers' feeling that they are participating and are creating a contribution, the two-way system is better.

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Another fact of communication in the organization is the procedure of one-

to-one or interpersonal communication, flanked by individuals. Such communication may take many forms. Messages may be verbal (that is, expressed in words), or they may not involve words at all but consist of gestures, facial expressions, and sure postures ("body language"). Nonverbal messages may even stem from silence.

Managers do not need answers to operate a successful business; they need questions. Answers can come from anyone, anytime, anywhere in the world thanks to the benefits of all the electronic communication tools at our disposal. This has turned the real job of management into determining what it is the business needs to know, beside with the who/what/where/when and how of learning it. To effectively solve troubles, seize opportunities, and achieve objectives, questions need to be asked through managers—these are the people responsible for the operation of the enterprise as a whole.

Ideally, the meanings sent are the meanings received. This is mainly often the case when the messages concern something that can be verified objectively. For instance, "This piece of pipe fits the threads on the coupling." In this case, the receiver of the message can check the sender's words through actual trial, if necessary. Though, when the sender's words describe a feeling or an opinion about something that cannot be checked objectively, meanings can be very unclear. "This work is too hard" or "Watergate was politically justified" are examples of opinions or feelings that cannot be verified. Therefore they are subject to interpretation and hence to distorted meanings. The receiver's background of experience and learning may differ enough from that of the sender to cause significantly dissimilar perceptions and evaluations of the topic under discussion. As we shall see later, such differences form a vital barrier to communication.

Nonverbal content always accompanies the verbal content of messages. This is reasonably clear in the case of face-to-face communication. As Virginia Satir has pointed out, people cannot help but communicate symbolically (for instance, through their clothing or possessions) or through some form of body language. In messages that are conveyed through the telephone, a messenger, or a letter, the situation or context in which the message is sent becomes part of its non-verbal content. For instance, if the company has been losing money, and in a letter to the production division, the front office orders a reorganization of the shipping and getting departments, this could be construed to mean that some people were going to lose their jobs — unless it were made explicitly clear that this would not occur.

A number of variables influence the effectiveness of communication. Some are found in the environment in which communication takes place, some in the personalities of the sender and the receiver, and some in the relationship that exists flanked by sender and receiver. These dissimilar variables suggest some of the difficulties of communicating with understanding flanked by two people. The sender wants to formulate an thought and communicate it to the receiver. This desire to communicate may arise from his thoughts or feelings or it may have been triggered through something in the environment. The

communication may also be influenced through the relationship flanked by the sender and the receiver, such as status differences, a staff-line relationship, or a learner-teacher relationship.

Whatever its origin, information travels through a series of filters, both in the sender and in the receiver, and is affected through dissimilar channels, before the thought can be transmitted and re-created in the receiver's mind. Physical capacities to see, hear, smell, taste, and touch vary flanked by people, so that the image of reality may be distorted even before the mind goes to work. In addition to physical or sense filters, cognitive filters, or the way in which an individual's mind interprets the world around him, will influence his assumptions and feelings. These filters will determine what the sender of a message says, how he says it, and with what purpose. Filters are present also in the receiver, creating a double complexity that once led Robert Louis Stevenson to say that human communication is "doubly relative". It takes one person to say something and another to decide what he said.

Physical and cognitive, including semantic filters (which decide the meaning of words) combine to form a part of our memory system that helps us respond to reality. In this sense, March and Simon compare a person to a data processing system. Behavior results from an interaction flanked by a person's internal state and environmental stimuli. What we have learned through past experience becomes an inventory, or data bank, consisting of values or goals, sets of expectations and preconceptions about the consequences of acting one way or another, and a diversity of possible ways of responding to the situation. This memory system determines what things we will notice and respond to in the environment. At the same time, stimuli in the environment help to determine what parts of the memory system will be activated. Hence, the memory and the environment form an interactive system that causes our behavior. As this interactive system responds to new experiences, new learning's occur which feed back into memory and slowly change its content. This procedure is how people adapt to a changing world.

COMMUNICATION APPROACHES IN AN ORGANIZATION

Informal and Formal Communication are used in an organization.

Informal communication, usually associated with interpersonal, horizontal communication, was primarily seen as a potential hindrance to effective organizational performance. This is no longer the case. Informal communication has become more significant to ensuring the effective conduct of work in modern organizations.

Top-down approach: This is also recognized as downward communication. This approach is used through the Top Stage Management to communicate to the lower stages. This is used to implement policies, guidelines, etc. In this kind of organizational communication, distortion of the actual information occurs. This could be made effective through feedbacks.

Additionally, McPhee and Zaug (1995) take a more nuanced view of communication as constitutive of organizations. They identify four constitutive flows of communication, formal and informal, which become interrelated in order to constitute organizing and an organization:

- Organizational self-structuring,
- Membership negotiation,
- Activity coordination,
- Institutional positioning.

RESEARCH IN ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Research methodologies

Historically, organizational communication was driven primarily through quantitative research methodologies. Incorporated in functional organizational communication research are statistical analyses (such as surveys, text indexing, network mapping and behavior modeling). In the early 1980s, the interpretive revolution took place in organizational communication. In Putnam and Pacanowsky's 1983 text *Communication and Organizations: An Interpretive Approach*, they argued for opening up methodological space for qualitative approaches such as narrative analyses, participant-observation, interviewing, rhetoric and textual approaches readings) and philosophic inquiries.

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s critical organizational scholarship began to gain prominence with a focus on issues of gender, race, class, and power/knowledge. In its current state, the revise of organizational communication is open methodologically, with research from post-positive, interpretive, critical, postmodern, and discursive paradigms being published regularly.

Organizational communication scholarship appears in a number of communication journals including but not limited to Management Communication Quarterly, Journal of Applied Communication Research, Communication Monographs, Academy of Management Journal, Communication Studies, and Southern Communication Journal. Organizations seek to influence their reputation through a diversity of self presentation activities, which collectively express the organization's identity and promote a scrupulous image

CURRENT RESEARCH TOPICS IN ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

In some circles, the field of organizational communication has moved from acceptance of mechanistic models (e.g., information moving from a sender to a receiver) to a revise of the persistent, hegemonic and taken-for-

granted ways in which we not only use communication to accomplish sure tasks within organizational settings (e.g., public speaking) but also how the organizations in which we participate affect us.

These approaches contain "postmodern", "critical", "participatory", "feminist", "power/political", "organic", etc. and adds to disciplines as wide-ranging as sociology, philosophy, theology, psychology, business, business administration, institutional management, medicine (health communication), neurology (neural nets), semiotics, anthropology, international relations, and music. Currently, some topics of research and theory in the field are:

Constitution, e.g.:

- How communicative behaviors construct or modify organizing processes or products
- How communication itself plays a constitutive role in organizations
- How the organizations within which we interact affect our communicative behaviors, and through these, our own identities
- Structures other than organizations which might be constituted through our communicative activity (e.g., markets, cooperatives, tribes, political parties, social movements)
- When does something "become" an organization? When does an organization become (an)other thing(s)? Can one organization "house" another? Is the organization still a useful entity/thing/concept, or has the social/political environment changed so much that what we now call "organization" is so dissimilar from the organization of even a few decades ago that it cannot be usefully tagged with the same word – "organization"?

Narrative, e.g.:

- How do group members employ narrative to acculturate/initiate/indoctrinate new members?
- Do organizational stories act on dissimilar stages? Are dissimilar narratives purposively invoked to achieve specific outcomes, or are there specific roles of "organizational storyteller"? If so, are stories told through the storyteller received differently than those told through others in the organization?
- In what ways does the organization attempt to influence storytelling about the organization? Under what circumstances does the organization appear to be more or less effective in obtaining a desired outcome?
- When these stories disagreement with one another or with official rules/policies, how are the conflicts worked out? In situations in which alternative accounts are accessible, who or how or why are some accepted and others rejected?

Identity, e.g:

- Who do we see ourselves to be, in conditions of our organizational affiliations?
- Do communicative behaviors or occurrences in one or more of the organizations in which we participate effect changes in us? To what extent do we consist of the organizations to which we belong?
- Is it possible for individuals to successfully resist organizational identity? What would that look like?
- Do people who describe themselves through their work-organizational membership communicate differently within the organizational setting than people who describe themselves more through an avocational (non-vocational) set of relationships?
- For instance, researchers have studied how human service workers and firefighters use humor at their jobs as a way to affirm their identity in the face of several challenges Tracy, S.J.; K. K. Myers; C. W. Scott. "Cracking jokes and crafting selves: Sensemaking and identity management in the middle of human service workers". Others have examined the identities of police organizations, prison guards, and professional women workers.

Interrelatedness of organizational experiences, e.g.:

- How do our communicative interactions in one organizational setting affect our communicative actions in other organizational settings?
- How do the phenomenological experiences of participants in a scrupulous organizational setting effect changes in other areas of their lives?
- When the organizational status of a member is significantly changed (e.g., through promotion or expulsion) how are their other organizational memberships affected?
- What type of future relationship flanked by business and society does organizational communication seem to predict?

Power e.g.:

- How does the use of scrupulous communicative practices within an organizational setting reinforce or alter the several interrelated power relationships within the setting? Are the potential responses of those within or around these organizational settings constrained through factors or processes either within or outside of the organization – (assuming there is an "outside")?
- Do taken-for-granted organizational practices work to fortify the dominant hegemonic narrative? Do individuals resist/confront these practices, through what actions/agencies, and to what effects?

- Do status changes in an organization (e.g., promotions, demotions, restructuring, financial/social strata changes) change communicative behavior? Are there criteria employed through organizational members to differentiate flanked by "legitimate" (i.e., endorsed through the formal organizational structure) and "illegitimate" (i.e., opposed through or unknown to the formal power structure) behaviors? When are they successful, and what do we mean through "successful" when there are "pretenders" or "usurpers" who employ these communicative means?

ADMINISTRATIVE PLANNING

MEANING AND SIGNIFICANCE

Administration involves planning, organizing, leading and evaluating people and programmes, so as to achieve specific goals of the government. Therefore, planning is the first and foremost activity to achieve results in the administrative procedure. It involves determining goals, and committing the necessary possessions in advance. In simple, it is decide on what to do how to do and who is to do, with reference to an activity in the procedure of administration. Many definitions are accessible, on planning and the mainly widely quoted definitions are discussed here. Simon and his associates describe planning as the activity that concerns itself with proposals for the future, with the evaluation of alternative proposals, and with the methods through which these proposals may be achieved. Planning is rational, adaptive thought applied to the future and to matters over which the planners, or the administrative organisation with which they are associated, have some degree of control. According to Peter Drucker, "Planning is the continuous procedure of creation present risk taking decisions systematically and with the best possible knowledge of their futurity, organizing systematically the efforts needed to carry out these decisions, and measuring the results of these decisions against the expectations through organized systematic feedback." Millet describes planning as the procedure of determining objectives of administrative efforts and of devising the means calculated to achieve them. Planning is a conscious activity of rationalizing the decision creation processes in an organisation. It is, according to Dimock and Dimock, 'an organised attempt to anticipate and to create rational arrangements for dealing with future troubles through projecting trends.' Planning is indispensable to administrative procedure as decisions to realise the goals limit the range of choices accessible to the administration owing to limited possessions.

Despite its obvious importance, administrative planning is rarely discussed

and followed in administration. We are more familiar with economic planning or financial planning, but we know very little about the nature and methods of administrative planning. Yet every administrator who has earned some reputation in the profession does follow some sort of a planned approach to his job. It is understood more as personal ability than some type of transferable knowledge.

The general tradition has been that the government departments function with very little formal planning. There are several reasons for this state of affairs. As John Garrett: who was a member of the consultancy group employed through the Fulton Committee in England (1968), pointed out: "There has 'been a body of opinion in the higher Civil Service, though it is now diminishing, that systematic research and planning has little relevance to its work. Concentration upon the awareness of ministerial responsibility tends to put a low valuation on systematic research-based planning and a high one on rapid reaction to the topic of the day."

Predominance of politics, job security, absence of price signals or profit motive are some of the major reasons for lack of sustained planning effort in government. Also planning, awareness has been low in government often because of the absence of clear objectives and standards against which attainment could be measured with a degree of precision. In spite of this deficiency in government operations, the need for planning has been widely acknowledged, and several methods and techniques are now being proposed to create planning a reality in government. The socio-economic and political environment of government is never static, and governments everywhere are struggling hard to cope with changes both at home and abroad. Again, possessions are always scarce and they have to be allocated in the middle of competing alternatives to maximize production and achieve all-round social satisfaction.

All these reasons are compelling enough to accept planning as an essential first step in governmental operations. Planning, be it economic or financial, is forward-thinking. It involves a methodical mental exercise about attainment of results through means of advance preparation of activities scheduling. Therefore, planning essentially involves 'simulation' of activities sequences. The real aim in planning is to achieve planned results which may be anything like increased agricultural productivity, reducing infant mortality, removing illiteracy, etc. With more and more cost consciousness in government now and because of rising result-orientation in Public Administration in recent times, administrative planning has assumed critical importance in government all over the globe. In a developing country such as ours, rapid socio-economic reconstruction depends approximately exclusively on large-scale and varied public programmes and projects. In this context, administrative planning has a crucial role to play. It is now universally acknowledged that administrative

planning is the key to planned development and attainment of planned results. In the developing countries, there is urgency about time-bound fulfillment of targets and achievements. For instance, in India every five-year plan sets down targets for each sector such as agriculture, irrigation, electricity etc. In this context, administrative planning becomes a critical input in target fulfillment.

NATURE OF PLANNING

Planning follows policy making. These two activities are separate but interrelated. Policies lay down the fundamental principles of governmental action. They give the framework within which planning has to take place. They set the conditions of reference within which plans are formulated. Planning is a procedure, while a plan is a product. As a procedure, planning involves deciding in advance what is to be done and how. Decision-making and planning are obviously closely related. Planning is also decision-making; yet it is more than decision-making. A plan is oriented towards the future and has an action implication. It is projective and involves a vision and a perspective. A decision fundamentally involves selection of an alternative in the middle of several choices. Concern for the future and for a chain of activities need not necessarily be its hallmark. At all the dissimilar stages of planning, decisions, though, are of paramount importance.

KINDS OF PLANNING

Planning is of several kinds. Based on time it is categorized as short term and long term planning. There is micro and macro stage planning. The former concentrates attention on a specific area and the latter refers to the whole area of the organisation. There is also physical planning which deals with spatial characteristics. Dimock and Dimock identify three kinds of planning: (1) national economic planning dealing with the whole of economy or a part of it; (2) top level administrative planning for the government as a whole or for its principal departments or agencies; and (3) operational planning which is primarily concerned with carrying out the objectives. As students of Public Administration we will revise dissimilar characteristics of administrative planning, particularly policy and programme planning and activity and central planning.

Policy Planning and Programme Planning

Policy planning is concerned with preparation of broad policy guidelines of the government in power. It normally involves a new enactment or

amendments to an existing legislation. Programme planning involves operationalisation of policy into specific objectives. This is done through identifying specific purposes, allocation of responsibilities, identification of specific departments and agencies to handle dissimilar purposes; and fixing responsibility for results. Administrative agencies participate in both kinds of planning. In policy planning they assist the policy makers in government; while in programme planning they clarify their role and direction. Policy planning invokes more legislative action and a large number of actors in the policy creation procedure. As such it is more complex when compared to programme planning. On the other hand, programme planning involves more administrative and professional context to work out the details. Therefore policy planning sets the broad goals for administrative action. It is more a matter of value thoughts of political crossways in the government. Once the policy is decided, the administrative agencies of the government have to implement it. This is subject to periodical review and feedback.

Programme planning is a continuous procedure within the public policy. Though, the administrative agencies cannot be totally delinked from policy formulation procedure. The political power is distributed in the middle of the legislative, executive and judicial branches. Administrative organisations work under the varying influences of these branches.

Departmental heads participate in policy formulation exercise through sending proposals, information and data required through the executive and the legislature. Sometimes the administrative agencies determine crucial issues of public policy through interpreting the policy directives. Higher stage civil servants such as the secretaries of the government departments and the chief executives of public enterprises are part of the decision-creation exercise in the government. Administrative agencies have relatively more involvement and participation in programme planning. Though, their actions are subject to the review and supervision of legislature and its committees. This is more so at the time of legislative debates on the budget sanctions for several departments and agencies. Though planning is essentially an administrative functions, it cannot be separated from public policy and decision-creation. In other words, planning is a good instance of political and administrative coordination.

Activity Planning and Central Planning

Planning at dissimilar departmental stages and below is concerned with specific activities. These activities are part of a programme. For instance, the welfare programmes for children can be divided into activities such as nutrition, education, health facilities, etc. Detailed plans have to be formulated to facilitate implementation of each activity. Accordingly the quantity (how much), quality (how best), and time (through what date) limits are set and the

personnel responsible for achieving the results are recognized. This is recognized as activity planning or operational planning.

While creating activity plans, the administrators have to maintain the clarity of purpose. The boundaries of each activity is to be clearly demarcated and defined. It helps in measuring the performance of each activity plan against its objectives. Central planning is concerned with monitoring and appraisal of several activity plans at a departmental stage. This appraisal has three objectives. Firstly, it goes into the preparation of plans, data base, assumptions, reasonableness of the targets and possessions, reasonableness of the time targets, and the adequacy of the administrative machinery to accomplish the targets. Secondly, it goes into the interrelationships in the middle of many activities with reference to linkages. Finally, the review and appraisal concentrates on the scope of the work to be accomplished under each activity, with reference to budgetary provisions and the government's priorities. Therefore, central planning keeps a watch on activity planning.

Planning Procedure

Goal Clarification and Determination objectives

The first step in the planning procedure is concerned with goal clarification and determination of objectives. No doubt this is an exceedingly hard task in government. A hard search is necessary to find out the vital purpose and the major objectives of government programmes. Action has to take place within the framework of purpose and objectives. For instance, a slogan like 'garibi hatao' is not very helpful in administrative parlance. It has to be operationalised into clearly achievable concrete action plans.

Forecast the Future

The inevitable after that step is to forecast the future and try to see through the darkness of the coming years as clearly as possible. The time-horizon of planning may be vary. Understanding of the future probabilities starts with an adequate knowledge of existing circumstances. Detailed knowledge of the present position is helpful in creating future projections. It might be necessary to stage out an action plan and watch performance at each specific stage.

Outlining Alternative Courses of Action

Alternative courses of action in conditions of programmes and projects are set forth at the after that stage. The planner outlines the alternative for the benefit of the decision makers who are to finally create choices out of them.

This exercise is necessary from the point of view of minimization of costs and maximization of benefits.

Mobilization of Possessions

The after that step will involve mobilization of possessions to back up the actual course of action. Finance, manpower and materials have to be quantified and properly assessed at this stage.

Organizational Planning

Another step in the planning procedure involves organizational planning including planning of methods and procedures. The existing organisation may have to be modified marginally or changed considerably. New procedures may have to be adopted to facilitate the pursuit of planned action. The plan procedure invariably contains a built-in arrangement for reporting and feedback in order that the results of action can be measured and corrective steps taken in case of malfunctioning. Administrative planning subsumes financial planning, personnel planning, resource planning and organizational planning. The whole exercise is directed toward the manipulation of critical organizational possessions to bring about planned changes.

PLANNING TECHNIQUES

Several techniques have been evolved to facilitate governmental planning and create it more and more precise and scientific. Planning, Programming and Budgeting System (PPBS), Programme Evaluation Review Technique (PERT), and Critical Path Method (CPM), Management Information System, Cost Benefit Analysis, Organizational Planning are but a few techniques very much use in government today. We shall now briefly discuss about each of them.

The Planning-Programming-Budgeting System (PPBS) has been widely used in the U.S'. Government. It has also been put to limited use in the Government of India. This technique grew out of Robert McNamara's quest for economic rationality in defense expenditure, when he was the U.S. Defense Secretary. Very briefly, the steps involved in PPBS are as follows:

The department's objectives have to be defined clearly and the programmes needed to accomplish the objectives have to be outlined.

The output of each programme has to be cautiously calculated in relation to the objectives.

Total costs of the programme have to be worked out as clearly as possible.

Within a long range and perspective view of the future, programme planning has to be undertaken on multi-year basis.

The programme objectives have to be rigorously reviewed and their outputs and costs examined cautiously. Ultimately, one has to arrive at the mainly effective means of producing a desired output at the lowest cost; and

The last step would be to integrate PPB into the budgetary procedure as it rolls on from year to years.

One of the mainly widely used network techniques is Programme Evaluation and Review Technique and Critical Path Method. In PERT/CPM, the activities to be accomplished in completing a project are recognized. It involves steps ranging from the start to the completion of a large project. All these steps involved are written in a diagram, showing the sequence of events in an orderly manner. The time required to complete each activity, personnel required, possessions, and expenditure on each activity are estimated. The network diagram undergoes modifications, until a harmonious combination of time, possessions and costs is reached. Responsibility for completion of each activity is allotted to a position holder in the administration. The network is used to monitor and review the progress of work. Time and cost over runs are recognized in advance and appropriate action is initiated.

Administrative planning has to take care of organizational planning as well. Specific government departments are involved in the performance of allotted activities. It is necessary to bring about a secure fit flanked by organisation and planned activities. Administrative planning, since it charts out future courses of action, has to depend on reliable data and information. Proper systems of data storage and retrieval become relevant in this context. What is recognized as Management Information System has now been accepted as an indispensable aid to planning and decision-creation. After all, administrative planning is meant to bring about desired changes within the governmental organisation or in some specific sectors or characteristics of society. Hence, planning has to rely on the techniques of projection and forecasting.

LOCATION OF PLANNING ACTIVITIES

The task of administrative planning can be undertaken at several stages of an organisation. But the total task of an organisation can be visualized only from the top stage. Hence organisation-wide planning is the job of top management. In doing such an exercise, the lower stages need to be consulted and their participation sought. The (MBO) Management through Objective

kind technique is often adopted through progressive managers to enlist the support of lower stage functionaries in planning and to execute the tasks at their stages. Such desegregated approach to task performance does, of, presuppose a conception of the total task of the organisation.

In management parlance, planning is normally measured as an activity which belongs to the 'staff' segment of an organisation. Through contrast the 'line' segment is conventionally treated as the implementing agency. While this distinction is broadly true, it needs to be emphasized that the 'line' segment also gets involved in 'planning' activity when it comes to executing the jobs entrusted to it. What actually happens is that the 'staff' agencies that are placed closest to top management engage in 'macro' planning or organisation-wide planning, while the 'line' agencies undertake their respective planning functions at the 'micro' or specific operational stages.

TROUBLES IN PLANNING

Policies and plans, unless implemented have no meaning. In implementation they encounter several a problem both structural and value-oriented. We shall now discuss a few such troubles of planning.

Means and ends

It is hard to control the behaviour of people to the full extent. Human beings can only be partially controlled. A person can weaken a systematically prepared plan. In such circumstances, the objectives will be lost. For instance, government coins with a plan to improve the financial position of a local body so that it is possible to implement some welfare programmes. But, a tax consultant can help people in avoiding payment of taxes or at least avoid paying the correct amount of taxes. A planner has to keep this problem in mind while preparing plans. He has to see that there is large scale acceptance of the plans through the citizens. He also has to be careful with the means through which he is going to implement the plan. Sometimes the ends of a plan may be really genuine. But, if the means are not up to the acceptance stages of the community, such plans are bound to fail.

Government structure

Plans may fail if the government structure which is entrusted with the responsibility for their implementation is deficient. For instance if the government structure is not given enough possessions in conditions of men and materials to implement a plan, it is doubtful whether the plan succeeds, A

plan to improve literacy stages in villages will not succeed if it is not provided with a structure which allots possessions and monitors the utilization of such possessions. Another characteristic is that a politician who has a part in implementation of a plan is concerned about the after that election, whereas an administrator has a long term view of such a plan and its success. But, both are part of the planning procedure. When the politician takes a short term view and the administrator takes a long term view of the same problem, it faces difficulties.

Values of people

One of the mainly significant factors influencing implementation of a plan is the values and ethics of administrators. The success of a plan depends on them. If an administrator is not having the right values, he may either defeat the very purpose of a plan or use the plan for his personal ends. For instance, the mid-day meal scheme for school children planned through Andhra government could not be successful because of lack of right values on the part of people administering the plan.

AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

AUTHORITY: MEANING AND DEFINITION

Authority is the foundation of administration in public life. It is normally exercised in a formalized structure of hierarchy in an organisation. It is the legitimate power to influence the behaviour of a person or a groups of persons. According to Max Weber, authority is the willing and unconditional compliance of people, resting upon their belief that it is legitimate for the superior to impose his will on them and illegitimate for them to refuse to obey. Henry Fayol, defined authority as the right to provide orders and the power to exact obedience. Therefore, authority is the legitimate right to command or influence others to behave toward the attainment of specific goals of an administrative system. In the administrative system, each position has specific rights that job holders acquire from the title of the position. As Allen puts it, "authority is the sum of the powers and rights entrusted to create possible the performance of work delegated". Though, authority is not just confined to the commands, rights and instructions of superiors in organisations. The other equally significant side of authority is obedience and acceptance. Chester Barnard was one of the writers who had recognized the importance of obedience and acceptance in the organizational procedure. According to him, "authority is the character of a communication in a formal organisation through virtue of which it is accepted through a contributor to or member of the organisation as governing or determining what he does or is not to do so

far as the organisation is concerned.” In other words, authority is the legitimate right to guide a person's behaviour in an organisation subject to the condition that the person accepts that right through showing his obedience to it.

AUTHORITY AND POWER

Authority is an inseparable part of rights inherent to a position. These rights are constant, irrespective of the persons holding the position. In other words, authority is legitimate and positional. Power is the capability to influence the decision-creation of an authority holder. Power may be described as the influence to change the behaviour of a person or persons, to suit the power holder's objectives and advantages. Authority is closely related to the concept of power. Administrative system and several administrative organisations and offices are involved in exercising their powers in the government. Therefore, authority may be defined as the legitimate power of office holders in administrative organisations. Power not supported through law, constitution and norms is illegitimate. Illegitimate power is dangerous to the society. The legitimate power or authority is the servant of the people and it should not become the master of the people in a democratic society. Legitimate power or authority is to be used in public interest in a society. To safeguard the people in general from illegitimate power we have many mechanisms that act as limits and controls. We will discuss these issues in the section on controls on authority.

APPROACHES TO THE REVISE OF AUTHORITY

The concept of authority in an administrative organisation can be studied from three significant stand points. They are:

Legal characteristics of authority: It covers the genesis, sources, rules and norms which describe the scope and limits to authority.

Positional characteristics of authority: It covers the rights, duties and responsibilities of dissimilar position holders in organisations and their status in the organisation.

Human characteristics of authority: It covers the inter-personal relations, cooperation, communication and acceptance characteristics of authority in organisations.

You will have a proper view of authority if you understand it beside these three dimension's As each one of these dimensions gives only a partial view of the concept of authority, there is a need to revise authority from all these three

dimensions. Moreover, Public Administration is based upon law and constitution, legal and constitutional provisions are given paramount importance in the society, and the legal basis of authority is very significant in running the affairs of the nation. In organisations, the legitimacy of authority is more significant than other things. Another significant characteristic is its acceptance through the people. These two factors constitute the whole meaning and substance of administrative processes in a society.

Other characteristics that matter in the administrative procedure are the personality thoughts. Administrators have to possess wisdom and good judgment so that their authority is accepted through those concerned without question or comment. The nature of goals and decisions of the administrators are to be seen as acceptable, viable and in the best interests of the people. The administrators have to possess leadership skills to create an effective use of authority vested in them. That is why, normally people with leadership skills are effective in achieving acceptance to their authority from the people in general. Persons without leadership qualities normally fail to get acceptance from the people despite their authority and position in the organisation. Therefore, we have to keep in mind the three significant dimensions of authority, while learning it.

There is another way of learning authority. We know that in the administrative procedure, there are three significant stages, viz., (1) the creation of a decision on a matter concerning an individual or a group or groups of people, (2) the communication of that decision to those concerned and (3) the implementation of the decision in spirit and letter. All these stages involve the use of authority through those vested with it and the acceptance through those sheltered through the actions.

SOURCES OF AUTHORITY

Administrative agencies play a vital role in running the public affairs, achieving the goals and objectives of the government, and protecting the public interests from the actions of vested interests in the society. The three sources of authority in administrative agencies are:

- Law
- Tradition
- Delegation

We shall discuss about these three sources of authority.

Law

Several characteristics of authority have their genesis in the constitution. Other characteristics come from dissimilar laws and legislative enactments. Judicial interpretations, precedents and case laws also provide authority to the administrative personnel. The superior subordinate relationship in organisations, hierarchy and division of labour speak about authority relationships in organisations. They also describe the right to command and the duty to obey in an organisation.

Tradition

The authority conferred through law itself is not enough to command obedience. Traditions play a significant part in administration as a source of authority. Normally, organisations over a period of time develop norms, codes and work habits. These norms and codes speak about the obedience given to dissimilar authorities in dissimilar situations. For instance, in a situation if a scrupulous officer is not there, who will officiate in that position depends on norms and codes in the organisation. The norms and codes are partly developed through practices and traditions and partly developed through training and indoctrination in the work place. The administrative personnel provide due respect to authority and maintain it as a major value in the profession of administration. Dissimilar persons working in organisations recognize this authority as one of the main ingredients helping the organisation in achieving its purposes through coordination.

Delegation

Top administrators or heads of departments and units confer authority on their subordinates through delegation. Therefore, delegation acts as a source of authority in organisations. This can be written or oral, but always concerns with a purpose. In fact one of the functions of an administrator is to develop his subordinates to shoulder higher responsibilities. This is achieved through delegating them some of the authority to achieve a purpose of the organisation. While delegating authority enough care is to be taken to see that there is equal responsibility to judiciously use that authority for a public purpose.

Therefore, the law, tradition and delegation play an effective role in granting authority to the administrative personnel. The proof of authority in the official orders is seen through quoting the source. For instance, some times the authority holder puts his official seal or stamp. In other cases, the authority is explained in descriptive conditions through using expressions like "Through order of the government of....." The titles, ranks and positions provide a clue to

the source of authority. Some proof of the source of authority is a necessity in getting acceptance from the society in general and those concerned in scrupulous. This creates administrative communication and orders effective.

PRE-REQUISITES AND ADEQUACY OF AUTHORITY

It is whispered traditionally that authority in an administrative system flows from the top to the bottom, The top can be the society at large, or the government, or the parliament. It need not necessarily be a scrupulous decision maker like the minister or a civil servant. On the other hand, Chester Barnard views that authority comes from the bottom. According to his argument, authority of a position holder depends upon the acceptance through his subordinates. If he is not accepted, it is seen in the behaviour of his subordinates. It shows the position holder's capability to handle authority. According to Bayard, four circumstances are required to facilitate acceptance of authority in an administrative system. They are:

- The subordinate's necessity be able to understand the communication of the person holding authority.

- The subordinate should feel that this communication is constant with the purpose of the administrative system.

- The matter of communication is in tune with the personal interests of the subordinate; and

- The subordinate is mentally and physically in a fit position to carry out the instructions

given in the communication.

It may be measured that the superiors have no authority, in case the subordinates do not accept the authority. Therefore, the subordinates have option of disobeying even legitimate authority, if they so choose. In other words, Barnard proposes that there are limits to legitimate authority. To obtain acceptance outside the limits, which is described through Barnard as the outside of zone of indifference, an authority holder has to use his skills which are not part of his positional authority. Barnard's contention is that the traditional view of authority (that it can be accepted out without question) is not correct in today's administrative organisations. This designates the need for developing leadership skills on the part of administrative personnel to use their authority effectively to achieve the organizational purposes. Another issue is that whether the authority that is accessible to the administrative personnel is adequate to carry on their duties effectively? To answer this, first of all we have to look at the factors that are responsible for the authority of administrative personnel in the society. A number of authors including Machiavellian and Max Weber have explained three factors that contribute to

the authority of the administrative personnel. They are discussed below.

Career jobs

Administrators enjoy the benefit of career jobs. This guarantees permanency which is not accessible to other participants in the society. Chief executives of the government may come and go and the same is the case with parliamentarians, legislators and public men. Government officials have tenure in their jobs and their decisions have a lasting impact on the lives of people in general.

Expertise

Administrative personnel possess knowledge and skills as a result of their education and experience in the job. With the result they have more skills and expertise in a subject when compared to any other section in the society. As Rourke opines, that in the modern society this expertise is pre-eminently from the fact that a diversity of highly trained administrators practice their trade in public organisations. These personnel keep a hold on skills and information that is required to formulate and to implement public policy. Therefore the skill to use the skills and information contributes to the authority of administrative personnel.

Outside support

Because of their career jobs and expertise, public administrators have access to many interest groups in the society. These groups lend their support to the public administrators as an exchange for their services, both formally and informally. Despite these above three strong factors facilitating exercise of authority, we often hear administrators complaining that their existing powers from the sources of authority are not adequate to handle public affairs and they ask for more authority. We are also aware of the practice that governments come with more and more laws on subjects such as finance, law and order or trade and commerce to provide more powers to the administrators. This gives rise to a situation the administrative personnel can not keep in mind the laws & enactments due to their large number. It is hard to decide the adequacy of authority just through laws and enactments. Administrators have to depend on traditions and they have to develop leadership skills to deal effectively with the situations rather than just asking for more and more powers. Millet emphasizes the need for adequate authority in four areas to effectively carry out their functions. They are:

Programme authority: Administrators should have adequate powers in deciding the goals and objectives of administrative activities within the limits set through law.

Organizational authority: Administrators should have enough powers to make and organize structure appropriate to implement the programmes and policies effectively.

Budgetary authority: Administrators should have powers to determine budgetary needs as per the programme objectives and priorities.

Personnel authority: Administrators should have adequate powers to appoint personnel, assign them appropriate tasks and functions, and to appraise their performance periodically. They should also have powers to reward and take disciplinary action. Within an organisation, administrators need power to motivate, appraise and discipline several categories of personnel in carrying on the day to day affairs of the administrative agencies. The highest power is to dismiss a person from an organisation after due procedure of law and procedures. The lesser and lighter punishments are suspensions of several kinds, withholding a promotion, withholding a pay increase, changing the duties, transferring to another place, and official censure. All these methods are used to enforce discipline and to improve performance of several job holders in the organisations. In all the cases deployment of authority to meet organizational purposes is seen. On the positive side, promotions, pay increases, letters of appreciation, etc., are used to improve the morale in the organisation.

Unless the administrators have adequate powers in the above areas, it is hard for them to achieve the organizational goals. Any deficiency in any one of the above areas will not guarantee administrative performance. More powers in one area will also be counter productive to the cause of successful administration. State legislatures and parliament have to keep these matters in view while creation enactments.

LIMITS TO AUTHORITY

Authority comes from a source, In other words, there is a source which can exert control on the use of authority. Such controls are required to check misuse and abuse of authority for illegitimate purposes. These controls are discussed below:

Legislative Controls

Parliament and the state legislatures influence and control the authority of administrators through creation them accountable for their actions. They

provide guidelines to the administrative organisations through dissimilar ministries and consultative committees. They also go into the working of public enterprises and other government agencies. Throughout discussions on the budgets, the performance of dissimilar departments comes for review. In specific cases, parliament members or members of a state legislature can raise discussion on the functioning of a department or the functioning of a scrupulous position holder or position holders. These steps act as controls on the exercise of authority through the administrative agencies.

Courts

Law courts and administrative tribunals while going into specific matters involving administrative agencies and their personnel review their actions. The judicial pronouncements act as effective controls on the working of administrative agencies. Individual citizens and organised groups question the actions and functioning of government agencies and personnel through law suits. In addition, commissions of enquiry on the functioning of government agencies provide their views to the government for further action. In all these cases, the administrative actions are scrutinized and reviewed. This helps in checking the misuse or abuse of authority.

Constitutional Safeguards

Citizens of our country can appeal to the President of the Republic or to the State Governors against the actions of administrative personnel, if their grievances are not taken note of through the other agencies. In addition in some states, there is the institution of LOK AWKTA, which can look into the specific complaints against office holders in government. These mechanisms work as controls on the misuse of authority of administrative personnel.

Press and the Media

The press and the media act as a mechanism of control on the authority holders in administration. Through periodical news reporting, several actions of the government and its agencies are put to public scrutiny. The press can mobilize public opinion against misdeeds of officials or the government agencies. The press can also raise the matters involving public interest in a court of law. Organised interest groups such as social action groups, environmentalists and social reformers use the press to check the misuse of office through government agencies.

Hierarchy

In an administrative organisation, there are dissimilar stages of officials and staff with varying degrees of authority and responsibility. The actions of an administrator are under the supervision and control of his immediate superior in the organizational hierarchy. Therefore, it acts as an internal control mechanism on the administrative personnel. In a democratic society, these are some of the significant control mechanisms on the administrative agencies. Above all these mechanisms, the concept of administrative responsibility acts as a restraint on the misuse of authority.'

RESPONSIBILITY

Responsibility is the obligation to carry out sure duties. It has an inseparable relationship with authority. Without authority it is not possible to take up responsibility. An administrator, while giving authority to his subordinates should also create them responsible for exercising authority judiciously and purposefully. Responsibility is of two types, viz., operating responsibility and ultimate responsibility. An administrator can delegate operating responsibility to his subordinates but not the ultimate responsibility.

The ultimate responsibility can never be delegated. The three concepts of authority, responsibility and accountability are the integral parts of the procedure of administration. Authority is the right to command, responsibility is the duty to carry out the command, and the accountability is the term used to denote the proper discharge of the duties in letter and spirit. A person's responsibility is complete only when the duties are done according to the letter and spirit of the command. According to traditional administrative theory, there is a distinction flanked by two forms of authority relationships, viz., line authority and staff authority. Line authority denotes direct and ultimate responsibility for achieving results. Staff authority is a supporting function in helping line authority in its endeavour. Line authority can be equated to a superiors' authority, while staff authority can be equated to that of the staff. Staff authority is advisory in nature. One way of differentiating line and staff is through defining its role in the ultimate responsibility in achieving the results,

KINDS OF RESPONSIBILITY

Responsibility denotes the accountability of the authority holders for achieving results in the administrative procedure. The concept of responsibility is a guardian against misuse of authority. Responsibility in the

administrative procedure is of three kinds, viz., political, institutional and professional. We shall now discuss these three kinds of responsibility.

Political Responsibility

In a parliamentary system of government the mainly significant control on administration is political responsibility. There is ministerial responsibility for the actions of a ministry and the departments under it for their actions and functions. The ultimate responsibility for the success or failure rests on the minister concerned. This acts as a control device on the functioning of administrative agencies and offices under a department in a ministry. The minister as a political functionary gives guidance in policy matters and the implementation is given to the administrative agencies of dissimilar kinds including the public enterprises. The political head is ultimately responsible to the chief executive and to the legislature for the working of the administrative machinery under his control. This responsibility will

bear fruit, only when there is cooperation from the administrative machinery comprising a large number of officials at dissimilar stages. If the officials are not cooperative, the minister concerned has to face the criticism for non-performance from the chief executive and the legislature. In extreme cases the minister concerned may have to create an exit, in view of political responsibility for performance. To create the political responsibility of the minister fruitful and purposeful, the official machinery has to cooperate with his policies and programmes, which are actually the policies and programmes of the government of the day.

Institutional Responsibility

An administrative agency or institution has to be responsible and responsive to public welfare. Otherwise, it may be hard for it to exist in the long run. In other words, in its own interest, it has to be responsible and work in public interest. We have examples of reorganization of official agencies, through mergers and integration to meet the public needs. Some organisations and institutions in course of time become self centered and work for themselves, ignoring the fact that they exist to serve the people. Such institutions will face troubles of survival in the long run. Though, administrative agencies and departments fight tooth and nail to protect their own interests and identity. This throws a challenge to the political masters and to society in general to initiate action through organizational changes to bring out order in the work of public organisations.

Professional Responsibility

When compared to the past, today a number of specialists such as doctors, engineers, scientists, accountants, company secretaries, lawyers and a host of other specialist and professionals are entering into administrative services and public enterprises. As professionals, they have ethics and codes of conduct which they have to maintain in discharging their duties. Moreover, professional institutions also enforce discipline and responsibility on their members. In extreme cases, professional institutions terminate the membership of a person when he is found guilty of malpractices. There are also instances of professionals in the public service quitting their jobs when it comes to the question of professional standards and integrity. This ethical responsibility is not just confined to technical personnel only. Now a days, administrative personnel and civil servants have developed a professional status and they go through standards and ethics. This is a welcome characteristic in civil services. Professional responsibility is more effectively enforced through the individual conscience of administrative personnel about what constitutes ethically acceptable behaviour and conduct.

AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

A time honored principle is that authority and responsibility should be equal. This means that any officer or employee who is charged with the responsibility of accomplishing any given task necessarily be given authority commensurate with the task to carry it out. In any organisation if the executive is responsible for undertaking a function he should be clothed with the authority to recruit personnel, to incur expenditure and to control the subordinates. If the executives are not given the authority in personnel and financial matters, they should be divorced from their responsibility also. In this context observation of Urwick is noteworthy. He said that "to hold a group or individual accountable for activities of any type without assigning to him or them the necessary authority to discharge that responsibility is manifestly both unsatisfactory and inequitable. It is of great importance to smooth working that at all stages authority and responsibility should be coterminous and coequal". But quality of control, and management through committees and exercise of functional authority create the applicability of this concept hard.

LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION

Legends and myths about what distinguishes 'great leaders' from

'commoners' seem to have always attracted people. Bass writes: 'The revise of leadership rivals in age the emergence of civilization, which shaped its leaders as much as it was shaped through them. From its infancy, the revise of history has been the revise of leaders – what they did and why they did it'. Leadership still fascinates scholars as well as the general public. Though, the term 'leadership' means dissimilar things to dissimilar people. Definitions of leadership vary in conditions of emphasis on leader abilities, personality traits, influence relationships, cognitive versus emotional orientation, individual versus group orientation, and appeal to self versus communal interests. Definitions also vary in whether they are primarily descriptive or normative in nature as well as in their relative emphasis on behavioral styles. Leadership is sometimes distinguished from management or seen as one of many managerial roles. Bryman states that mainly definitions of leadership emphasize three main elements: *group*, *influence*, and *goal*.

Another way to view leadership is in conditions of the dissimilar *domains* leadership encompasses. Mainly approaches to leadership have been leader-centered. Though, one can distinguish flanked by the leader, follower, and relationship domain of leadership. In all three domains dissimilar stages of analysis can be the focus of investigation. According to Graen and Uhl-Bien, leader behavior and features and their effects are the primary issues of concern in the leader-based domain. A follower-based approach would lead to hypotheses focusing on follower issues such as follower features, behaviors, and perceptions or topics such as empowerment. A relationship-based model takes the relationship flanked by leader and follower as the starting point for research and theory structure. Issues of concern are reciprocal influence and the development and maintenance of effective relationships. Graen and Uhl-Bien note that a multiple domain approach should be taken more often and that 'careful sampling from multiple domains within the same investigation should account for more of the potential leadership contribution, and therefore augment the predictive validity and practical usefulness of our studies'.

As stated, mainly research in the leadership field so far has been done from a leader-centered point of view. The following section presents an overview of the major growths in leadership research and theory to date. This is followed through a more extensive treatment of the mainly recent trend in leadership research, which focuses on so-described charismatic, transformational, or inspirational leadership. The rising importance of global and international world business makes a strong demand for managers who are sophisticated in international management and skilled at working with people from other countries. This has led to increased attention for cross-cultural perspectives the leadership field. So, the topic of international and cross-cultural research into leadership is also discussed. A discussion of the future of leadership and future leadership research concludes this chapter.

TRENDS AND GROWTHS IN LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

Leadership has been an significant topic of investigation, especially in North America, for several decades. Many main trends can be distinguished in the development of the revise of leadership. Prior to the 1980s the main approaches to leadership were the *trait*, *style*, and *contingency* approach. A new stage did not necessarily mean the previous stage was totally abandoned; rather, a shift in emphasis occurred.

Many alternative ways to conceptualize and revise leadership have had a profound influence on the development of ideas about and research into leadership from the early 1980s onward. Below, the three aforementioned main trends and many of these alternative approaches to leadership will be described.

The Trait Approach

Early research into leadership can be characterized as a search for ‘the great man.’ Personal features of leaders were accentuated and the implicit thought was that leaders are born rather than made. All leaders were supposed to have sure stable features that made them into leaders. The focus was on identifying and measuring traits that distinguished leaders from non-leaders or effective from ineffective leaders. From these distinctions flanked by leaders and nonleaders, a profile of an ‘ideal’ leader could be derived, which could serve as the basis for selection of future leaders.

Three main categories of personal features were incorporated in the search for the ‘great man.’ First, *physical* characteristics, such as height, physique, appearance, and age. Second, *skill* features such as intelligence, knowledge, and fluency of speech. And third, *personality* traits such as dominance, emotional control and expressiveness, and introversion–extraversion. Research up to 1950 failed to yield a constant picture of leader traits, so research into this area slowed. After about 25 years the interest in traits possessed through leaders revived. In 1974, after reviewing 163 studies that had been reported flanked by 1949 and 1970, Stogdill showed that contrary to what had been concluded from earlier reviews, many universal personal traits and skills were indeed associated with leadership. Other studies have also shown that traits or personal features do indeed play a more important role in leadership than was concluded earlier. Kirkpatrick and Locke’s review suggests that drive, a desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive skill, and knowledge of the business are personal features that distinguish leaders from nonleaders. Other traits predicting effective leadership contain: high energy stage and stress tolerance, internal locus of control orientation, emotional maturity, socialized power motivation, moderate attainment motivation, and a low need for affiliation.

The kind of ‘traits’ under consideration in this ‘reviving’ trait approach are

dissimilar from the early studies. Bryman warns that there is a danger that the term 'trait' becomes so stretched that it applies to any variable on which leaders and nonleaders differ, even sure behavioral patterns such as those discussed below. Therefore, although there has been a resurgence of interest in the trait approach, the way in which traits are treated has changed. Also, traits are now measured beside with other variables. Disillusionment followed the lack of empirical proof for the subsistence of a 'leadership trait profile' in the early years of trait research. This led to a new emphasis in leadership research, the style approach.

Leadership Style

The second major trend in researching leadership accentuated *leader behavior*. The focus shifted from who leaders are to what leaders do (behavioral style). In this approach, effectiveness of leaders is dependent on the exerted leadership style. Whereas the trait approach focused on stable personal features which were usually thought to be largely innate (implying selection of effective leaders rather than training), the style approach implied that leadership is a behavioral pattern, which can be learned. Therefore, according to this approach, once one was able to discover the 'right' style, people could be trained to exhibit that behavior and become better leaders.

Mainly influential in this period was almost certainly the series of questionnaire-based Ohio State studies. The Ohio State researchers concluded that leadership style could best be described as varying beside two dimensions, i.e., '*consideration*' and '*initiating structure*'. A second major research program concerning leader behavior in this period was accepted out at the University of Michigan. The results of these studies show that they found three kinds of leader behavior differentiating flanked by effective and ineffective managers: task-oriented behavior, relationship-oriented behavior, and participative leadership.

Some researchers proposed '*universal*' theories of effective leader behavior, stating that, for instance, effective leaders are both people- and task-oriented, so-described 'high-high' leaders. Blake and Mouton's (1982) managerial grid is an instance of such a 'high-high' theory. Other prominent 'universal' theories were based on the thought that leaders who create extensive use of participative decision procedures are more effective than other leaders.

Criticism of the Style Approach

There have been several criticisms of the style approach. In the middle of the criticisms are the inconsistent findings and measurement troubles, the problem of causality, the problem of the group, informal leadership, and, mainly pressing, the lack of situational analysis. Korman showed that the

magnitude and direction of correlations flanked by leadership styles and outcomes were highly variable and divergent. Often, correlations were not statistically important. Recognized measurement troubles contain response tendencies such as leniency effects and contamination through subordinate's implicit theories of leadership. Assumed causality was a problem in the early studies. These studies were usually cross-sectional, meaning that the notion that leadership style constitutes the independent rather than the dependent variable is an assumption in stead of a conclusion based on investigation of this view. Since then it has been shown that causality can run both ways.

The problem of the group refers to the tendency in leadership research to focus on the group stage rather than the individual or dyad stages of analysis. We will return to this below when briefly discussing the vertical dyad linkage approach as an alternative way to revise leadership. Mainly research described above was directed at formal, designated leaders who might behave dissimilar than informal leaders. Also, where designated leaders are not the actual group leaders the questions are almost certainly not about the 'right' person. Informal and emergent leadership are still rarely studied.

The failure of the style approach to pay attention to situational features that act as possible moderators of the relationship flanked by leadership and outcomes is almost certainly its mainly serious problem. Possible moderators contain task features (e.g., complexity, interdependence) and subordinate features (e.g., experience, motivation), but environmental factors or organizational culture could also influence the shape or form of the relationship flanked by leadership style and outcomes. Attempts to address this situational issue led to the after that main trend, contingency approaches to revise leadership.

Contingency Approaches

As stated, several contingency approaches can be measured as an attempt to repair what researchers saw as the deficiencies of the aforementioned approaches. The main proposition in contingency approaches is that the effectiveness of a given leadership style is *contingent on the situation*, implying that sure leader behaviors will be effective in some situations but not in others.

Fiedler's Model

The earliest contingency theory of leader effectiveness was the theory through Fiedler. Fiedler is well-recognized and heavily criticized for his 'least-preferred-coworker' (LPC) measure. The vital assumption is that a leader's account of the person with whom he has the greatest difficulty working reflects a vital leadership style. A second assumption is that which of the vital leadership styles contributes mainly to group performance varies with the

‘situation favorability.’ This favorability is determined through weighting and combining three characteristics of the situation, namely leader–member relations, position power and task structure. For instance, a situation is least favorable for a leader when leader–member relations are poor, position power is low and the task is unstructured. The model predicts that when the situation is either highly favorable or very unfavorable, low LPC leaders are more effective than high LPC leaders. In intermediate situations, high LPC leaders should be more effective than low LPC leaders. Support for the model is at best weak. Also, the LPC measure and many of the assumptions made in the model (such as the weighting of situation characteristics) are criticized for lacking a theoretical basis. More recently, Fiedler and Garcia (1987) developed a model that deals with the cognitive abilities of leaders (cognitive possessions theory). According to this model, group performance depends on an interaction flanked by two ‘traits’ (leader intelligence and experience), one kind of leadership behavior (directive), and two characteristics of the situation (interpersonal stress and the nature of the group task). So far, there is little empirical support for this model.

Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership theory (SLT) has been a popular basis for leadership training for several years. Originally SLT proposes that leaders should attune their behavior to fit with the ‘maturity’ or in later writings the ‘development stage’ of the team as a whole as well as its individual members. Combining high or low task and relationship behavior makes four dissimilar leadership styles: telling (high task, low relations); selling (high, high); participating (low task, high relations); and delegating (low, low). These styles are more or less appropriate for dissimilar kinds of team members. For team members who are, for instance, low on willingness and skill a ‘telling’ style is appropriate. The empirical proof for the theory is scant.

The Normative Decision-Creation Model

Another widely recognized contingency theory focuses on criteria to determine whether or not a leader should involve subordinates in dissimilar types of decision creation. The importance of using decision procedures that are appropriate for the situation has been recognized for some time. For instance, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) noted that a leader’s choice of decision procedures reflects forces in the leader, the subordinates and the situation. Also, Maier (1963) recognized the need for leaders to consider both the quality necessities of a decision and the likelihood of subordinate acceptance before choosing a decision procedure. Vroom and Yetton (1973) go beyond these approaches. In their model they try to indicate which decision

procedure will be mainly effective in a specific situation. They distinguish five decision procedures, namely two kinds of autocratic decision (AI and AII), two kinds of consultative decision (CI and CII), and one joint decision through leader and group (GII). AI entails that a manager decides without asking others for input such as opinions or suggestions. In AII, a manager gathers the necessary information from subordinates (with or without explaining the problem at hand), then creates the decision. CI means sharing the problem with individual subordinates and considering their ideas and suggestions and CII involves getting them together as a group and sharing the problem. In both C cases, the manager still decides, and the decision may or may not reflect subordinates' opinions. Finally, GII implies sharing the problem with subordinates and that the solution should reflect agreement (consensus) of the group. The manager accepts and implements any decision the group reaches and does not have more influence over the final decision than others.

The Vroom and Yetton model predicts that the effectiveness of these decision procedures depends on many characteristics of the situation, including the amount of relevant information held through leader and subordinates, the likelihood subordinates will accept an autocratic decision, and the extent to which the decision problem is unstructured. The model also gives a set of rules that help identify whether a decision procedure in a given situation is inappropriate (i.e., would it jeopardize decision quality and/ or acceptance?). For instance, when subordinates possess relevant information the leader does not have, an autocratic decision may not be appropriate because the leader would lack relevant information that needs to be measured. This model was updated and extended through Vroom and Jago (1988). Their revised version of the model takes some significant characteristics of the situation into account that the earlier model lacks (e.g., serious time constraints and geographical dispersion of subordinates). The model can be measured normative in the sense that it prescribes 'rules' for leaders to follow in order to create the best decisions under dissimilar circumstances. There is some empirical support for the model; though, it deals with a relatively small part of leadership and also has some conceptual weaknesses.

Path–Goal Theory

The mainly influential and complete contingency theory to date is almost certainly House's path–goal theory of leadership. This dyadic theory of supervision describes how formally appointed superiors affect the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates. House and Mitchell advanced two general propositions: (1) leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent that subordinates see such behavior as either an immediate source of or instrumental to future satisfaction; (2) leader behavior is motivational (i.e., increases follower effort) to the extent that such behavior creates follower need satisfaction contingent on effective performance and to the extent that

such behavior complements the environment of subordinates through providing guidance, support, and rewards necessary for effective performance (1974: 84). Leaders will be effective to the extent that they complement the environment in which their subordinates work through providing the necessary cognitive clarifications to ensure that subordinates expect they can attain work goals (i.e., path-goal clarifying behavior), and to the extent that subordinates experience intrinsic satisfaction and receive valent rewards as a direct result of attaining those work goals (i.e., behavior directed toward satisfying subordinate needs. House and Mitchell (1974) specify four kinds of leader behavior: directive path-goal clarifying behavior, supportive leader behavior, participative leader behavior, and attainment-oriented behavior. Proposed effects of leader behavior contain subordinate motivation, satisfaction, and performance. Task and subordinate features are treated as moderator variables.

Bryman (1992) describes many general troubles with path-goal theory. Several of these troubles are shared with the aforementioned Ohio tradition of investigating leadership style (e.g., inconsistent findings, troubles associated with using group average methods of describing leaders, no attention for informal leadership, troubles with causality and potential measurement troubles). Though, according to Evans (1996) the theory has not adequately been tested.

ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO LEARNING LEADERSHIP

The general dissatisfaction and pessimism that arose from the inconsistent research findings on the dissimilar contingency models stimulated many researchers to search for more or less radical 'remedies' to revive leadership theory. Smith and Peterson (1988) list five such remedies:

- Replace leader style measures through measures of reward and punishment.
- Differentiate flanked by subordinates
- Review the circumstances which call for leadership.
- Look at leaders' perceptions of subordinates.
- Reexamine the basis of subordinates' perceptions of leaders.

A sixth that can be added to these is focusing on the use of power and influence tactics rather than on 'leadership'. These 'remedies' reflect three broad growths. First, the tendency to relate the revise of leadership to theoretical growths in other areas of social, cognitive, and organizational psychology as well as to those in other social sciences. Second, to pay more attention to the role of cognition and perceptions of those (both leaders and subordinates) under revise. Third, to use greater control through more sophisticated statistical techniques and dissimilar methodologies, including experiments.

Reward and Punishment

The first of the five remedies listed above focuses on leader reward and punishment. The analyses of leader's use of reward and punishment rather than leadership style developed from the application of conditioning and cognitive-behavioral models. Podsakoff, Todor and Skov (1982) found that leaders rewarding good performance had subordinates who performed better and were more satisfied than other subordinates. This did not hold for leaders rewarding regardless of performance or punishing leaders.

Differentiating Flanked by Subordinates

The second remedy mentioned above focuses on differentiating flanked by subordinates. Researchers in the leadership field tend to use group average scores rather than individual perceptions as indications for leadership style. This means treating individual followers and their relationship with the leader as interchangeable. The dissimilar exchange that leaders can develop with dissimilar individual subordinates is the focus of the work of Graen and colleagues. Vertical Dyad Linkage and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) focus on the dyadic exchange flanked by leader and subordinate. The general point of the approach through Graen and colleagues is that leaders differentiate flanked by subordinates and that group average perceptions are not necessarily the best reflection of leader behavior. So far, this work does not answer what the basis is for the differentiations leaders create. In their review of this approach, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) place the questions raised in the LMX tradition in the relation-based domain of leadership.

When Do We Need Leadership?

Reviewing the circumstances that do or do not call for leadership is the basis of the substitutes for leadership approach. This is the third remedy listed above. Essentially the substitutes for leadership model posits that there are a diversity of situational variables that can substitute for, neutralize, or enhance the effects of leader behavior. Proposed variables contain subordinate features (e.g., experience, skill), task features (e.g., a routine task, feedback provided through task) and organizational features (e.g., a cohesive work group). Such variables can diminish or amplify the leader's skill to influence subordinates' attitudes, behavior, or performance. The intuitive appeal of this approach is considerable and the model can nowadays be found in mainly textbooks on leadership and organizational behavior. Though, the empirical support for the substitutes for leadership model (testing whether substitutes moderate relationships flanked by leader behavior and subordinate outcome/criterion

variables) has not been encouraging.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer (1996) present a meta-analysis of the relationships flanked by substitutes for leadership and employee attitudes, role perceptions, and performance. Their main effects test (i.e., not a moderator analysis) shows that the combination of substitutes and leader behavior accounted for the majority of variance in attitudes and role perceptions and for some of the variance in performance. The results indicate that in some cases the unique effects of the 'substitutes' on the outcomes are even stronger than the unique effects of the leadership behaviors. This implies that even though the model does not hold, the 'substitutes' themselves are significant to consider in organizational research. More theoretical and empirical work on these issues is necessary.

De Vries, Roe and Taillieu (1999) focus on the 'need for leadership' as a feature of subordinates. As such they use a more follower-centered approach of leadership. The need for leadership reflects the extent to which an employee wishes the leader to facilitate the paths towards goals. De Vries et al. (1999) show that the need for leadership moderates the relationship flanked by charismatic leadership and many outcomes.

The Role of Perception

The after that two remedies focus on leader and subordinate perceptions. When researching how leaders perceive subordinates, leaders are seen as systems processing information about their subordinates. On basis of that information, leaders then choose a strategy to influence a subordinate's behavior in the desired direction. Attribution plays a major role. To what do leaders attribute the cause of subordinates' performance? Leaders can attribute performance (good or bad) either to subordinates themselves or to the circumstances. Bad performance could, for instance, be caused either through subordinates' incompetence or weak effort, or through unforeseen circumstances. Research shows that leaders tend to attribute failure to subordinates and success to themselves. Attributing failure to a subordinate is done mainly when the focal subordinate performs worse than others and when that subordinate has failed before on a similar task. Below, subordinate perceptions of leaders will be described in more detail.

Leader Perception

Being perceived as a leader acts as a prerequisite for being able to go beyond a formal role in influencing others. Therefore, perceptual processes on the part of followers play a crucial role in the leadership procedure as well as in researching leadership.

Mainly people are confronted with leadership approximately daily, either in their job or through the media. As such, those people have ideas about what

type of features leaders should have or should not have and what leaders should or should not do. An individual's implicit leadership theory refers to beliefs held about how leaders behave in general and what is expected of them. 'Implicit theories are cognitive frameworks or categorization systems that are in use throughout information processing to encode, procedure and recall specific events and behavior. An implicit theory can also be conceived as the personalized factor structure we use for information processing'. Implicit leadership theories (ILTs) are seen as personal constructs used to create judgments about leadership. 'While leadership perceptions may not be reality, they are used through perceivers to evaluate and subsequently distinguish leaders from non-leaders. They also give a basis for social power and influence'. ILTs have been used in attempts to explain leadership attributions and perceptions. Furthermore, ILTs have been shown to be a possible bias in the measurement of actual leader behavior.

Leadership perceptions can, according to Lord and Maher be based on two alternative processes. First, leadership can be *recognized* based on the fit flanked by an observed person's features with the perceiver's implicit ideas of what 'leaders' are. This kind of procedure is tied closely to categorization theory. Lord and his colleagues applied the principles of categorization to the field of leadership. They developed a theory on how leader perceptions are shaped, focusing on the knowledge structures used to classify leaders and the actual information processes used in forming and evaluating leadership perceptions. Leadership perceptions are based on cognitive categorization processes in which perceivers match the perceived attributes of potential leaders they observe to an internal prototype of leadership categories. A prototype can be conceived as a collection of feature traits or attributes and the better the fit flanked by the perceived individual and the leadership prototype, the more likely this person will be seen as a leader.

Alternatively, leadership can be *inferred* from outcomes of salient events. Attribution processes are crucial in these inference-based processes. A successful business 'turnaround' is often quickly attributed to the high quality 'leadership' of top executives or the CEO. Another instance of such an inference-based procedure is that attributions of charisma to leaders are more likely when organizational performance is high. In such cases charismatic leadership is inferred from business success. In Meindl's 'romance of leadership' approach, inference-based processes (leadership is inferred from good results) are central to the conception of leadership.

Power and Influence

As Yukl (1998) notes, influence over followers is the essence of leadership. As such, the research through Yukl and associates on power and influence processes can be seen as an alternative way to revise leadership. Power can stem from dissimilar sources. In their well-recognized taxonomy,

French and Raven (1959) describe five sources of power, namely reward power, coercive power, legitimate, referent, and expert power. Though, these five are not complete, for instance, access to and control over information also acts as a significant source of power. Bass (1960) distinguishes between position power and personal power. Position power comprises formal authority, control over punishments, rewards, and information, and ecological control. The latter refers to having control over the physical environment, technology, and organization of work. Personal power is derived from one's relationship to others rather than one's position in the hierarchy. Potential influence based on expertise, friendship, and loyalty can be seen as personal power. Research through Yukl and Falbe (1991) has shown these two kinds of power are relatively independent. Political processes in organizations involve members' efforts to augment or protect their power. Contributing to such political power are: having control over key decisions, forming coalitions, cooptation, and institutionalization.

Influence Tactics

Many studies have looked at influence tactics. Yukl and his colleagues recognized nine proactive influence tactics. The first is *pressure*. Threats, requests, persistent reminding or frequent checking are used to influence the target in the desired direction. The agent can also use *exchange*. This involves offering an exchange of goods/services, promises to return the favor later or promising the target a share in the benefits if the target complies with the request. When using *coalition tactics*, the agent enlists the aid of a third party to persuade the target to do something, or uses the support of others as a cause for the target to agree also. The agent can also resort to *legitimizing tactics*. This involves trying to legitimate a request through claiming the authority or right to create it or through verifying and stressing that it is in accordance with organizational policies, rules, or traditions. Mediators using *rational persuasion* use rational arguments and facts to convince the target that a request is reasonable and viable, and that it is likely to result in the attainment of the objectives. Another tactic is *inspirational appeals*: the agent creates a request or proposes something that arouses the target's interest and enthusiasm through appealing to his or her values, ideals, and aspirations or through rising target self-confidence. The latter tactic Yukl and associates distinguish is *consultation*. The agent asks the participation of the target in planning a strategy, activity, or change that requires target support and assistance, or is willing to modify a proposal to incorporate target suggestions. *Ingratiation* involves the agent using flattery, praise, or friendly behavior to get the target in a good mood or think favorably of the agent before creating a request. Finally, mediators can use *personal appeals* to the target's feelings of friendship and loyalty when asking for something.

The influence tactics are used in dissimilar directions, i.e., not only do

managers try to influence subordinates, but these tactics are also used vice versa and to influence peers. Research shows that inspirational appeals, consultation, ingratiation, exchange, legitimating, and pressure are used more downward (i.e., to influence subordinates) than upward (i.e., to influence superiors) and that rational persuasion is used more upward than downward. There are also differences in sequencing of tactics within a prolonged influence attempt. 'Softer' tactics such as personal and inspirational appeals, rational persuasion, and consultation are used early on, and 'harder' tactics such as pressure, exchange and coalitions are more likely to be used later, as they involve greater costs and risks. Mediators may also use a combination of tactics at the same time. Falbe and Yukl found that some combinations are more effective than others. For instance, combinations of soft tactics such as consultation, and inspirational and personal appeals, were usually more effective than using a single soft tactic. In contrast, combining soft tactics with a harder tactics such as pressure was usually less successful than using a soft tactic alone. Finally, the effectiveness of soft tactics was enhanced through combining them with rational persuasion.

THE 'NEW' LEADERSHIP

From the early 1980s onward a renewed interest in the concept of leadership itself arose in both scientific and professional fields. Meindl notes that this resurgence of interest appears to be accompanied through an acceptance of the distinction flanked by transactional and transformational leadership, with an emphasis on the latter. Quinn compares transactional and transformational leadership with other differentiations in leadership such as relations oriented– task-oriented leadership, consideration–initiating structure and directive–participative or autocratic–democratic leadership. Though, Bass claims that the transactional-transformational model is a new paradigm, neither replacing nor explained through other models such as the relations oriented– task-oriented leadership model. Bryman refers to this new 'paradigm' as 'the new leadership' approach. Conditions used to describe these 'new leaders' contain: transformational, charismatic, 'leaders' (as opposed to managers), transforming, inspirational, visionary, or value-based. Despite the broad array of conditions used through dissimilar authors within this approach, there seem to be more similarities than differences flanked by these views of the phenomenon of leadership. In literature the conditions 'transformational' and 'charismatic' leadership are the mainly often used conditions to refer to this kind of leadership.

The theories attempt to explain how sure leaders are able to achieve extraordinary stages of follower motivation, admiration, commitment, respect, trust, dedication, loyalty, and performance. They also try to explain how some of these leaders succeed to lead their organizations or units to attain

outstanding accomplishments, such as the founding and rising of successful entrepreneurial firms or corporate turnarounds. Comparing House's path-goal theory with his 1976 charismatic theory one could say that path-goal theory focuses on how follower needs and circumstances determine leader behavior, whereas charismatic theory is about how leaders change people rather than respond to them. Another variation is that where in path-goal theory leaders are effective when they complement the environment, the new leadership focuses more on changing and creating the environment.

The Concept of Charisma

Mainly writers concerned with charisma begin their discussion with Max Weber's ideas. Charisma appears in his work on the origins of authority. Weber's charisma concept comprises an exceptional leader, a (crisis) situation, the leader's vision or mission presenting a solution to the crisis, followers who are attracted to the leader and the vision, and validation of the charismatic qualities of the leader through repeated success. These five components are present to some extent in approximately all theories on charisma. The theories differ in how the components are operationalized and in which component is seen as the mainly significant.

CHARISMA AS A PERSONAL ATTRIBUTE OR A SOCIAL RELATIONSHIP?

One of the mainly common views is that charisma is something that people 'have' or 'do not have,' a trait standpoint. There is an undeniable personal factor in the charismatic leadership. Such leaders are viewed through their followers as being special. Rather than treating charisma itself as a personality trait, mainly authors have attempted to distinguish personal factors associated with charismatic leadership. Examples of personal factors that have been named as potentially significant in acquiring and maintaining charisma are: physical features, such as a handsome appearance, piercing eyes, and separate voice.

Psychological leader features, such as high energy and self-confidence, dominance and a strong need for power, and a strong conviction in their own beliefs and ideals. Turner names audacity and determination as crucial personal qualities of leaders. Finally, skill features, such as intelligence and interpersonal skills as well as the leader's eloquence or rhetorical skills. Exclusively defining charisma as a personal attribute or ability does not do justice to reciprocity of the relationship flanked by leader and follower. Weber conceptualized charisma as a naturally fragile and unstable social relationship flanked by leader and follower, in constant need of validation. Following from

Weber's writings, leader features, behavior, and mission, followers' attribution of charisma, the situation, and the validation of charisma all play a role in a complex social relationship. This social relationship perspective does not imply that the thought of the leader as an exceptional person and the personal factors described above are not significant; on the contrary, they are an significant part of the relationship.

Although the emphasis is traditionally on the influence leaders have on followers, some authors emphasize that both followers and leaders are influenced through leadership processes. Burns, for instance, conceptualizes transforming leadership as a two-way procedure; transforming leadership 'raises the stage of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both the leader and the led, and therefore it has a transforming effect on both'.

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

A first major application of charisma to the revise of formal organizations can be found in House whose theory combines personal traits, leader behavior, and situational factors. According to House, four personal features of the leader contribute to charismatic leadership: dominance, self-confidence, need for influence, and a strong conviction of the integrity of one's own beliefs. Charismatic leaders represent their values and beliefs through role modeling. To make a favorable perception with followers they can engage in image structure and express ideological goals (a mission). They communicate high expectations of followers and show confidence in followers' skill to live up to those expectations. And, according to House, charismatic leaders are more likely than no charismatic leaders to arouse motives (e.g., need for attainment) in followers that are relevant to attaining the mission. House assumes charismatic leadership is more likely to arise in stressful situations. A sense of crisis creates the attribution of charisma more likely. House (1977) identifies the following effects of such leadership: follower trust in the correctness of the leader's beliefs, similarity of followers' beliefs to those of the leader, unquestioning acceptance of and willing obedience to the leader, identification with and emulation of the leader, emotional involvement of the follower in the mission, heightened goals of the follower, and a feeling on the part of followers that they will be able to contribute to the accomplishment of the mission.

Charisma and Attribution

Many attribution-based explanations of charismatic leadership can be found in the literature. The mainly 'drastic' dismisses charisma as mere

attribution, virtually unrelated to leader features or behavior. Meindl (1990) speaks of charisma as a social contagion procedure. According to the social contagion view, charismatic elements of leader– follower relations are a function of processes occurring within the context of lateral relationships that develop in the middle of followers and subordinates themselves. The attribution and effects of charisma originate from the group, not from the leader and in that light, leaders are seen as largely interchangeable. The social contagion procedure is instigated through circumstances causing stress or arousing excitement, which can be channeled and defined in conditions of leadership and charisma and set in motion a social contagion procedure in the middle of followers.

A less radical instance of an attribution-based explanation of charisma is the charismatic influence model developed through Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1988). In this model the basis for follower attributions of charisma is the leader's observed behavior, which can be interpreted as expressing charismatic qualities. According to Conger and Kanungo, charismatic leaders can be distinguished from noncharismatic leaders, through:

- Their sensitivity to environmental constraints and follower needs and their skill to identify deficiencies in the status quo;
- Their formulation of an idealized vision and extensive use of articulation and impression management skills;
- Their use of innovative and unconventional means for achieving their vision and their use of personal power to influence followers.

Charismatic leadership is seen as (partly) attributional through mainly authors. Leaders necessity not only display sure features, but necessity also be perceived as charismatic. According to Bass and Avolio (1990), transformational leaders are likely to become charismatic *in the eyes of their followers*. This seems to imply that charisma is not seen as a kind of leader behavior, but as an attribution of followers, in other words a 'product' rather than a component of transformational leadership. Attributed charisma has been shown to be (in part) a function of the leader's prior success in reaching hard goals and accomplishing outstanding feats of performance. As stated, Shamir (1992) has shown that performance outcomes affect the attribution of influence and charisma to the leader.

Charisma and the Self-Concept

Rather than influencing through affecting the task environment of followers or using material incentives or threat of punishment, Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) state that charismatic leadership is seen as giving meaningfulness to work through infusing work and organizations with moral purpose and commitment. Their self-concept-based explanation of charisma proposes that 'charismatic leadership achieves its effects through implicating

the self-concept of followers and recruiting their self expressive motivation'. Therefore, leader behavior is connected with follower effects through follower self-concepts.

The focus of this explanation of charisma is on the qualitative changes in follower's motivation that Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) describe, namely a strong internalization of the leader's values and goals, a strong personal or moral (as opposed to calculative) commitment to these values and goals and a tendency to transcend their own self-interests. Based on many assumptions about the self-concept, Shamir et al. (1993) describe many processes through which charismatic leaders have their transformational and motivational effect on followers. Leaders augment the intrinsic value of effort and goal accomplishment through linking them to valued characteristics of the self-concept, therefore harnessing the motivational forces of self-expression, self-consistency, specific mission-related self-efficacy, generalized self-esteem, and self-worth. Leaders also enhance self-efficacy, self-esteem, and communal efficacy through positive evaluations, expressions of confidence, higher expectations, and emphasizing the individual follower's ties to the communal. Therefore the theory comprises four main parts: leader behaviors, effects on followers' self-concepts, further effects on followers, and the motivational processes through which the leader behaviors produce the charismatic effects.

Dissimilar Kinds of 'Charisma'?

The term *charismatic* has been applied to very diverse leaders in political arenas, religious spheres, social movements, and business organizations. A question raised through the widespread application of the term charisma is whether dissimilar kinds of charisma should be defined. Howell (1988), for instance, differentiates flanked by personalized and socialized charismatic leaders. Socialized charismatic leadership is based on egalitarian behavior, serves communal interests, and develops and empowers others. Personalized charismatic leadership is based on personal dominance, and narcissistic and authoritarian behavior, serves the leader's self-interest, and is exploitative of others. Likewise, Conger (1990) distinguishes negative from positive charismatic leaders. A dissimilar kind of distinction is made through Etzioni (1961) and Hollander (1978). They hold that charisma can be a property of one's office (a position providing celebrity status) and/or of one's person.

A third way of distinguishing kinds of charisma has to do with the thought of social or psychological aloofness flanked by leader and follower. Katz and Kahn (1978) state that charisma requires some psychological aloofness flanked by leader and follower. The day-to-day intimacy of organization members and their immediate supervisors destroys the illusion needed in the charismatic relationship. They hold that charisma is only appropriate in the top echelon of the organization. A leader in the top echelon would be sufficiently distant from mainly organization members to create a simplified and

approximately magical image possible. Others assume that charisma is common at all stages of the organization. A third position would be that charismatic leadership may be found at dissimilar stages, and in both a situation of secure and distant leadership, but that relevant features and behaviors as well as their effects are dissimilar for secure and distant leaders. In other words, one can distinguish 'secure' from 'distant' charismatic leadership.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) argues that transactional leadership entails an exchange flanked by leader and follower. Followers receive sure valued outcomes (e.g., wages, prestige) when they act according to the leader's wishes. According to Burns the exchange can be economic, political, or psychological in nature. Bass (1985) notes that leadership in (organizational) research has usually been conceptualized as a cost-benefit exchange procedure. Such transactional leadership theories are founded on the thought that leader-follower relations are based on a series of exchanges or implicit bargains flanked by leaders and followers. House et al. (1988) hold that the general notion in these theories is that when the job and the environment of the follower fail to give the necessary motivation, direction, and satisfaction, the leader, through his or her behavior, will be effective through compensating for the deficiencies. The leader clarifies the performance criteria, in other words what he expects from subordinates, and what they receive in return. Many transactional theories have been tested extensively and some have received empirical support. Examples are the aforementioned path-goal theory and vertical dyad theory.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership goes beyond the cost-benefit exchange of transactional leadership through motivating and inspiring followers to perform beyond expectations. Transformational leadership theories predict followers' emotional attachment to the organization and emotional and motivational arousal of followers as a consequence of the leader's behavior. Hater and Bass state: 'The dynamics of transformational leadership involve strong personal identification with the leader, joining in a shared vision of the future, or going beyond the self-interest exchange of rewards for compliance'. Transformational leaders broaden and elevate the interests of followers, generate awareness and acceptance in the middle of the followers of the purposes and mission of the group, and motivate followers to go beyond their self-interests for the good of the group. Tichy and Devanna highlight the transforming effect these leaders can have on organizations as well as on individuals. Through defining the need for change, creating new visions, and mobilizing commitment to these visions, leaders can ultimately transform the

organization. According to Bass (1985) such transformation of followers can be achieved through raising the awareness of the importance and value of intended outcomes, getting followers to transcend their own self-interests and altering or expanding followers' needs.

Contrasting transactional and transformational leadership does not mean the models are unrelated. Bass (1985) views these as separate dimensions, which would imply that a leader can be *both* transactional and transformational. He argues that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership but not vice versa. Transformational leadership can be viewed as a special case of transactional leadership, in as much as both approaches are connected to the attainment of some goal or objective. The models differ on the *procedure* through which the leader motivates subordinates and the *kinds of goals* set.

Specific Behaviors

Bass defines both transactional and transformational leadership as comprising many dimensions. Transactional leadership has two dimensions. The first dimension is *contingent reward*. The leader rewards followers for attaining the specified performance stages. Reward is contingent on effort expended and performance stage achieved. The second kind of transactional leadership is *(active) management through exception*. When practicing *management through exception* a leader only takes action when things go wrong and standards are not met. Leaders avoid giving directions if the old ways work and allow followers to continue doing their jobs as always, as long as performance goals are met. A leader actively seeks deviations from standard procedures and takes action when irregularities occur.

Transformational leadership has four dimensions. The first dimension is *charisma*. The charismatic leader gives vision and a sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust, and increases optimism. Charismatic leaders excite, arouse, and inspire their subordinates. According to Bass attaining charisma in the eyes of one's employees is central to succeeding as a transformational leader. This dimension is sometimes referred to as *idealized influence*. The second dimension of transformational leadership is *inspiration*. Bass (1985) originally conceptualized inspiration as a sub factor within charisma. Inspiration describes a leader's capability to act as a model for subordinates, the communication of a vision and the use of symbols to focus efforts. The third dimension is *individual consideration*. While a leader's charisma may attract subordinates to a vision or mission, the leader's use of individualized consideration also significantly contributes to a subordinate achieving his/her fullest potential.

Individual consideration is in part coaching and mentoring, it gives for continuous feedback and links the individual's current needs to the organization's mission. Some feel that individualized consideration is similar

to the Ohio State notion of consideration. Bass and Avolio, though, state that the two are related, but that individualized consideration builds on two characteristics of behavior, i.e., individualization and development of followers, whereas earlier scales measuring consideration were primarily concerned with whether a leader was seen a 'good guy or gal' or not. The last dimension of transformational leadership is *intellectual stimulation*. An intellectually stimulating leader gives subordinates with a flow of challenging new ideas to stimulate rethinking of old ways of doing things. It arouses an awareness of troubles, of subordinates' own thoughts and imagination, and a recognition of their beliefs and values. Intellectual stimulation is evidenced through subordinates' conceptualization, comprehension, and analysis of the troubles they face and the solutions generated. Other authors have incorporated many other dimensions of this kind of leadership, for instance, vision, demonstrating trust in subordinates, role modeling, and expressing high performance expectations.

Outcomes of Transformational/ Charismatic Leadership

Conger and Kanungo (1988) observe there is consensus in the middle of authors on the following effects of charismatic leaders on followers: high attachment to and trust in the leader, willing obedience to the leader, heightened performance and motivation, greater group cohesion in conditions of shared beliefs and low Apathy/Group disagreement and a sense of empowerment. Other often-mentioned follower outcomes are commitment to the organization's goals, perceived leader effectiveness and follower's satisfaction with the leader.

In general, charismatic/transformational leadership is expected to lead to more positive effects on subordinates than transactional leadership. Bass and associates find a constant pattern of relationships flanked by his leadership measures and the outcome and performance measures, with transformational leadership and the outcomes being highly positively correlated and transactional leadership and the outcomes less so. Self-reports of extra effort, satisfaction with the leader, and perceived leader effectiveness were often used as dependent variables early on. Though, several other 'outcomes' have been studied, including: trust in the leader; trust in management and colleagues; organizational commitment; leader performance, business unit performance; subordinate/work group performance; and organizational citizenship behaviors.

The results of a comprehensive meta-analysis through Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam indicate that transformational leadership scales reliably predict work unit effectiveness, both for subordinate perceptions (.80) and for (objective) organizational measures of effectiveness (.35). According to Lowe et al. (1996) subordinate ratings of effectiveness are almost certainly inflated as raters would almost certainly strive for consistency crossways independent

and dependent variables. Again, logical aloofness is questionable. On the other hand, organizational measures are likely to be attenuated as they narrow the perspective of performance to a single measured criterion (financial indicators, percentage of goals met), rather than contain the constellation of outcomes that would contribute to subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness (e.g., individual development, organizational learning, more ethical principles). Lowe et al. (1996) found that transformational leadership uniformly showed higher associations with effectiveness than transactional leadership. Against expectations, they also found that effect sizes were larger in public rather than private organizations and for lower- rather than higher-level leaders.

Possible Negative Effects

House and Singh (1987) conclude that charismatic and transformational leaders profoundly influence follower effort, performance and affective responses toward them. Therefore, charismatic leaders can have a considerable influence on organizations; though, these consequences are not necessarily beneficial. The possible negative effects are sometimes referred to as 'the dark side of charisma.' Possible negative effects in organizations contain poor interpersonal relationships, negative consequences of impulsive, unconventional behavior, negative consequences of impression management, poor administrative practices, negative consequences of self-confidence, and failure to plan for succession. Charismatic leadership, through reducing in-group criticism and rising unquestioning obedience could also have negative effects on group decision creation. Although transformational or socialized charismatic leaders are able to empower and develop followers, De Vries et al. find a positive relationship flanked by charismatic leadership and the need for leadership. This suggests that subordinates are more rather than less 'dependent' when a charismatic leader is present. Such increased dependency on leaders may not always be beneficial to organizations.

REVIEW QUESTION

Describe the dissimilar kinds of delegation.

Discuss the dissimilar characteristics and techniques of supervision.

Explain the importance of communication in organizations.

What is planning? Why is planning significant in developing countries?

What is authority? Distinguish flanked by authority and power.

Explain the significance of leadership.

CHAPTER 6

CONCEPTS IN ORGANIZATION-III

STRUCTURE

Learning objectives
Chief executive
Line agencies
Staff and auxiliary agencies
Budgeting
Accountability
Citizen and administration
Organizational effectiveness
Administrative theory —an evaluation
Review question

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
Clearly understand the meaning of the word chief executive.
Describe line agencies.
Explain the meaning, importance and role of staff and auxiliary agencies.
Explain the meaning and importance of the budget.
Explain the meaning and, types of accountability.
Explain the relationship flanked by citizen and administration.
Understand the concept and importance of organizational effectiveness (OE).
Understand the administrative theory.

CHIEF EXECUTIVE

A chief executive officer (CEO) is the highest-ranking corporate officer (executive) or administrator in charge of total management of an organization. An individual appointed as a CEO of a corporation, company, organization, or agency typically reports to the board of directors. In British English, conditions often used as synonyms for CEO contain managing director (MD) and chief executive (CE).

RESPONSIBILITIES

The responsibilities of an organization's CEO (chief executive officer, US) or MD (managing director, UK) are set through the organization's board of directors or other authority, depending on the organization's legal structure.

They can be far-reaching or quite limited and are typically enshrined in a formal delegation of authority.

Typically, the CEO/MD has responsibilities as a director, decision maker, leader, manager and executor. The communicator role can involve the press and the rest of the outside world, as well as the organization's management and employees; the decision-creation role involves high-stage decisions about policy and strategy. As a leader of the company, the CEO/MD advises the board of directors, motivates employees, and drives change within the organization. As a manager, the CEO/MD presides over the organization's day-to-day operations.

FEATURES

According to a revise through Carola Frydman of MIT, from 1936 to the early 2000s there has been a rapid augment in the share of MBA graduates acting as CEOs; from almost 10% of CEOs in 1960 to more than 50% through the end of the century. Earlier in the century, top executives were more likely to have obtained technical degrees in science and engineering or law degrees.

INTERNATIONAL USE

In some European Union countries, there are two separate boards, one executive board for the day-to-day business and one supervisory board for control purposes (selected through the shareholders). In these countries, the CEO presides over the executive board and the chairman presides over the supervisory board, and these two roles will always be held through dissimilar people. This ensures a distinction flanked by management through the executive board and governance through the supervisory board. This allows for clear lines of authority. The aim is to prevent a disagreement of interest and too much power being concentrated in the hands of one person.

In the United States, the board of directors (elected through the shareholders) is often equivalent to the supervisory board, while the executive board may often be recognized as the executive committee (the division/subsidiary heads and C-stage officers that report directly to the CEO).

In the United States, and in business, the executive officers are usually the top officers of a corporation, the chief executive officer (CEO) being the best-recognized kind. The definition varies; for instance, the California Corporate Disclosure Act defines "Executive Officers" as the five mainly highly compensated officers not also sitting on the board of directors. In the case of a sole proprietorship, an executive officer is the sole proprietor. In the case of a partnership, an executive officer is a managing partner, senior partner, or administrative partner. In the case of a limited liability company, an executive officer is any member, manager or officer.

RELATED POSITIONS

In the US the term "chief" is a for-profit title used exclusively in business, the term "executive director" replaces "chief" in the not-for-profit sector. These conditions are mutually exclusive and have legal duties and responsibilities attached to them which are incompatible. Implicit in the use of these titles is that the public not be misled and the general standard concerning their use be uniformly applied.

In the UK "Chief Executive" and, much more rarely "Chief Executive Officer", are used in both business and the charitable sector (not-for-profit sector). As of 2013 the use of the term [director] is deprecated for senior charity staff, to avoid confusion with the legal duties and responsibilities associated with being a charity director or trustee, which are normally non-executive (unpaid) roles.

Typically, a CEO has many subordinate executives, each of whom has specific functional responsibilities.

Common associates contain a chief business development officer (CBDO), chief financial officer (CFO), chief operating officer (COO), chief marketing officer (CMO), chief information officer (CIO), chief communications officer (CCO), chief legal officer (CLO), chief technology officer (CTO), chief risk officer (CRO), chief creative officer (CCO), chief compliance officer (CCO), chief audit executive (CAE), chief diversity officer (CDO), or chief human possessions officer (CHRO).

Hospitals and healthcare organizations also often contain a Chief Medical Officer (CMO), a chief nursing officer (CNO), and a chief medical informatics officer (CMIO).

In the United Kingdom the term "director" is used instead of "chief officer". Senior positions may contain the audit executive, business development director, chief executive, compliance director, creative director, director of communications, diversity director, financial director, human possessions director, information technology director, legal affairs director, managing director (MD), marketing director, operations director and technical director.

LINE AGENCIES

A line agency is an agency where people do the work of the organization such as selling, manufacturing and talking to customers. As opposed to the staff agency, the line agency is directly involved in the running of an organization therefore determines the augmenter decrease of profits. The agency is also given the role of carrying out organizational policies and gives other services to the customers.

STAFF AND AUXILIARY AGENCIES

It is not just hard but impossible for a single man to carry out all the administrative responsibility single handedly. Any leader requires a body of people whom he can direct and lead to achieve the desired goals of the organization. The literal meaning of staff is learning as it was used in the army and it has been borrowed from there and used in civil organizations. As Mooney points out that, there are too several functions, too diversified knowledge and too several things to think about which is hard for a single leader to encompass.

The distinction flanked by line and staff agencies is more of degree than of the type. Staff personals are involved in involved in planning and thinking. The execution and implementation of those plans and policies are the jobs of the line agencies. Like, pointed out earlier, in some cases the staff functions are similar to line functions and line functions to that of staff. The other way of looking at it is that the staff agencies collect data for the formulation of policies which can be further executed and complemented through line agencies.

The main function of the staff agencies as recognized through L D White are:

- Keep the Chief Executive and top officials informed and updated with relevant information
- Assisting the Chief Executive and other officials in foreseeing troubles and planning of the future
- To ensure that the matters which require the final decision creation through the Chief Executive, reach his desk in time and that rational, logical, thoughtful and informed decisions are taken on those matters
- Evaluate the matters which may be settled elsewhere to be excluded in the Chief Executive's list
- Assist him in managing his time well
- Securing compliance through subordinates through the means of recognized policies and execution guidelines

The instance of such staff agencies are the British Treasury and the Budget and Economic Affairs Department of the ministry of Finance which helps formulate the financial policies of the Union Government of India. In USA, the general staff agency is the President's Executive office which has two parts, the White House and the Bureau of Budget.

Ever since the increased scope of the government activities lead to the procedure of specialization. Due to which there was a need to separate the primary and secondary activities of the administrative agencies. The house-keeping activities were segregated and organized under dedicated offices. These activities are recognized as the auxiliary or the institutional activities.

As per Willoughby, the primary activities are those activities that a service performs to accomplish those very purposes for which it exists. Like the primary activity of the Home Affairs department is maintaining peace and order. The secondary activities are those which the service needs to keep

performing so that it may exist and operate as a service. Again, for the Home Affairs department, those services may be recruiting people, buying furniture and stationeries etc. the functions of auxiliary services are:

- Exercising financial controls and collecting revenues for the departments whose needs they have to meet
- Supplying equipments and arranging Services
- Acting as a record office
- Recruiting personnel's

BUDGETING

WHAT IS A BUDGET?

Essentially a budget is a plan translated into money and a tool for allocating possessions and implementing strategic plans. It charts a way of allocating and maximizing the use of your possessions and ideally, identifies financial troubles that could arise in the coming year. The budget also gives indicators for evaluating employee performance and gives your staff goals to reach and steps to achieve them. A budget - be it an organisation-wide budget or specific project budget - necessity be cautiously planned. Not all budgets are alike. Some planning should happen before your budget is developed.

WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES TO BUDGETING?

In addition to its value in allocating possessions and implementing strategic plans, the budget can produce a wide range of other beneficial results. People directly involved in carrying out activities can use it to measure their accomplishments numerically and to respond to unexpected changes. Management can use it to evaluate staff performance. But like any tool, the budget can produce good or bad results, depending on the ability and diligence with which it is used. The main advantages of effective budgeting are:

- A thoroughly planned and implemented budget increases the likelihood of a community and voluntary organisation being financially successful.
- A budget translates abstract goals into determinable bites: it sets performance goals.
- The planning and preparation of a budget forces the organisation to look at itself, set priorities and narrow its choices.
- A budget facilitates co-ordination and co-operation flanked by the several programmes and financial departments.
- Periodic comparisons flanked by the budget and actual financial performance can signal trouble and allow time for an appropriate response.

A budget measures how far financial performance meets an organization's expectations.

For a budget to be effective, it is significant that the possible disadvantages are measured and addressed. These may contain:

The attendance of controls may stifle creativity.

Because there are so several unknowns at the time when the budget is prepared, the natural tendency is to emphasize cost control.

A budget based on historical information alone cannot always keep up with a rapidly-changing environment

Non-financial staff do not often participate in the budgeting procedure, resulting in operational blueprints that have been approved without the input of programme staff (who should be involved where possible)

A budget is not always easy to implement and may not always be accepted as useful through the management staff.

ACCOUNTABILITY

In ethics and governance, accountability is answerability, blameworthiness, liability, and the expectation of account-giving. As a characteristic of governance, it has been central to discussions related to troubles in the public sector, nonprofit and private (corporate) worlds. In leadership roles, accountability is the acknowledgment and assumption of responsibility for actions, products, decisions, and policies including the administration, governance, and implementation within the scope of the role or employment position and encompassing the obligation to report, explain and be answerable for resulting consequences.

In governance, accountability has expanded beyond the vital definition of "being described to account for one's actions". It is regularly described as an account-giving relationship flanked by individuals, e.g. "A is accountable to B when A is obliged to inform B about A's (past or future) actions and decisions, to justify them, and to suffer punishment in the case of eventual misconduct". Accountability cannot exist without proper accounting practices; in other words, an absence of accounting means an absence of accountability.

KINDS

Bruce Stone, O.P. Dwivedi, and Joseph G. Jabbra list 8 kinds of accountability, namely: moral, administrative, political, managerial, market, legal/judicial, constituency relation, and professional. Leadership accountability cross cuts several of these distinctions.

Political accountability

Political accountability is the accountability of the government, civil servants and politicians to the public and to legislative bodies such as a congress or a parliament.

In a few cases, recall elections can be used to revoke the office of an elected official. Usually, though, voters do not have any direct way of holding elected representatives to account throughout the term for which they have been elected. Additionally, some officials and legislators may be appointed rather than elected. Constitution, or statute, can empower a legislative body to hold their own members, the government, and government bodies to account. This can be through holding an internal or independent inquiry. Inquiries are usually held in response to an allegation of misconduct or corruption. The powers, procedures and sanctions vary from country to country. The legislature may have the power to impeach the individual, remove them, or suspend them from office for a period of time. The accused person might also decide to resign before trial. Impeachment in the United States has been used both for elected representatives and other civil offices, such as district court judges.

In parliamentary systems, the government relies on the support or parliament, which gives parliament power to hold the government to account. For instance, some parliaments can pass a vote of no confidence in the government.

Researchers at the Overseas Development Institute found that empowering citizens in developing countries to be able to hold their domestic government's to account was incredibly complex in practice. Though, through developing explicit processes that generate change from individuals, groups or communities (Theories of Change), and through fusing political economy analysis and outcome mapping tools, the complex state-citizen dynamics can be better understood. As such, more effective ways to achieve outcomes can hence be generated.

Ethical accountability

Within an organization, the principles and practices of ethical accountability aim to improve both the internal standard of individual and group conduct as well as external factors, such as sustainable economic and ecologic strategies. Also, ethical accountability plays a progressively significant role in academic fields, such as laboratory experiments and field research. Debates around the practice of ethical accountability on the part of researchers in the social field - whether professional or others - have been thoroughly explored through Norma R.A. Romm in her work on Accountability in Social Research, including her book on New Racism: Revisiting Researcher Accountabilities, reviewed through Carole Truman in the journal Sociological Research Online. Here it is suggested that researcher accountability implies that researchers are cognisant of, and take some

responsibility for, the potential impact of their ways of doing research – and of writing it up – on the social fields of which the research is part. That is, accountability is connected to considering cautiously, and being open to challenge in relation to, one's choices concerning how research agendas are framed and the styles in which write-ups of research "results" are created.

Administrative accountability

Internal rules and norms as well as some independent commission are mechanisms to hold civil servants within the administration of government accountable. Within department or ministry, firstly, behavior is bound through rules and regulations; secondly, civil servants are subordinates in a hierarchy and accountable to superiors. Nonetheless, there are independent “watchdog” units to scrutinize and hold departments accountable; legitimacy of these commissions is built upon their independence, as it avoids any conflicts of interests.

Individual accountability in organizations

Because several dissimilar individuals in large organizations contribute in several ways to the decisions and policies, it is hard even in principle to identify who should be accountable for the results. This is what is recognized, following Thompson, as the problem of several hands. It makes a dilemma for accountability. If individuals are held accountable or responsible, individuals who could not have prevented the results are either unfairly punished, or they “take responsibility” in a symbolic ritual without suffering any consequences. If only organizations are held accountable, then all individuals in the organization are equally blameworthy or all are excused. Several solutions have been proposed. One is to broaden the criteria for individual responsibility so that individuals are held accountable for not anticipating failures in the organization. Another solution, recently proposed through Thompson, is to hold individuals accountable for the design of the organization, both retrospectively and prospectively.

Constituency relations

Within this perspective, a scrupulous agency of the government is accountable if voices are heard from agencies, groups or institutions outside the public sector representing citizens' interests from a scrupulous constituency or field. Moreover, the government is obliged to empower members of agencies with political rights to run for elections and be elected; or, appoint them into the public sector as a way to create the government representative and to ensure that voices from all constituencies are incorporated in policy-creation.

Public/private overlap

With the augment over the last many decades in public service provided through private entities, especially in Britain and the United States, some have described for increased political accountability mechanisms for otherwise non-political entities. Legal scholar Anne Davies, for instance, argues that the line flanked by public institutions and private entities like corporations is becoming blurred in sure areas of public service in the United Kingdom, and that this can compromise political accountability in those areas. She and others argue that some administrative law reform is necessary to address this accountability gap.

With respect to the public/private overlap in the United States, public concern over the contracting of government services (including military) and the resulting accountability gap has been highlighted recently following the shooting incident involving the Blackwater security firm in Iraq.

MODERN DEVELOPMENT

Accountability involves either the expectation or assumption of account-giving behavior. The revise of account giving as a sociological act was articulated in a 1968 article on "Accounts" through Marvin Scott and Stanford Lyman, although it can be traced as well to J. L. Austin's 1956 essay "A Plea for Excuses," in which he used excuse-creation as an instance of speech acts.

Communications scholars have extended this work through the examination of strategic uses of excuses, justifications, rationalizations, apologies and other forms of account giving behavior through individuals and corporations, and Philip Tetlock and his colleagues have applied experimental design techniques to explore how individuals behave under several scenarios and situations that demand accountability.

Recently, accountability has become an significant topic in the discussion about the legitimacy of international institutions. Because there is no global democratically elected body to which organizations necessity account, global organizations from all sectors bodies are often criticized as having large accountability gaps. The Charter 99 for Global Democracy, spearheaded through the One World Trust, first proposed that cross-sector principles of accountability be researched and observed through institutions that affect people, independent of their legal status. One paradigmatic problem arising in the global context is that of institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund who are founded and supported through wealthy nations and give aid, in the form of grants and loans, to developing nations. Should those institutions be accountable to their founders and investors or to the persons and nations they help? In the debate over global justice and its distributional consequences, Cosmopolitans tend to advocate greater accountability to the disregarded interests of traditionally marginalized populations and developing nations. On the other hand, those in the

Nationalism and Society of States traditions deny the tenets of moral universalism and argue that beneficiaries of global development initiatives have no substantive entitlement to call international institutions to account. The One World Trust Global Accountability Report, published in a first full cycle 2006 to 2008, is one attempt to measure the capability of global organizations to be accountable to their stakeholders.

Accountability in education

Student accountability is traditionally based on having school and classroom rules, combined with sanctions for infringement. In contrast, some educational establishments such as Sudbury schools consider that students are personally responsible for their acts, and that traditional schools do not permit students to choose their course of action fully; they do not permit students to embark on the course, once chosen; and they do not permit students to suffer the consequences of the course, once taken. Freedom of choice, freedom of action, freedom to bear the results of action are measured the three great freedoms that constitute personal responsibility. Sudbury schools claim that *"Ethics" is a course taught through life experience*. They adduce that the essential ingredient for acquiring values—and for moral action is personal responsibility, that schools will become involved in the teaching of morals when they become communities of people who fully respect each other's right to create choices, and that the only way the schools can become meaningful purveyors of ethical values is if they give students and adults with real-life experiences that are bearers of moral import. Students are given complete responsibility for their own education and the school is run through a direct democracy in which students and staff are equals.

ACCOUNTABILITY STANDARDS

Accountability standards have been set up, and organizations can voluntarily commit to them. Standards apply in scrupulous to the non-profit world and to Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives. Accountability standards contain:

- INGO Accountability Charter, signed through a large number of NGOs to "demonstrate their commitment to accountability and transparency"

- Account Ability's AA1000 series. "principles-based standards to help organisations become more accountable, responsible and sustainable. They address issues affecting governance, business models and organizational strategy, as well as providing operational guidance on sustainability assurance and stakeholder engagement"

- Humanitarian Accountability Partnership (HAP) 2010 standards. A standard for humanitarian organizations to help them "design, implement, assess, improve and recognize accountable programmes"

In addition, some non-profit organizations set up their own commitments to accountability:

Accountability, Learning and Planning System (ALPS) through Action Aid, a framework that sets out the key accountability necessities, guidelines, and processes.

CITIZEN AND ADMINISTRATION

Modern democratic states are characterized through welfare orientation. Hence, the government has come to play an significant role in the socio-economic development of the nation. This resulted in the expansion of bureaucracy and the multiplication of administrative procedure, which in turn increased the administrative power and discretion enjoyed through the civil servants at dissimilar stages of the government. The abuse of this power and discretion through civil servants opens up scope for harassment, malpractices, maladministration and corruption. Such a situation gives rise to citizens' grievances against administration. According to the Chambers Dictionary, grievance means 'a ground of complaint; a condition felt to be oppressive or wrongful.' The success of democracy and the realization of socioeconomic development depends on the extent to which the citizens' grievances are redressed. So, the following institutional devices have been created in dissimilar parts of the world to deal with the redressal of these grievances;

The Ombudsman System

The Administrative Courts System

The Procurator System

The earliest democratic institution created in the world for the redressed of citizens' grievance is the Scandinavian institution of Ombudsman. Donald C. Rowat, an international authority on the Ombudsman, calls it a "uniquely appropriate institution for dealing with the average citizens' complaints about unfair administrative actions."

The institution of Ombudsman was first created in Sweden in 1809. Ombud' is a Swedish term and refers to a person who acts as the representative or spokesman of another person. According to Donald C. Rowat, Ombudsman refers to "an officer appointed through the legislature to handle complaints against administrative and judicial action." The Swedish Ombudsman deals with the citizens' grievances in the following matters.

Abuse of administrative discretion, that is, misuse of official power and authority.

Maladministration, that is, inefficiency in achieving the targets.

Administrative corruption that is, demanding bribery for doing things.

Nepotism that is, supporting one's own kith and kin in matters like providing employment and so on.

Discourtesy, that is, misbehavior of several types, for instance, use of abusive language.

The Swedish Ombudsman is appointed through the Parliament for a term of four years. He can be removed only through the Parliament on ground of its loss of confidence in him. He submits his annual report to the Parliament and hence, is also recognized as 'Parliamentary Ombudsman.' But, he is independent of the Parliament (legislature) as well as the executive and judiciary.

The Ombudsman is a constitutional authority and enjoys the powers to supervise the compliance of laws and regulations, through the public officials and see that they discharge their duties properly. In other words, he keeps a watch over all public officials—civil, judicial and military—so that they function impartially, objectively and legally, that is, in accordance with the law. Though, he has no power to reverse or quash a decision and has no direct control over administration or the courts.

The Ombudsman can act either on the basis of a complaint received from the citizen against unfair administrative action or suo moto (i.e. on his own initiative). He can prosecute any erring official including the judges. Though, he himself cannot inflict any punishment. He only reports the matter to the higher authorities for taking the necessary corrective action. In sum, the features of the Swedish institution of Ombudsman are:

- Independence of action from the executive.

- Impartial and objective investigation of complaints.

- Suo moto power to start investigations.

- Uninterrupted access to all the files of administration.

- Right to report to the Parliament as opposed to the executive. The institution of ombudsman is based on the doctrine of administrative accountability to legislature.

- Wide publicity given to its working in press and others.

- Direct, simple, informal, cheap and speedy method of handling the complaints.

From Sweden, the institution of Ombudsman spread to other Scandinavian countries—Finland (1919), Denmark (1955) and Norway (1962). New Zealand is the first Commonwealth country in the world to have adopted the Ombudsman system in the form of Parliamentary Commissioner for Investigation in 1962. The United Kingdom adopted the Ombudsman-like institution described Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration in 1967. Since then, more than 40 countries of the world have adopted the Ombudsman-like institutions with dissimilar nomenclature and functions. The Ombudsman in India is described as Lokpal/Lokayukta. Donald C. Rowat says that the institution of Ombudsman is a 'bulwark of democratic government against the tyranny of officialdom.' While Gerald E. Caiden described the Ombudsman as "institutionalized public conscience."

Another unique institutional device created for the redressal of citizens'

grievances against administrative authorities, is the French system of Administrative Courts. Due to its success in France, the system has slowly spread to several other European and African countries like Belgium, Greece and Turkey.

The socialist countries like the USSR, China, Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia and Romania have created their own institutional device for the redressal of citizens' grievances. It is described Procurator System in these countries. It should be noted here that the office of the Procurator-General is still functioning in Russia. He is appointed for a tenure of seven years.

The Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration of the UK and the Administrative Courts System of France are explained in detail in the after that chapter entitled 'Administrative Systems' under appropriate heads.

ANTI CORRUPTION

The existing legal and institutional framework to check corruption and redress citizens' grievances in India consist of the following:

Public Servants (Enquiries) Act, 1850

Indian Penal Code, 1860

Special Police Establishment, 1941

Delhi Police Establishment Act, 1946

Prevention of Corruption Act, 1947

Commissions of Inquiry Act, 1952 (against political leaders and eminent public men)

All-India Services (Conduct) Rules, 1954

Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules, 1955

Railway Services (Conduct) Rules, 1956

Vigilance organisations in ministries/departments, attached and subordinate offices and public undertakings

Central Bureau of Investigation, 1963

Central Vigilance Commission, 1964

State Vigilance Commissions, 1964

Anti corruption bureaus in states

Lokayukta (Ombudsman) in states

Divisional Vigilance Board

District Vigilance Officer

National Consumer Disputes Redressal Commission

Commission for SCs and STs

Supreme Court and High Courts in states

Administrative Tribunals (quasi-judicial bodies)

Directorate of Public Grievances in the Cabinet Secretariat, 1988

Parliament and its committees

‘File to Field’ programme in some states like Kerala: In this innovative scheme, the administrator goes to the village/area and hears public grievances and takes immediate action wherever possible.

CENTRAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION

The Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI) was set up in 1963 through a resolution of the Ministry of Home Affairs. Presently it is under the Ministry of Personnel and enjoys the status of an attached office. The Special Police Establishment (which looked into vigilance cases) setup in 1941 was also merged with the CBI.

The establishment of the CBI was recommended through the Santhanam Committee on Prevention of Corruption (1962—64). The CBI is not a statutory body. It derives its powers from the Delhi Special Police Establishment Act, 1946.

The CBI is headed through a Director. He is assisted through a special director or additional director. Additionally, it has a number of joint directors, deputy inspector generals, superintendents of police and all other usual ranks of police personnel. In total, it has about 5000 staff members, about 125 forensic scientists and about 250 law officers.

The CBI is the main investigating agency of the Central Government. It plays an significant role in preventing corruption and maintaining integrity in administration. It also gives assistance to the Central Vigilance Commission.

The role of Special Police Establishment (a division of CBI) is supplementary to the state police forces. Beside with state police forces, the Special Police Establishment (SPE) enjoys the concurrent powers of investigation and prosecution for offences under the Delhi Police Establishment Act, 1946. Though, to avoid duplication and overlapping of cases flanked by these two agencies, the following administrative arrangements have been made.

The SPE shall take up such cases which are essentially and considerably concerned with the Central Government’s affairs or employees, even if they also involve sure State government employees.

The state police force shall take up such cases which are considerably concerned with the state government’s affairs or employees, even if they also involve sure central Government employees.

The SPE shall also take up cases against employees of public undertaldngs or statutory bodies recognized and financed through the Central Government.

The functions of CBI are:

Investigating cases of corruption, bribery and misconduct of the Central government employees.

Investigating cases relating to infringement of fiscal and economic laws that is breach of laws concerning export and import control, customs and central excise, income tax, foreign exchange regulations and so on. Though, such cases are taken up either in consultation with or at the request of the department concerned.

Investigating serious crimes committed through organised gangs of professional criminals, having national and international ramifications. Coordinating the activities of the anti-corruption agencies and the several state police forces.

Taking up, on the request of a state government, any case of public importance for investigation.

Maintaining crime statistics and disseminating criminal information.

SANTHANAM COMMITTEE REPORT

The Committee on Prevention of Corruption consisting of the parliamentarian K. Santhanam as the Chairman, four other MPs and two senior officers, was appointed through the Government of India in 1962. It was asked to look at the several characteristics of corruption in Government departments and recommend measures to check it. Though, the subject of political corruption (i.e. ministerial stage corruption) was kept outside its conditions of reference.

The Santhanam Committee submitted its report in 1964. It said that the discretionary powers enjoyed through the civil servant led to harassment, malpractices and corruption. The government accepted 106 out of 137 recommendations made through the Committee.

Its major recommendations were as follows.

Amendment of Article 311 of the Constitution in such a manner that the judicial procedure in corruption cases could be simplified and expedited. In 1976, this Article was amended.

Amendment of the Defense of India Bill, 1962.

Independent Vigilance Commission should be set up. It was recognized in 1964.

Amendment of the Government Servants Conduct Rules to restrict the employment of retired public servants in the private sector. It recommended for the imposition of a ban on public servants accepting employment in private sector for two years after retirement.

Amendment of Section 21 of the Indian Penal Code to create the definition of the term 'public servant' more elaborate. In 1964, it was amended to bring some more categories of public servants within its scope.

The laws, rules, procedures and practices should be simplified so as to eliminate the opportunities to indulge in corrupt practices.

The Special Police Establishment should be strengthened through rising the personnel and powers. It was strengthened with additional powers. Establishment of vigilance machinery in public sector undertakings. The declaration of private property possessed through the civil servants, ministers and legislators. A code of conduct for ministers should be adopted. Later, such a code was approved through the Cabinet. The political parties should maintain and publish the accounts of funds and donations composed from the private sector. The establishment of an Ombudsman kind of institution on the pattern of Parliamentary Commissioner for Investigation in New Zealand. The vigilance organisations in the ministries/departments should be strengthened. Concerning the disciplinary rules, it recommended the withdrawal of pension, either in full or part, compulsory retirement on completion of 25 years of service or after attaining 50 years of age (whichever is earlier) if the person's integrity is suspected.

CENTRAL VIGILANCE COMMISSION (CVC)

The Central Vigilance Commission (CVC) is the main agency for preventing corruption in the Central government. It was recognized in 1964 through an executive resolution of the Central government. Its establishment was recommended through the Santhanam Committee on Prevention of Corruption (1962—64).

Therefore, originally the CVC was neither a constitutional body nor a statutory body. Recently, in September 2003 the Parliament enacted a law conferring statutory status on the CVC. The CVC is a multi-member body consisting of a Central Vigilance Commissioner (chairperson) and not more than two vigilance commissioners. They are appointed through the president through a warrant under his hand and seal on the recommendation of a three-member committee consisting of the Prime Minister as its head, the Union minister of home affairs and the leader of the Opposition in the Lok Sabha. They hold their office for a term of four years or until they attain the age of sixty five years, whichever is earlier. After their tenure, they are not eligible for further employment under the Central or a state government.

The President can remove the central vigilance commissioner or any vigilance commissioner from the office under the following circumstances:

- If he is adjudged an insolvent; or
- If he has been convicted of an offence which (in the opinion of the Central government) involves a moral turpitude; or
- If he engages, throughout his term of office, in any paid employment outside the duties of his office; or

If he is (in the opinion of the President), unfit to continue in the office through reasons of infirmity of mind or body; or

If he has acquired such financial or other interest as is likely to affect prejudicially his official functions. In addition to these, the President can also remove the central vigilance commissioner or any vigilance commissioner on the ground of proved misbehavior or incapacity. Though, in these cases, the President has to refer the matter to the Supreme Court for an enquiry. If the Supreme Court, after the enquiry, upholds the cause of removal and advises so, then the President can remove him. He is deemed to be guilty of misbehavior, if he (a) is concerned or interested in any contract or agreement made through the Central government, or (b) participates in any way in the profit of such contract or agreement or in any benefit or emolument arising there from otherwise than as a member and in common with the other members of an incorporated company.

The salary, allowances and other circumstances of the service of the central vigilance commissioner are similar to those of the chairman of UPSC and that of the vigilance commissioners are similar to those of a member of UPSC. But they cannot be varied to his disadvantage after his appointment.

The functions of the CVC are:

To inquire or cause an inquiry or investigation to be mannered on a reference made through the Central government wherein it is alleged that a public servant being an employee of the Central government or its authorities, has committed an offence under the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1988.

To inquire or cause an inquiry or investigation to be mannered into any complaint against any official belonging to the below mentioned category of officials wherein it is alleged that he has committed an offence under the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1988:

- Members of all-India services serving in the Union and Group 'A' officers of the Central government: and
- Specified stage of officers of the authorities of the Central government.

To exercise superintendence over the functioning of Delhi Special Police Establishment (which is a part of Central Bureau of Investigation) in so far as it relates to the investigation of offences alleged to have been committed under the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1988. The Delhi Special Police Establishment is required to obtain the prior approval of the Central government before conducting any inquiry or investigation into an offence committed through the officers of the rank of joint secretary and above in the Central government and its authorities.

To provide directions to the Delhi Special Police Establishment for the purpose of discharging the responsibility entrusted to it under the Delhi Special Police Establishment Act, 1946.

To review the progress of investigation mannered through the Delhi Special Police Establishment into the offences alleged to have been committed under the Prevention of Corruption Act 1988.

To review the progress of applications pending with the competent authorities for the sanction of prosecution under the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1988.

To tender advice to the Central government and its authorities on such matters as are referred to it through them.

To exercise superintendence over the vigilance administration in the ministries of the Central government or its authorities.

The Central government is required to consult the CVC in creation rules and regulations governing the vigilance and disciplinary matters relating to the members of central services and All-India Services.

The CVC conducts its proceedings at its headquarters (New Delhi). It is vested with the power to regulate its own procedure. It has all the powers of a civil court and its proceedings have a judicial character. It may call for an information or report from the Central government or its authorities so as to enable it to exercise general supervision over the vigilance and anti-corruption work in them.

The CVC, on receipt of the report of the inquiry undertaken through any agency on a reference made through it, advises the Central government or its authorities for the further course of action. The Central government or its authorities shall consider the advice of the CVC and take appropriate action. Though, where the Central government or any of its authorities does not agree with the advice of the CVC, it shall communicate the reasons (to be recorded in writing) to the CVC.

The chief vigilance officers appointed in the ministries/departments give a link flanked by the Central Vigilance Commission and ministries/departments. There are also vigilance officers in attached offices subordinate offices and public undertakings. Several states have also, on the pattern of Central Vigilance Commission, recognized State Vigilance Commissions in 1964.

LOKPAL

The First Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) headed through Morarji Desai submitted a special interim report on 'Troubles of Redressal of Citizen's Grievances' in 1966. In this report, the ARC recommended the setting up of two special authorities designated as 'Lokpal' and 'Lokayukta' for the redressal of citizens' grievances. These institutions were to be set up on the pattern of the institution of Ombudsman in Scandinavian countries and the Parliamentary Commissioner for Investigation in New Zealand. The Lokpal would deal with complaints against ministers and secretaries at Central and state stages, and the Lokayukta (one at the Centre and one in every state) would deal with complaints against other specified higher officials. The ARC

kept the judiciary outside the purview of Lokpal and Lokayukta as in New Zealand. But, in Sweden the judiciary is within the purview of Ombudsman.

According to the ARC, the Lokpal would be appointed through the President after consultation with the Chief Justice of India, the Speaker of Lok Sabha and the Chairman of the Rajya Sabha.

The ARC also recommended that the institutions of Lokpal and Lokayukta should have the following characteristics:

- They should be demonstrably independent and impartial.

- Their investigations and proceedings should be mannered in private and should be informal in character.

- Their appointment should be, as far as possible, non-political.

- Their status should compare with the highest judicial functionaries in the country.

- They should deal with matters in the discretionary field involving acts of injustice, corruption or favoritism.

- Their proceedings should not be subject to judicial interference.

- They should have the maximum latitude and powers in obtaining information relevant to their duties.

- They should not look forward to any benefit or pecuniary advantage from the executive government.

The Government of India accepted the recommendations of ARC in this regard. So far, eight official attempts have been made to bring about legislation on this subject. Bills were introduced in the Parliament in the following years.

- In May 1968, through the Congress government headed through Indira Gandhi.

- In April 1971, again through the Congress government headed through Indira Gandhi.

- In July 1977, through the Janata government headed through Morarji Desai.

- In August 1985, through the Congress government headed through Rajiv Gandhi.

- In December 1989, through the National Front government headed through V.P. Singh.

- In September 1996, through the United Front Government headed through Deve Gowda.

- In August 1998, through the BJP-led coalition government headed through A. B. Vajpayee.

- In August 2001, through the NDA government headed through A.B. Vajpayee.

Though, none of the bills mentioned above were passed through the Parliament due to one or other reasons. The first four bills lapsed due to the dissolution of Lok Sabha, while the fifth one was withdrawn through the government. The sixth and seventh bills also lapsed due to the dissolution of

the 11th and 12th Lok Sabha. Again, the eighth bill (2001) lapsed due to the dissolution of the 13th Lok Sabha in February 2004. Hence, the institution of Lokpal has not yet come into subsistence in our country, though its need was felt long ago.

The salient characteristics of the 2001 Lokpal Bill are as follows:

The bill gives for the establishment of the institution of Lokpal to inquire into allegations of corruption against public functionaries including the Prime Minister, provided the offence committed is within ten years from the day the complaint is lodged.

The Lokpal shall consist of a chairperson who is or has been a Chief Justice or a Judge of the Supreme Court and two members who are or have been the Judges of the Supreme Court or the Chief Justices of the High Court.

The chairperson and members shall be appointed through the President of India on the recommendation of a committee headed through the Vice-President of India and comprising the Prime Minister, the Lok Sabha Speaker, the Home Minister, the leader of the House other than the House in which the Prime Minister is a member and leaders of the opposition in both the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha.

The bill gives for a fixed tenure of three years for the chairperson and the members.

The bill ensures that the Lokpal is able to act independently and discharge its functions without fear or favour. For this, it gives that the chairperson or a Member of the Lokpal shall not be removed from office, except through an order made through the President on the ground of proved misbehaviour or incapacity. He can issue the removal order after an inquiry through a committee consisting of the Chief Justice of India and two other Judges of the Supreme Court (after that to the Chief Justice in seniority).

The Lokpal will inquire into complaints alleging that a public functionary has committed an offence punishable under the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1988. The expression 'public functionary' covers all the three categories of union ministers including the Prime Minister and the Members of Parliament. The constitutional functionaries such as Judges of the Supreme Court, the Election Commission have been kept out of the purview of the Lokpal.

The allegations against the Prime Minister related to his functions in the areas of national security and maintenance of public order have been kept out of the purview of the Lokpal.

To enable the Lokpal to function effectively and in a quasi-judicial manner, it has been vested with the powers of a Civil Court in respect of summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person and examining him on oath.

The bill gives for an open court or if the Lokpal wishes in-camera proceedings. The proceedings have to be completed within six months, with a provision for extension of six more months.

The Lokpal is vested with penal powers to discourage frivolous complaints. For such complaints, the fine could be an imprisonment from one to three years including a fine upto Rs. 50,000.

LOKAYUKTA

While the Central Government is still debating the establishment of the institution of Lokpal, several states have already set up the institution of Lokayuktas. Donald C. Rowat says that “India has the mainly populous Ombudsman jurisdiction in the world.” The following table gives the details of the establishment of the institutions of Lokayukta in several states in India.

Table Lokayukta in States

	States	Created in (enacted in)
1.	Orissa	1970
2.	Maharashtra	1971
3.	Rajasthan	1973
4.	Bihar	1974
5.	Uttar Pradesh	1975
6.	Madhya Pradesh	1981
7.	Andhra Pradesh	1983
8.	Himachal Pradesh	1983
9.	Karnataka	1985
10.	Gujarat	1986
11.	Punjab	1995

It necessity be mentioned here that the institution of Lokayukta was recognized first in Maharashtra in 1971, though Orissa had passed the act in this regard in 1970. The Orissa act came into force in 1983. The several characteristics of the institution of Lokayukta are explained below.

STRUCTURAL VARIATIONS

The structure of the Lokayukta is not same in all the states. Some states like Rajasthan, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra have created the Lokayukta as well as Up lokayukta, while some other states like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh have created only the Lokayukta; there being no provision for Uplokayukta. There are still other states like the Punjab and Orissa which have designated officials as Lokpal. This pattern was not suggested through the ARC in the states.

APPOINTMENT

The lokayukta and upalokayukta are appointed through the governor of the state. While appointing, the governor in mainly of the states consults (a) the chief justice of the state high court, and (b) the leader of the Opposition in the state legislative assembly. But, in Andhra Pradesh, the leader of the Opposition in the state legislative assembly is not required to be consulted in this regard. In Karnakata, on the other hand, the Chairman of the state legislative council, the speaker of the state legislative assembly and the leader of Opposition in the state legislative council are also required to be consulted on this matter.

QUALIFICATIONS

Judicial qualifications are prescribed for the Lokayukta in the states of Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh. Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Orissa, Karnataka and Assam. But no specific qualifications are prescribed in the states of Bihar, Maharashtra and Rajasthan.

TENURE

In mainly of the states, the term of office fixed for Lokayukta is of 5 years duration or 65 years of age, whichever is earlier. He is not eligible for reappointment for a second term.

JURISDICTION

There is no uniformity concerning the jurisdiction of Lokayukta in all the states. The following points can be noted in this regard:

The Chief Minister is incorporated within the jurisdiction of Lokayukta in the states of Hirnachal Pradesh. Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh. and

Gujarat, while he is excluded from the purview of Lokayukta in the states of Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Bihar and Orissa. Ministers and higher civil servants are incorporated in the purview of Lokayukta in approximately all the states. Maharashtra has also incorporated former Ministers and civil servants. Members of states legislatures are incorporated in the purview of Lokayukta in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Uttar Pradesh and Assam. The authorities of the local bodies, corporations, companies and societies are incorporated in the jurisdiction of the Lokayukta in mainly of the States.

INVESTIGATIONS

In mainly of the states, the Lokayukta can initiate investigations either on the basis of a complaint received from the citizen against unfair administrative action or suo moto. But he does not enjoy the power to start investigations on his own initiative (suo moto) in the states of Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh and Assam.

SCOPE OF CASES SHELTERED

The Lokayukta can consider the cases of 'grievances' as well as 'allegations' in the states of Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Assam, Bihar and Karnataka. But, in Himachal Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan and Gujarat, the job of Lokayuktas is confined to investigating allegations (corruption) and not grievances (maladministration).

OTHER CHARACTERISTICS

The lokayukta presents, annually, to the governor of the state a consolidated report on his performance. The governor places this report beside with an explanatory memorandum before the state legislature. The lokayukta is responsible to the state legislature. He takes the help of the state investigating agencies for conducting enquiries. He can call for relevant files and documents from the state government departments. The recommendations made through the Lokayukta are only advisory and not binding on the state government.

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Organizational effectiveness is the concept of how effective an

organization is in achieving the outcomes the organization intends to produce. The thought of organizational effectiveness is especially significant for non-profit organizations as mainly people who donate money to nonprofit organizations and charities are interested in knowing whether the organization is effective in accomplishing its goals.

Though, scholars of nonprofit organizational effectiveness acknowledge that the concept has multiple dimensions and multiple definitions. For instance, while mainly nonprofit leaders describe organizational effectiveness as 'outcome accountability,' or the extent to which an organization achieves specified stages of progress toward its own goals, a minority of nonprofit leaders describe effectiveness as 'overhead minimization,' or the minimization of fundraising and administrative costs.

According to Richard et al. organizational effectiveness captures organizational performance plus the myriad internal performance outcomes normally associated with more efficient or effective operations and other external measures that relate to thoughts that are broader than those basically associated with economic valuation (either through shareholders, managers, or customers), such as corporate social responsibility.

An organization's effectiveness is also dependent on its communicative competence and ethics. The relationship flanked by these three are simultaneous. Ethics is a foundation found within organizational effectiveness. An organization necessarily exemplify respect, honesty, integrity and equity to allow communicative competence with the participating members. Beside with ethics and communicative competence, members in that scrupulous group can finally achieve their planned goals.

Foundations and other sources of grants and other kinds of funds are interested in organizational effectiveness of those people who seek funds from the foundations. Foundations always have more requests for funds or funding proposals and treat funding as an investment using the same care as a venture capitalist would in picking a company in which to invest.

Organizational effectiveness is an abstract concept and is hard for several organizations to directly measure. Instead of measuring organizational effectiveness directly, the organization selects proxy measures to represent effectiveness. Proxy measures may contain such things as number of people served, kinds and sizes of population segments served, and the demand within those segments for the services the organization supplies.

For instance, a non-profit organization which supplies meals to house bound people may collect statistics such as the number of meals cooked and served, the number of volunteers delivering meals, the turnover and retention rates of volunteers, the demographics of the people served, the turnover and retention of consumers, the number of requests for meals turned down due to lack of capability (amount of food, capability of meal preparation facilities, and number of delivery volunteers), and amount of wastage. Since the organization has as its goal the preparation of meals and the delivery of those meals to house bound people, it measures its organizational effectiveness

through trying to determine what actual activities the people in the organization do in order to generate the outcomes the organization wants to make.

Organizational effectiveness is typically evaluated within nonprofit organizations using logic models. Logic models are a management tool widely used in the nonprofit sector in program evaluation. Logic models are created for specific programs to link specific, measurable inputs to specific, measurable impacts. Typically, logic models specify how program inputs, such as money and staff time, produce activities and outputs, such as services delivered, which in turn lead to impacts, such as improved beneficiary health.

Activities such as administration, fundraising, and volunteer training are significant inputs into organizational effectiveness because although they do not directly result in programmatic results, they give the essential support functions needed for the organization to successfully finance and administer its programs. These other activities are overhead activities that indirectly assist the organization in achieving its desired outcomes.

Though, some nonprofit watchdog agencies regard overhead spending not as indirect program spending but as an indication of organizational ineffectiveness or inefficiency since funds are not being spent directly on programs. Cost ratios such as overhead are much simpler to measure than actual programmatic results and can be easily calculated from publicly accessible information disclosed on nonprofit organizations' IRS Forms 990. Many nonprofit watchdog agencies give ratings of nonprofit organizations using these data. Though, this practice is widely criticized through scholars and practitioners. A nonprofit with low overhead may have ineffective programs that have no impact, while a nonprofit with relatively higher overhead may be significantly more effective in conditions of achieving meaningful results. Some studies suggest that low overhead may actually reduce organizational effectiveness. Moreover, an organization with higher overhead is more efficient than one with lower overhead if the organization with higher overhead achieves the same results at a lower total cost.

The term Organizational Effectiveness is often used interchangeably with Organization Development, especially when used as the name of a department or a part of the Human Resources function within an organization.

ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY AND EVALUATION

THEORY: SIGNIFICANCE AND FEATURES

You have started the course with a discussion on the nature of the discipline, its development, importance, and scope. You did not have the opportunity to know what a theory is. We will begin, so, with the theory and its role and significance.

Theory is an essential tool for the progress of civilization. It is a symbolic representation of reality. It enables people to communicate quickly and effectively. It is an intellectual shorthand, which saves each generation from relearning the all that has already been discovered and learnt. Theory is based on logical reasoning and, so, consists of a set of sure principles and generalizations which represent universal truths. These may initially constitute testable hypotheses which, in dissimilar situations, may prove to be true or untrue when tested. The hypotheses which fail to stand the test are discarded, and the others are incorporated into the theory. Slowly, a body of knowledge emerges containing a set of interrelated concepts, definitions and propositions that give a systematic view of the phenomena. They specify relationships flanked by variables with the objective of explaining and predicting the phenomena. Theory is a systematic grouping of interdependent concepts and principles which provide a framework to a important area of knowledge. Theory pulls together existing knowledge, explains events or relationships and in the end predicts what has not yet been observed.

Theory is a concise presentation of facts and a logical set-up of assumptions from which 'empirical laws or principles can be derived. It is a patterning of logical constructs or interrelated symbolic concepts into which the recognized facts or theoretical hypothecc may be fitted. A theory is a generalization applicable within the stated boundaries which specify the relationships flanked by factors. Developing a theory is significant for more than one cause. It gives a perspective to the reality, stimulates new visions from familiar scenes; and constitutes a base for further theorizing. All of them aid in prediction.

Theory acts as a guide to initiate action, to collect facts; to explore the knowledge and to explain the phenomena that is being examined. It aids in the identification and classification of the problem. Theories help us to understand the working of organisations. They help us to understand, predict, influence or manage the future. Therefore theory becomes a means to achieve the goals. Hence, theory structure becomes an inevitable part of the growth and development of any discipline, including Public Administration.

Scientific Method

Scientific enquiry necessity evolve causal theories that would help analyze concrete situations and would have predictive use. Science is a systematic body of knowledge, and themes are its major expressions; they give the general relationship or framework that allows us to understand, explain and predict phenomenon within the science we are focusing on. Development of a theory should be in consonance with adoption of scientific approach to

analyze and understand any scrupulous phenomenon. Theories which are developed through scientific method involves more than mere observation, generalization and experimentation. The scientific method is as much an attitude, characterized through curiosity, rationality, open mindedness, objectivity and honesty in the middle of other things.

The procedure of scientific theory construction and confirmation can be viewed as involving the following steps.

The formulation of a problem or troubles based on observation.

The construction of a theory to give answers to the problem or troubles based on inductions from observations.

The deduction of specific hypothesis from the theory.

The recasting of hypotheses in conditions of specific measures and the operations required to test the hypotheses.

The devising of factual situations to test the theorem.

The actual testing in which confirmation does or does not occur,

Features of a Good Theory

A theory is good to the extent it contributes to the goals of science. This means that better theories are more comprehensive in that they reduce a large number of diverse observations to a much lesser number of underlying statements; The more the theory can explain, the more useful it is.

Second, good theories, contain explicit statements concerning the limits of their application.

Third, theory should be helpful in focusing research. It should tell us what facts are significant and ought to be gathered.

Fourth, is the closely related characteristic that good theory should serve to augment the usefulness of any results that are obtained from research.

Fifth, good theory should be logically constant, both internally and externally.

Sixth, to be of value theory necessity be subject to test; and

Seventh, the best: theory, all other things being equal, is the one that is mainly parsimonious

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY — SIGNIFICANCE

Traditionally, administrative theorizing has been the work of practitioners and reformers particularly in the United States of America. The evolving discipline of administrative theory is in several ways helpful in understanding the working of public organisation. But, mainly writings on organisation theory are based on the revise of business administration. The special

characteristics of government organisations are often ignored or are not properly understood through organisation theorists. Admittedly, theory-structure in Public Administration is not an easy task, as there are several types of public organisations, administrative structures and processes. Clearly,

Public Administration theorists have gone far and wide in-search of new ideas, concepts and models that may have varying degrees of success in public organisations. Their search has accepted them far beyond the appropriate boundaries of administrative theory. This made Alberto Ramos to observe that "Public Administration may have lost a sense of its specific assignment and become a hodgepodge of theoretical ramblings, lacking both force and direction". More importantly it has lost its bearings to the mystification of both practitioners and students who can no longer relate theory to practice or vice-versa. As Martin Landau comments, administrative theory is marked through a plethora of competing schools, a polyglot of languages, and as a result a confusion of logic. There is neither a common research tradition nor the necessary consensus for a common field of inquiry. Each of the competing schools questions the others, adventurism is rampant and commonly accepted standards of control do not exist. Consequently the whole field is confused. The core concepts need clarification. The theorists have not contributed much of their own. Too little relevant Public Administration theory exist.

Governmental functions throughout the world are on the augment thereby, rising the role of Public Administration in achieving societal goals. Dynamic nature of society and complex nature of governmental activities, create it hard for the conventional generalist administrator to function and realise the administrative goals. There is need for a broader understanding of the administrative phenomenon in its entirety. One of the reasons for the failure of the administrator to realise his goals is his inadequate understanding of the administrative theory. Coupled with this, the inflated sense of attainment and overrated intellectual superiority of the generalist administrator, have contributed to the failure of administration. One finds a general prejudice against theory and the theory is described 'Ivory tower Thinking' far removed from reality which the administrator represents.

In general, the bureaucratic pretensions of emotions, is another cause for the present day troubles of administration. The bureaucrats consider that power is knowledge and his experience is greater than theory. This has created many bottlenecks for the smooth functioning of the administration. Because of these reasons, the bureaucrats zealously guard their traditionalism. There is need, so, for a broader and deeper understanding of administrative theory which would help the administrator to fashion the administration as per societal necessities and enable him to manage the administrative system effectively and efficiently.

Knowledge will mould the attitudes of people in the right direction. Administrative theory will help the administrator to conceive proper reasoning and sound arguments. It will add to the richness of his mind. It adds to his skill to comprehend the phenomenon and gives self-confidence. Administrative theory educates the administrators scientifically, as theory is the conceptualization of experience. Understanding of theory builds a sound system of administrative engineering and not a half-backed mechanic. It will enable him to change from a mere instrument of social control to an agent of social change. In the final analysis, it can be said that if one who closes his mind to knowledge, theory will not open his ears. The administrators have to be responsive to the people's needs, but if they secure their minds to theory, they will be giving a deaf ear to the troubles of the people. This creates administration unresponsive and far removed from the society.

ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY—EVOLUTIONARY PERSPECTIVE

A systematic and scientific review of public organisation can be traced to the 19th and early part of the 20th centuries. F.W. Taylor whose mannered many studies on scientific management can be measured as a pioneer in the systematic review of work. Taylor and Fayol were approximately the first to formulate sure postulates, which were later synthesized as "Principles" that form the basis and substance of classical approach to the review of organisation. The aim of each principle is to raise the stage of efficiency of the organisation. But from the Public Administration view point, many doubts arise as to whether the principles are valid in a political setting or not, whether administrative troubles can be treated purely in procedure conditions or not, whether the discipline should be wholly concerned with the solution of practical troubles and guidelines to administrators and politicians or not, whether the principles are related to actual behaviour in real-life situations or not.

The field of Public Administration is being continuously expanded. The assumption of rational efficiency was superseded through concepts of social efficiency, quality of government, political ends and public wants. In this state of affairs the validity of organizational principles has been questioned through modern public administrations. For instance, the issue of centralization and decentralization revolves round the location and also the extent of power of decision-creation in the organizational set-up. Neither centralization nor decentralization can be accepted as a principle of good organisation. They have situational relevance. Likewise, there are many points of distinction flanked by the line and the staff agencies. Though, on closer examination, it is realized that the distinction is unreal. Authority in modern organisation is measured to be more a matter of influence than of command. In short, it all

depends on a number of inter-related external and internal variables. Despite such criticism, classical theory has its importance in the history of administrative thought.

In the revise of administrative themes, Max Weber's theory of the administrative system, gives an influential conceptual framework and a secure historical understanding. The dominant form of public organisation in the modern society is bureaucracy. Consequently bureaucratic analysis has become crucial in the revise of Public Administration. Modern bureaucratic analysis focuses largely on the functional and dysfunctional characteristics of bureaucratic administration, behaviour, the cultural environment of bureaucracy, bureaucratic power and the bureaucratization of the administrative culture. Through concentrating largely on the formalities of public business, the social dynamics of inner working of public bureaucracy is neglected. Modern societies are now too complicated for either traditional or arbitrary rule alone. Public officials have become major political actors in their own right.

Public bureaucracy has been the central concern of Public Administration. Due to this cause, Comparative Public Administration has been equated largely with Comparative public bureaucracies. The province of bureaucratic theory grows, increasingly complex as theorists became aware that they necessity go beyond their own culture, values, conceptions and approaches to achieve the objectives. Studies of Comparative Administration show that bureaucratic systems are not all alike. There is no universal pattern although each system may contain common elements. On the contrary, there are specific bureaucratic cultures and a wide diversity of institutional forms and arrangements.

Misgivings about the organizational society, bureaucratization and the managerial revolution were not significantly represented in administrative theory until the 1950s. In the 1960s a revolt against the organizational society resulted in the emergence of dissenters, several of whom grounded in Public Administration, objected to bureaucratic theory Because of its emphasis on technocracy absence of humanism etc.

The counter-culture opposes the managerial revolution. It wishes to restore personal responsibility, self-management, individual participation and communal decision-creation and to replace totalitarian technocracy and meritocracy with democratic egalitarian and humanistic values. They consider that the post-industrial society will be more service-oriented, more people oriented, more sensitive, more human, more responsive to human rather than technocratic values. It will re-emphasize bureaucracy and tolerate a wide diversity of organizational structures that will exhibit greater adaptability, flexibility and creativity. In Public Administration the excitement of the

counter culture challenge was reflected in the New Public Administration movement of the early 1970s.

The classical theorists from Taylor to Weber laid emphasis on the physiological and mechanistic characteristics of public organisations. The after that historical stream of administrative thought is described as neo-classical or human relations approach to the revise of administrative procedure. Starting with the human relationists several and varied contributions from behavioral scientists have enriched administrative theory and management practices. The structuralist-mechanistic approach to public management was challenged through innovative behavioral science studies which focused on the human and social elements. From the Hawthorne experiments of the 1920s onward, clinical investigations in to human behaviour in organizational settings opened up new vistas of administrative behaviour studies that: led to substantial modifications in the concepts and methodologies of Public Administration. The works of Follett, Barnard and Simon resulted in a important change in direction of administrative theory. Chester Barnard's social system theory has broadened understanding of the relationship flanked by Public Administration and society.

Although, much of Public Administration theory is culture-bound, the revise of Comparative Public and Development Administration, a field virtually unknown before the Second World War, broke through cultural barriers and stimulated much original thinking. The ecological approach to the revise of administration originated in the wake of the emergence of the Third World and rising realization of relevance of mainly of the Western organisation theories to the revise of administration. F.W. Riggs and the Comparative Administrative Group of the American Society of Public Administration pioneered a new administrative vocabulary to describe dissimilar societal typologies, administrative cultures, and administrative systems. The result has been a questioning of the traditional framework of Public Administration and Western eccentricity.

This brief survey of administrative theories shows that traditional Public Administration assumptions are regularly shattered through modern happenings. The actual configuration of Public Administration is in a constant state of flux. It is never the same from one moment to another basically because perceptions change incessantly and with them the boundaries of Public Administration. The subject matter is exploding in all directions. Communal activities subject to political directions are expanding fast in response to modern needs. New kinds of public organisations are being created. New techniques and processes for improving the performance of public service delivery are being searched. The result is modern administrative theory.

Modern administrative theory is probabilistic, multidisciplinary, descriptive and multivariable, viewing administrator as an adaptive ecological system in its environment. It has a number of distinguishing features:

Modern theory views an organisation as a system consisting of five vital parts: input, procedure, output, feedback and environment.

The emphasis in modern theory is on the dynamic procedure of interactions that occur within the structure of an organisation,

It is multilevel and multi-dimensional.

It recognizes that an act may be motivated through many desires.

It is descriptive.

It assumes that an event is caused through numerous interrelated and interdependent factors.

Finally it views the organisation as an adaptive system.

This theory appears to satisfy the requirement that it necessity be comprehensive enough to cover all usually important events that occur in a modern organisation. To understand administrative theory one necessity understand the milieu in which it evolved, Scientific management, classical principles, and bureaucracy are all appropriate responses to the troubles classicists faced. On the other hand, human religionists and social-psychologists faced very dissimilar situations and troubles. As a result they changed their strategies from efficiency to adaptability. The new administrative theories are aimed at dealing with these circumstances.

ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY: AN EVALUATION

The contributions to the discipline of Public Administration have come mainly from the West and more so from the USA. American Public Administration is naturally rooted in American political and civic culture which is widely acknowledged as advanced capitalism blended with pluralism. The spirit of the discipline is naturally instrumentalist and management-oriented. Against this background, the contribution of Marxist social theory of Public Administration may be measured as an alternative paradigm. Marxist concern for macro social structures and the historical transformation of the whole political economics needs to be related to organizational analysis and the revise of Public Administration. A theory of Public Administration has to be inferred from the large body of Marxist and neo-Marxist literature on the nature of the state,

Conventional, empirically-oriented administrative theory is now being challenged through what is described "radical administrative theory". A

radical Public Administration grounded in the Marxist perspective is yet to take a definite shape. But the broad outline of this new disciplines is steadily emerging with obvious attraction far the "Third World" scholars who are groping for a new paradigm to explain the socio-political reality of the Third World. The perspective of Public Administration today is influenced through two major streams:

The general system seeking universal validity for theory, and

Efforts to evolve a theoretical model with a specific reference to the third world experience. The third world experience should be the basis for developing a new perspective on the discipline of public administration.

The value of administrative theory cannot be underrated in the organizational society. Stephen Bailey believes that "the objectives of Public Administration theory are to draw together the insights of the humanities and the validated propositions of the social and behavioral sciences and to apply these insights and propositions to the task of improving the processes of government and aimed at achieving politically legitimated goals through constitutionally mandated means". Bailey would select from the whole body of human knowledge whatever appears relevant and useful in explaining the nature of Public Administration, verifiable through observation or experiment and capable of predicting the behaviour of public organisations and the people who compose them and come into get in touch with them.

The discipline of Public Administration, has yet to develop a systematic body of theory of its own. The administrative theory should seek to explain the causation and direction of changes. This would and should become increasingly an integral part of the emerging perspective on the discipline of Public Administration. Public Administration as a discipline, has to go beyond the forms and processes of administration and look for explanations in social structure, class hegemony, and the dominant forces shaping the character of the state. Many attempts at integration of the theory, largely remained fruitless. It is very hard to evolve a general theory of Public Administration due to cross-cultural nature of the discipline. Unmistakably, the goal is not to arrive at a theory of administration but to formulate a series or a set of theories and models which can contribute to better understanding of the complex administrative "reality" in a diversity of settings-institutional, national, cultural and temporal. Such a pragmatic approach is bound to lead to a proliferation of concepts, operations, methods of observation and measurements, assumptions and explanations.

REVIEW QUESTION

Explain the meaning of chief executive.

What is line agency?

Describe the characteristics, functions and kinds of staff agencies.

Describe budget-creation in democratic countries.

Discuss the meaning of the conditions financial accountability, judicial control, public accountability and ethics in administration.

Describe the existing channels-legislative and judicial for redressal of citizen's grievances against administration.

Discuss the approaches to the revise of organizational effectiveness.

Explain the major trends in administrative theory.

What is significance of theory structure in public administration?

“The lesson content has been compiled from various sources in public domain including but not limited to the internet for the convenience of the users. The university has no proprietary right on the same.”



EIILM UNIVERSITY
S I K K I M

Jorethang, District Namchi, Sikkim- 737121, India
www.eiilmuniversity.ac.in