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UNIVERSITY OF NORTH BENGAL

MASTER OF ARTS-POLITICAL SCIENCES
SEMESTER -IV

ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY
ELECTIVE 404
BLOCK-1

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH BENGAL

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FOREWORD

The Self Learning Material (SLM) is written with the aim of providing simple and organized study content to all the learners. The SLMs are prepared on the framework of being mutually cohesive, internally consistent and structured as per the university's syllabi. It is a humble attempt to give glimpses of the various approaches and dimensions to the topic of study and to kindle the learner's interest to the subject

We have tried to put together information from various sources into this book that has been written in an engaging style with interesting and relevant examples. It introduces you to the insights of subject concepts and theories and presents them in a way that is easy to understand and comprehend.

We always believe in continuous improvement and would periodically update the content in the very interest of the learners. It may be added that despite enormous efforts and coordination, there is every possibility for some omission or inadequacy in few areas or topics, which would definitely be rectified in future.

We hope you enjoy learning from this book and the experience truly enrich your learning and help you to advance in your career and future endeavours.

ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

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BLOCK 1: ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

Introduction to the Block

Unit 1 deals with Public /Politics and Administration Organization – Meaning. Administration as an activity is as old as society itself. But as an area of study it originated, with the publication of Wilson’s essay on study of Administration in 1887. As a process, administration occurs in both public and private organisations.

Unit 2 deals with Nature and Typologies of Organisation. In this Unit we will be discussing about the importance of organisation vis-à-vis administration. We all know that administration is a cooperative group effort for the purpose of achieving predetermined objectives or goals.

Unit 3 deals with Development and Growth of Administrative Theories. Public administration is an integral part of a society. Its importance is pivotal in both developed and developing countries. Public administration as a specialised academic field deals essentially with the machinery and procedures of government as these are used in the effective performance of government activities.

Unit 4 deals with Rationality in administration behavior: Behavioral Approach. The human relations approach, on the other hand emphasises the informal dimension of the organisation. While the formal and informal dimensions of organisation form an important component of organisation phenomenon, the human behaviour-the value disposition of the functionaries-determine their attitudes and working style of the organisation.

Unit 5 deals with Decision making Approach. Decision making is the process of choosing actions that are directed towards the resolution.

Unit 6 deals with Organization and Social environment Bureaucracy. As a student of Public Administration you must be familiar with the term 'bureaucracy'.

Unit 7 deals with Organization of Concept features of Weberian construction. In the classical approach to administration, Weberian model of bureaucracy finds a central place.

UNIT 1: PUBLIC /POLITICS AND ADMINISTRATION ORGANIZATION - MEANING

STRUCTURE

1.0 Objectives

1.1 Introduction

1.2 What is Administration?

1.3 Administration, Organisation and Management

1.4 Defining Public Administration

1.5 Nature of Public Administration

1.6 Scope of Public Administration

1.6.1 Scope of Public Administration as an Activity

1.6.2 Scope of Public Administration as a Discipline

1.7 Public and Private Administration

1.7.1 Distinction between Public and Private Administration

1.7.2 Similarities between Public and Private Administration

1.8 Importance of Public Administration

1.8.1 Importance of Public Administration as Specialised
Subject of Study

1.8.2 Importance of Public Administration as an Activity

1.9 Role of Public Administration under Liberalisation, Privatisation
and Globalisation (LPG)

1.10 Let us sum up

1.11 Key Words

1.12 Questions for Review

1.13 Suggested readings and references

1.14 Answers to Check Your Progress

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, you should be able to:

- define Administration and Public Administration
- describe the nature of Public Administration
- explain the scope of Public Administration

- distinguish between Private and Public Administration
- analyse the Role of Public Administration vis-à-vis Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG)

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Administration as an activity is as old as society itself. But as an area of study it originated, with the publication of Wilson's essay on study of Administration in 1887. As a process, administration occurs in both public and private organisations. It occurs in such diverse institution as settings as a business firm, labour unions, religious or charitable organisations, educational institutions, etc. Its nature is affected by the sphere with which it is concerned. Administration is commonly divided into two types, Public and Private Administration. As an aspect of government activity it has existed since the emergence of political system(s). While public administration relates to the activities carried out by government, private administration refers to the management of private business enterprises. It is important to understand the functioning of administration for on this lies the understanding of the government. In this Unit an effort has been made to bring the concept of administration, public administration in particular, closer to you. This understanding will take you through the entire course of Public Administration. In what follows, we will examine the meaning, nature and scope of public administration.

1.2 WHAT IS ADMINISTRATION?

The word 'administer' is derived from the Latin word *administere*, which means to care for or to look after people, to manage affairs. Administration may be defined as "group activity which involves cooperation and coordination for the purpose of achieving desired goals or objectives". Broadly speaking, the term administration appears to bear at least four different meanings or different senses depending upon the context in which it is used: (1) As a Discipline: The name of a branch of learning or intellectual discipline as taught and studied in colleges and universities. (2) As a Vocation: Type of work/trade or

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profession/occupation, especially one that involves knowledge and training in a branch of advance learning. (3) As a Process: The sum total of activities undertaken to implement Public Policy or policies to produce some services or goods. (4) As a Synonym for 'word' Executive or Government: Such other body of persons in supreme charge of affairs, for example, Manmohan Singh Administration, Bush Administration, etc. Noted below are definitions by a few famous writers.

E.N. Gladden “Administration is a long and slightly pompous word, but it has a humble meaning, for it means to care for or look after people, to manage affairs.... is determined action taken in pursuit of conscious purpose”.

Brooks Adams “Administration is the capacity of coordinating many, and often conflicting, social energies in a single organism, so adroitly that they shall operate as a unity.

Felix A. Nigro “Administration is the organisation and use of men and materials to accomplish a purpose”.

J.M. Pfiffner and R. Presthus “Administration is the organisation and direction of human and material resources to achieve desired ends”.

L.D. White “The art of administration is the direction, co-ordination and control of many persons to achieve some purpose or objective”.

Luther Gullick “Administration has to do with getting things done, with the accomplishment of defined objectives”.

F.M. Marx “Administration is determined action taken in pursuit of a conscious purpose. It is the systematic ordering of affairs and the calculated use of resources, aimed at making those things happen which one wants to happen and foretelling everything to the country”.

Herbert Simon, D.W. Smithburg and V.A. Thompson “In its broadest sense, the administration can be defined as the activities of group cooperating to accomplish common goals.” A brief analysis of the definitions listed above reveals that administration comprises two essentials, namely (1) cooperative effort, and (2) pursuit of common objectives. One does not find any administration if there is only a common purpose without a collective effort or vice-versa. Administration is also called a ‘technology of social relationships’. Thus, administration is a process common to all group effort, public or private,

civil or military, large scale or small scale. It is process at work in a department store, a bank, a university, a high school, a railroad, a hospital, a hotel or a local government.

1.3 ADMINISTRATION, ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT

Before we discuss about the meaning, definition, nature, scope and importance of public administration we will try to know what is administration, organisation and management. As these terms are often used interchangeably and synonymously, it is pertinent to know the differences and distinctions between these three terms. According to William Schulze Administration is the force, which lays down the object for which an organisation and its management are to strive and the broad policies under which they are to operate. An Organisation is a combination of the necessary human beings, materials, tools, equipment and working space, appurtenances brought together in systematic and effective co-relation to accomplish some desired object. Management is that which leads guides and directs an organisation for the accomplishment of pre-determined object. To put the above in simple terms, administration sets the goal, management strives to attain it and organisation is the machine of the management for the attainment of the ends determined by the administration. Some scholars have a different view about the administration and management. According to Peter Drucker management is associated with the business activity, which has to show economic performance, whereas administration is associated with the non business activities like activities of the Government. The other view is that administration is associated with performing routine things in known settings in accordance with certain procedures, rules, and regulations. The Management is associated with performing functions like risk taking, dynamic, creative and innovative functions. Some scholars of Public Administration are closely associated with the first view that is, administration is a determinative function. Management, on other hand is an executive function that is primarily concerned with carrying out the broad policies laid down by the

administration. Organisation is the machinery through which coordination is established between administration and management.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. What is Administration?

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2. Discuss about the Administration, Organisation and Management.

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1.4 DEFINING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

L.D. White observes that although public administration varies in form and objects, and although the administration of public and private affairs differs at many points, there is an underlying similarity, if not identity. As an integral aspect of such generic concept, public administration could be related to that type of administration, which operates within a specific ecological setting. It is a means to carry out the policy decisions made by political executive. To be seen along with it is the ‘Public’ aspect of Public administration, which attributes a special character and focus to it. ‘Public’ can be looked at formally to mean ‘government’. So, public administration is government administration, government in action, or a socio-economic and politico-administrative confluence, the focus being especially on public bureaucracy. Encyclopaedia Britannica defines public administration as ‘the application of a policy of a state through its government.’ Public Administration, therefore, refers to that part of administration, which pertains to the administrative activities of the government. Now we will try to look into the definitions of Public Administration provided by various scholars.

Woodrow Wilson Public administration is the detailed and systematic application of law. Every particular application of law is an act of administration.

L.D. White “Public administration consists of all those operations having for their purpose the fulfilment or enforcement of public policy”. As per White, this definition covers a multitude of particular operations in many fields the delivery of a letter, the sale of public land, the negotiation of a treaty, the award of compensation to an injured workman, the quarantine of a sick child, the removal of litter from a park, manufacturing uranium 235, and licensing the use of atomic energy. It includes military as well as civil affairs, much of the work of courts, and all the special fields of government activity-police, education, health, construction of public works, conservation, social security, and many others. The conduct of public affairs in advanced civilisations requires the employment of almost every profession and skill-engineering, law, medicine, and teaching; the crafts, the technical specialties, the office skills, and many others

Percy Mc Queen Public administration is related to the operations of government whether local or central.

Luther Gulick Public administration is that part of the science of administration, which has to do with the government; it concerns itself primarily with the executive branch where the work of the government is done; though there are obviously problems also in connection with the legislative and judicial branches.

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

M. Ruthanaswami “When administration has to do with the affairs of a state or minor political institutions like the municipal or country council (district board), it is called public administration. All the acts of the officials of a government, from the peon in a remote office to the head of a state in the capital, constitute public administration.”

H.A. Simon, D.W. Smithburg and V.A. Thompson “By Public Administration is meant, in common usage, the activities of the executive

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branches of national, state and local governments, government corporations and certain other agencies of a specialised character. Specifically excluded are judicial and legislative agencies within the government and non-governmental administration.”

Corson and Harris “Public administration ... is the action part of government, the means by which the purposes and goals of government are realised.”

Dwight Waldo “Public administration is the art and science of management as applied to the affairs of State.”

M.E. Dimock

“Public Administration is concerned with ‘what’ and ‘how’ of the government. The ‘what’ is the subject matter, the technical knowledge of a field, which enables the administrator to perform his tasks. The ‘how’ is the technique of management, the principles according to which co-operative programmes are carried through to success. Each is indispensable; together they form the synthesis called administration”.

Nicholas Henry “Public Administration is a broad-ranging and amorphous combination of theory and practice; its purpose is to promote a superior understanding of government and its relationship with the society, it governs, as well as to encourage public policies more responsive to social needs and to institute managerial practices attuned to effectiveness, efficiency and the deeper human requisites of the citizenry”. The traditional definitions of Public Administration, which are given above reflect the view that the Public Administration is only involved in carrying out the policies and programmes of the government. It reflect that it has no role in policy making and also locates the administration in the executive branch but today the term public administration is used in a broader sense that it is not only involved in carrying out the programmes of the government, but it also plays an important role in policy formulation and covers the three branches of the government. In this context, we may reflected on the definition offered by F.A. Nigro and L.G. Nigro. According to them Public Administration:

In this context we can reflect the definition offered by F.A. Nigro and L.G. Nigro. According to them Public Administration:

- is co-operative group effort in a public setting;
- covers all three branches-executive, legislative, and judicial, and their inter-relationships;
- has an important role in the formulation of public policy and is thus a part of the political process;
- is different in significant ways from private administration; and
- is closely associated with numerous private groups and individuals in providing services to the community”.

In sum, public administration:

- is the non-political public bureaucracy operating in a political system;
- deals with the ends of the State, the sovereign will, the public interests and laws;
- is the business side of government and as such concerned with policy execution, but it is also concerned with policy-making;
- covers all three branches of government, although it tends to be concentrated in the executive branch;
- provides regulatory and service functions to the people in order to attain good life;
- differs significantly from private administration, especially in its emphasis on the public; and
- is interdisciplinary in nature as it draws upon other social sciences like political science, economics and sociology.

1.5 NATURE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

There are two views regarding the Nature of Public Administration, that is, Integral and Managerial. According to the integral view, ‘administration’ is the sum total of all the activities – manual, clerical, managerial, etc., which are undertaken to realise the objectives of the organisation. In this view all the acts of officials of the government from the Attendant to the Secretaries to the government and Head of the State

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constitute Public Administration. Henri Fayol and L.D. White are the supporters of this view. According to the managerial view of administration, the managerial activities of people who are involved in planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling constitute Public Administration. This view regards administration as getting things done and not doing things. Luther Gullick, Herbert Simon, Smithburg and Thompson are the supporters of this view. The managerial view excludes Public Administration from non-managerial activities such as manual, clerical and technical activities. The two views differs from each other in many ways. According to Prof. M.P. Sharma the difference between the two views is fundamental. The integral view includes the activities of all the persons engaged in administration whereas the managerial view restricts itself only to the activities of the few persons at the top. The integral view depicts all types of activities from manual to managerial, from nontechnical to technical whereas the managerial view takes into account only the managerial activities in an organisation. Furthermore, administration, according to the integral view would differ from one sphere to another depending upon the subject matter, but whereas that will not be the case according to the managerial point of view because the managerial view is identified with the managerial techniques common to all the fields of administration.

The difference between the two views relates to the difference between management and operation or we may say between getting things done and doing things. The correct meaning of the term administration would however, depend upon the context in which it is used. Dimock, Dimock and Koenig sum up in the following words: “As a study public administration examines every aspect of government’s efforts to discharge the laws and to give effect to public policy; as a process, it is all the steps taken between the time an enforcement agency assumes jurisdiction and the last break is placed (but includes also that agency’s participation, if any, in the formulation of the programme in the first place); and as a vocation, it is organising and directing the activities of others in a public agency.”

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

3. Defining Public Administration.

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4. Nature of Public Administration.

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1.6 SCOPE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

By the scope of Public Administration, we mean the major concerns of Public Administration as an activity and as a discipline.

1.6.1 Scope of Public Administration as an Activity

Broadly speaking, Public Administration embraces all the activities of the government. Hence as an activity the scope of public administration is no less than the scope of state activity. In the modern welfare state people expect many things – a wide variety of services and protection from the government. In this context public administration provides a number of welfare and social security services to the people. Besides, it has to manage government owned industries and regulate private industries. Public administration covers every area and activity within the ambit public policy. Thus, the scope of public administration is very wide in modern state.

1.6.2 Scope of Public Administration as a Discipline

The scope of public administration as a discipline, that is subject of studies, comprises of the following: The POSDCoRB view Several writers have defined the scope of public administration in varying terms.

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Gullick sums up the scope of the subject by the letters of the word POSDCoRB which denote: Planning, Organisation, Staffing, Directing, Co-ordinating reporting the Budgeting. Planning means the working out in broad outline the things to be done, the methods to be adopted to accomplish the purpose. Organisation means the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which the work is sub-divided, arranged, defined and coordinated. Staffing means the recruitment and training of the personnel and their conditions of work. Directing means making decisions and issuing orders and instructions. Coordinating means inter-relating the work of various divisions, sections and other parts of the organisation. Reporting means informing the superiors within the agency to whom the executive is responsible about what is going on. Budgeting means fiscal planning, control and accounting. According to Gullick the POSDCoRB activities are common to all organisations. They are the common problems of management which are found in different agencies regardless of the nature of the work they do. POSDCoRB gives unity, certainty, and definiteness and makes the study more systematic. The critics pointed out that the POSDCoRB activities were neither the whole of administration, nor even the most important part of it. The POSDCoRB view overlooks the fact that different agencies are faced with different administrative problems, which are peculiar to the nature of the services, they render and the functions they performed. The POSDCoRB view takes into consideration only the common techniques of the administration and ignores the study of the 'subject matter' with which the agency is concerned. A major defect is that the POSDCoRB view does not contain any reference to the formulation and implementation of the policy. Therefore, the scope of administration is defined very narrowly, being too inward looking and too conscious of the top management.

The Subject Matter View We all know that public administration deals not only with the processes but also with the substantive matters of administration, such as Defence, Law and Order, Education, Public Health, Agriculture, Public Works, Social Security, Justice, Welfare, etc. These services require not only POSDCoRB techniques but also have important specialised techniques of their own which are not covered by

POSDCoRB techniques. For example, if you take Police Administration it has its own techniques in crime detection, maintenance of Law and Order, etc., which are much and more vital to 10 efficient police work, than the formal principles of organisation, personnel management, coordination or finance and it is the same with other services too. Therefore, the study of public administration should deal with both the processes (that is POSDCoRB techniques and the substantive concerns). We conclude the scope of public administration with the statement of Lewis Meriam: "Public administration is an instrument with two blades like a pair of scissors. One blade may be knowledge of the field covered by POSDCoRB, the other blade is knowledge of the subject matter in which these techniques are applied. Both blades must be good to make an effective tool". We may conclude the discussion with the observation of Herbert Simon who says that Public administration has two important aspects, namely deciding and doing things. The first provides the basis for the second. One cannot conceive of any discipline without thinking or deciding. Thus Public administration is a broad-ranging and an amorphous combination of theory and practice.

1.7 PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ADMINISTRATION

The major concern of administration is to properly organise men and material for achieving desired ends. As a co-operative group activity, administration is truly universal and operates in all types of public and private organisations. In other words, administration occurs in both public and private institutional settings. Its nature depends upon the nature of the setting and goals with which it is concerned. On the basis of the nature of the institutional setting, public administration can be roughly distinguished from private administration. Public administration is governmental administration concerned with achieving state purposes, determined by the state. Private administration, on the other hand is, concerned with administration of private business organisation and is distinct from public administration. Let us elaborate this

1.7.1 Distinction between Public and Private Administration

John Gaus, Ludvig Von Mises, Paul H. Appleby, Sir Josia Stamp, Herbert A. Simon, Peter Drucker, etc., in their writings, have made distinction between public and private administration. According to Simon, the distinction between public and private administration relates mainly to three points:

- Public administration is bureaucratic whereas private administration is business like;

- Public administration is political where as private administration is non-political; and
- Public administration is characterised by red-tape where as private administration is free from it. Felix A. Nigro has pointed out that government is also different from private organisation, as no private company can equal to it in size and diversity of activities. According to Sir Josiah Stamp, the four principles, which differentiate public from private administration, are:

- Principle of Uniformity: Common and uniform laws and regulations mostly regulate public Administration.
- Principle of External Financial Control: the representatives of the people through a legislative body control Government revenues and heads of expenditure.

- Principle of Ministerial Responsibility: Public administration is accountable to its political masters and through them to the people.

- Principle of marginal Return: The main objective of a business venture is profit, however small it may be. However, most of the objectives of public administration can neither be measured in money terms nor checked by accountancy methods. According to Paul H. Appleby public administration is different from private administration. He remark, “In broad terms the governmental function and attitude have at least three complementary aspects that go to differentiate government from all other institutions and activities: breadth of scope, impact and consideration; public accountability; political character. No non-governmental

institution has the breadth of government. Appleby notes that the political character of Public Administration differentiates it from private administration. Public Administration is subject to political direction and control. This is the primary distinction between the two. He further argues, "Administration is politics since it must be responsive to the public interest. It is necessary to emphasise the fact that popular political processes, which are the essence of democracy, can only work through governmental organisation, and that all governmental organisations are not merely administrative entities, they are and must be political organisms." Appleby reflects further on the distinction between public and private administration in the context of public accountability "Government administration differs from all other administrative work to a degree not even faintly realised outside, by virtue of its public nature, the way in which it is subject to public scrutiny and outcry. This interest often runs to details of administrative action that in private business would never be of concern other than inside the organisation. According to Appleby private administration cannot claim the breadth of scope, impact and consideration of the public administration. He observes, "The organised government impinges upon and is affected by practically everything that exists or moves in our society. It involves policies and actions of immense complexity. Its fullest possible understanding requires the wisdom of many specialists as well as the key participants in public and private life. The more important distinguishing features of Public administration may be described under the following sub-heads: Political Direction: Public administration is political, while private administration is non-political, public administration takes place in a political context. Absence of profit motive: The absence of profit motive from the Public administration is another feature, which distinguishes it from the private administration. The primary purpose of governmental organisation is to provide services to the people and promote social good. Prestige: Public administrators who serve in the Government enjoy high status and prestige in comparison to their counterparts in private enterprises especially developing countries. Public Gaze: All the actions of public administration are exposed to wide public gaze because the public closely watches it. This does not happen in private administration.

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Service and Cost: Most governments spend more money than their income or revenues. That is the reason for finding generally a deficit budget that is, expenditure exceeding income. Conversely, private administration income often exceeds expenditure without which they cannot survive.

Legal framework: Public administration operates within a legal framework. It is rule oriented. The responsibilities of public administrators are fixed by a set of constitutional practices, laws and regulations. Government officials are obliged to act within their legal powers and not outside the law.

Consistency of treatment: A government official is required by law to maintain a high degree of consistency in his dealings with the public. He has to observe the principle of equality of treatment in serving the people. It is a legal obligation to not to discriminate against any person.

Public accountability: Public accountability is the hallmark of Public administration in a democracy. Public administration is responsible to the public, though not directly but indirectly through political executive, legislature, judiciary, etc.

Large-scale administration: Public administration is large-scale administration. It is said that almost anything under the sun is directly or indirectly under the domain of public administration. It is by all means larger than any big private concern in terms of size., complexity and diversity of activities.

Monopolistic and Essential Services: In the field of public administration, there is generally a monopoly of the government and it does not generally allow private parties to compete with it. For example, no person or bodies of persons are allowed to establish or perform functions related to public services like national security, foreign relations, law and order, mint and currency, as these are the exclusive fields of the government and thoroughly important for the community and polity to prosper.

Officials remain Anonymous: In public administration, even the most senior officials remain anonymous and their identity is not disclosed. This is so because whatever they do, they do in the name of the government and not in their own name.

Financial meticulousness: Public administration has to be very careful in financial matters because it is working as custodian of people's money.

Lower level of Efficiency: Efficiency is said to be the cornerstone of any organisation. However, due to varied responsibilities, lack of effective

control, less accountability, involvement of a large number of levels and job security of employees, efficiency has not been there in public organisations to the effect desired. When compared to private administration, one finds that the degree of efficiency in public organisations is at a lower level. With profit as the major motive coupled with excessive control and flexibility in personnel administration the level of efficiency in private organisations is much higher.

1.7.2 Similarities between Public and Private Administration

Scholars like Henry Fayol, Mary P. Follet and L. Urwick do not make a distinction between public and private administration. The classical writers held the view that public and private administrations are the undifferentiated members of the genus administration. Henri Foyal, for example, says that there is only one administrative science, which can be applied equally well to public and private sectors. In his address in the Second International Congress of Administrative Science, Fayol remarked, “The meaning which I have given to the word administration and which has been generally adopted, broadens considerably the field of administrative sciences. It embraces not only the public service but also enterprises of every size and description, of every form and every purpose. All undertakings require planning, organisation, command, co-ordination and control and in order to function properly, all must observe the same general principles. We are no longer confronted with several administrative sciences but with one which can be applied equally well to public and to private affairs”. The following similarities between the two types of administration may be noted:

1. Both public and business administration rely on common skills, techniques and procedures.
2. In modern times the principle of profit motive is not peculiar to private administration, because it is now accepted as a laudable objective for public sector enterprises also.

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3. In personnel management, the private organisations have been influenced greatly by the practices of public organisations.

4. The private concerns are also subjected to many legal constraints. Government is exercising much control over business firms through regulatory legislation such as taxation, monetary and licensing policies, etc. Consequently, they are not as free as they once used to be.

5. There is a similar type of hierarchy and management systems, both in public and private sectors.

Both have same kind of organisation structure, superior – subordinate relationships, etc.

6. Both Public and private administration carries on continuous efforts to improve their internal working and also for efficient delivery of services to people or customers.

7. Public and private administration serves the people, whether being called clients or customers. Both have to maintain close contact with people to inform about their services and also to get feedback about services and product. In both the cases, public relations help them to inform and improve their services to the people.

The preceding discussion shows that the distinction between public and private administration is not absolute. In fact, they are becoming more and more alike in many respects. However, it does not mean that there are no significant differences between these two types of administration. Waldo observes that Public administration is distinct because it reflects the peculiar characteristics of government activity and the public setting in which it functions. Given the wide acceptance of the ideas of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation, both public and private administrations have to compete in the same area to provide services to people. Here both are dealing with customers, who pay for their services, in such a situation it narrows down the differences between the public and private administration. New Public Management, which has come

into prominence, recently, puts emphasis on managerial techniques, which are to be adopted by public administration for the efficient delivery of public services. But in providing public services in the field of social and welfare areas there exists a difference between public and private administration. With this brief characterisation, it could be stated that both public and private administration are placed in different environments. But this difference is more apparent than real. According to Waldo, "The generalisation which distinguishes public administration from private administration by special care for equality of treatment, legal authorisation of, and responsibility of action, public justification of decisions, financial probity and meticulousness, etc. are of very limited applicability." In fact public and private administrations are the "two species of the same genus, but they have special values and techniques of their own which give to each its distinctive character."

Check Your Progress 3

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

5. Scope of Public Administration.

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6. Public and Private Administration.

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1.8 IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

We will be discussing the importance of public administration as a specialised subject of study and later the role and importance of public administration in the modern society.

1.8.1 Importance of Public Administration as Specialised Subject of Study

The study of administration assumed significance, according to Woodrow Wilson, as a consequence to the increasing complexities of society, growing functions of state and growth of governments on democratic lines. This exhaustive list of functions made to think as to 'how' and in what 'directions' these functions should be effectively performed. To this Wilson suggested that there was a need to reform the government in the administrative field. As per Wilson, the object of administrative study is to discover what government can properly and successfully do and how it can do these things with utmost efficiency and the least possible cost either of money or of energy. The importance of public administration as a specialised subject can be attributed to the following reasons:

- One of the important reasons is the practical concern that the government today has to work towards the public interest. The first and foremost objective of public administration is to efficiently deliver public services. In this context, Wilsonian definition of the subject as efficiency promoting and pragmatic field was the first explicitly articulated statement on the importance of a separate discipline of public administration. During the first half of the preceding century, a number of countries have appointed committees to look into the problems of administration and recommended suitable administrative machinery to respond to diverse public needs. The Haldane Committee Report (1919) in Britain; the President's Committee on Administrative Management (1937) in the United States; A.D. Gorwala Committee's and Paul H. Appleby's Reports in India are some of the examples of the efforts by various countries to make changes in public administration. During the last four decades also, a number of reports, produced by committees/commissions appointed by governments in various countries or multilateral agencies, and books published by scholars have enriched the discipline and provided new perspectives to public administration to tune it to the changing needs of the times. They include: Report of the Committee on the Civil Services (Fulton Committee Report, U.K., 1968); various reports of the Administrative Reforms Commission (India, 1967-72); Reinventing Government (U.S.A., look by David

Orborne and Ted Gabler, 1992), Governance and sustainable Development (UNDP, 1997) and World Development Report: Building Institutions for Markets (The World Bank, 2002). • Administration is looked at, in the social science perspective, as a cooperative and social activity. Hence the concern of academic inquiry would be to understand the impact of 17 government policies and operations on society. What kind of society do the policies envisage?; To what extent administrative action is non-discriminatory?; How is public administration functioning and what are the immediate and long term effects of governmental action on the social structure, the economy and polity?; etc. are questions requiring careful analysis. From the social science perspective, public administration, as a discipline, has to draw on a variety of sister disciplines such as History, Sociology, Economics, Geography, Philosophy, Psychology, etc., with the objective to explain and not just to prescribe.

- Public administration has a special status in the developing countries. Many of these countries, after independence from the colonial rule have stressed upon speedy socio – economic development. Obviously, these countries have to rely on government for speedy development. The latter requires a public administration to be organised and effectively operated for increasing productivity quickly. Likewise, social welfare activities have to be effectively executed. These aspects have given birth to the new sub-discipline of development administration. The emergence of development administration is indicative of a felt need for a body of knowledge about how to study the third world administration and at the same time to bring about speedy socio-economic development with government's intervention. Development administration has therefore, emerged as a sub-discipline to serve the cause of development.

- Public administration, as witnessed holds a place of significance in the lives of people. It touches them at every step. For most of their needs, the citizens depend upon public administration. In view of the important role of public administration in the lives of people, the citizens of a country cannot ignore. Therefore, its teaching should become a part of the curriculum of educational institutions. People must get to know about the

structure of government, the activities it undertakes and the manner in which these are actually performed. The study of public administration will contribute to the realisation of the values of citizenship.

1.8.2 Importance of Public Administration as an Activity

The contemporary age, which has witnessed the emergence of 'Administrative State', public administration has become an essential part of society and a dominant factor. The functions it is called upon to perform, have expanded in scope and nature, and what is more, are continually increasing. Many of them are more positive in nature because they care for the essential requirements of human life, be it health, education, recreation, sanitation, social security or others. It is, therefore, a creative factor, with its motto being 'human welfare'. These functions are over and above its regulatory functions. The view points of eminent scholars, as referred to below, amply reflect the significance of public administration.

Woodrow Wilson: "Administration is the most obvious part of government; it is government in action, it is the executive, the operative and the most visible side of the government.

Brooke Adams: "Administration is an important human faculty because its chief function is to facilitate social change and to cushion the stock of social revolution".

W.B. Donham, 'If our civilization fails, it will be mainly because of breakdown of administration'.

Paul H. Appleby: 'Administration is the basis of government. No government can exist without administration. Without administration government would be a discussion club, if indeed, it could exist at all'.

The role of public administration in various facets is noted below:

- **Basis of the Government:** A Government can exist without a legislature or an independent judiciary. But no Government can exist without administration.

- An instrument for providing services: Public administration is mainly concerned with the performance of various activities performed by government in the public interest. Felix A. Nigro aptly remarks, “The real core of administration is the basic service which is performed for the public”.
- An instrument for implementing policies: Modern governments go a long way in formulating and adopting sound policies laws and regulations. It should not be forgotten that such policies, laws, etc. are not merely printed papers. Such paper declarations of intent are translated into reality by public administration thus converting words into action and form into substance.
- A stabilising force in society: Public administration is a major force for bringing stability in society. It has been observed that though government often changes, but violent change is seldom experienced by administration. An element of continuity between the old and the new orders is provided by public administration. It does not hold true only of constitutional changes of government in democratic countries, but is also reflected when there are revolutionary changes in the form and character of government.
- An instrument of social change and economic development: Public administration’s role as a change agent is particularly crucial in developing nations. It is expected of the state at present to work for accelerating socio-economic change and not to be a passive agency to maintain the status quo.
- Technical Character: The present day government is expected to provide various services to its population. The increase in the number of functions undertaken by the government require highly specialised, professional and technical, services. Modern public administration usually represents a galaxy of all of a nation’s occupations. According Gerald Caiden public administration has assumed the following crucial roles in contemporary modern society:

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- Preservation of polity;
- Maintenance of stability and order;
- Institutionalisation of Socio-Economic changes;
- Management of large scale commercial services;
- Ensuring growth and economic development;
- Protection of the weaker sections of society;
- Formation of public opinion; and
- Influencing Public policies. The points mentioned below summarise the reasons for the growing importance of public administration:
 - Emergence of Welfare and Democratic state Emergence of welfare and democratic state has led to an increase in the activities of public administration compared to that of the laissez-faire state. The state has to now serve all sections of people in the society. This amount to enhanced responsibilities of public administration. Public administration is also to regulate and control private economic enterprises to meet the objectives of the state.
 - Industrial Revolution The industrial revolution gave rise to socio-economic problems making the government to assume new roles and responsibilities such as protection and promotion of the rights of workers in industrial establishments, etc. Consequently, the state has enacted a number of Industrial and Labour laws and it is imperative for public administration to implement such laws in order to meet the requirements of labour welfare.

- Scientific and Technological Development Scientific and technological developments have brought about welcome additions in infrastructure such as power, transport and communication system. The invention of telephone, telegraph and other mechanical devices such as typewriter, tele-printer, and calculators, photocopying machines, computers, fax and the electronic mail has brought revolutionary changes in office administration. All these have made possible 'big government' and 'large scale administration'. Besides changing the ethos and character of public administration, the revolution in information and communication technologies have contributed to improved delivery of services to people.

- Economic Planning Centralised economic planning has been pursued in many developing countries as a method for socio-economic development. It requires a large number of experts and elaborate administrative machinery for plan formulation, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. Apart from the reasons cited the rapid growth of population, modern warfare, increase in natural and manmade disasters, decline in social harmony, increase in violence due to conflicts, communal riots, ethnic wars, terrorism, etc. have increased the importance of public administration. It goes without saying that public administration is not only the operative but also the most obvious part of the government. It is government in action and occupies a significant place not merely as an instrument of governance but also as an important mechanism for preserving and promoting the welfare of community. It has substantive impact upon the life of the people. It is a vital process charged with implementation of pre-determined, welfare oriented, and developmental objectives.

1.9 ROLE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION UNDER LIBERALISATION, PRIVATISATION AND GLOBALISATION (LPG)

Since the 1980s a number of countries, have been influenced by the concept of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation. In the 1980s India has also started the process of liberalisation, privatisation and

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globalisation (LPG). One form of LPG has entrusted the management of public sector enterprises partially or fully to private companies. Another form of LPG is disinvestment in public sector enterprises, which is followed in India. As a result of this the public sector enterprises find themselves in a competitive and challenging environment. However, the role of public administration under LPG continues to be quite significant. It requires dismantling of a regime of regulations, controls, restrictions, licences, secrecy and delay. The bureaucracy has to play an investor friendly, responsive, transparent, open and competitive role. So, this requires necessary administrative reform, which should aim at elimination of redundant practices, procedures, administrative laws and corruption. Thus, the policy of LPG affects the role, values and skills of public bureaucracy. It also decreases the scope of the functions of the state, resulting in minimum of state interference in the lives of the individuals. The state is called upon to oversee the operational side of the enterprises. This gives the state a new role as regulator. Today, the role of public administration is towards more of governance, than of direct involvement. The public administration has to play enabling, collaborative, cooperative, partnership and regulatory roles. Coming to the core areas such as defence, atomic energy, law and order, foreign policy it has a direct role to play. In certain other areas such as telecommunications, airlines, insurance, etc., it has to compete with the private sector, for which there should be regulatory commissions to provide for equal level playing fields for both the sectors. There are other areas which it can have partnership with the citizens for efficient delivery of services, for example, maintenance of schools, hospitals, irrigation water and civic amenities.

An example we can give is the 'Bhagidari Scheme' adopted by the Delhi Government. In certain areas like electricity, water and transport it can have partnership with the private sector. A number of states have partnership with the private sector in providing these services. Other such areas are protection of forests, empowerment of women, micro credit, health schemes, and awareness programmes, it can have partnership with the Non-Governmental (NGO) and Voluntary

Organisations. In analysing the emerging role of public administration in the new millennium, we are dealing with governance. And governance implies that public administration has to operate in a wider context and coordinate efforts and activities of the governmental agencies at various levels with that of the market/the private sector, civil society groups, NGOs and contextual participant or elected local government bodies, self-help groups, etc. The role and character of public administration has seen a major transformation. Although it appears that its directly handled operations have declined in some of the nontraditional areas, public administration has to provide synergy and direction for many collaborative, cooperative and regulatory activities with other segments of the society. The accent is also on promotion of greater public participation. Yet, it is still accountable for the outcomes of all the activities in which it participates directly or indirectly.

Check Your Progress 4

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Importance of Public Administration.

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2. Role of Public Administration under Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG).

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1.10 LET US SUM UP

In the preceding text, the importance of Public Administration as a discipline and as an activity has been discussed. Subsequent developments in the discipline in response to both practical problems and academic questions have further enhanced its importance as a vibrant and meaningful field. In the contemporary world, the burden of public duties

on government has been steadily increasing. It seems that public administration is indispensable because contemporary civilisation cannot progress without a sound administrative system. According to Gerald, E. Caiden “The positivistic-interventionist role of government would automatically find reactions in academic inquiry. And as history has shown, the importance of Public Administration as a discipline has been closely associated with the increasing activist role of government everywhere. In the context of the newer and the wider duties and responsibilities thrown on the state, the role of public administration is more vital and important than of almost any other branch of government. As a growing field of knowledge and practice, Public Administration has attempted to meet this challenge”.

1.11 KEY WORDS

Equality: The idea that all persons have an equal claim to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

Globalisation: The process of globalisation not only includes opening up of world trade, development of advanced means of communication, internationalisation of financial markets and services, growing importance of multinational corporations, population movements and, more generally, increased mobility of persons, goods, capital data and ideas, but also of infectious diseases and environmental problems like pollution.

Liberalisation: A process of freeing the economy, from various Governmental regulations such as industrial licensing, controls on pricing and distribution of products and services, imports and exports and foreign exchange regulations; control of capital issues by companies; credit controls, restriction on investment, etc., so that the development and operation of the economy is increasingly guided by freely operating market forces. Thus liberalisation is essentially a process of withdrawal of all direct controls on the economy.

Privatisation: It means transfer, from the public to the private sector, of ownership or control over assets or activities. Privatisation fosters efficiency, encourages investment – and thus new growth and

employment – and frees public resources for development of infrastructure and social programmes.

Red Tape: The ribbon that was once used to bind government documents; the term now stands as the symbol of excessive official formality and over attention to prescribed routines.

Regulation: The totality of government controls on the social and economic activities of its citizens; the rulemaking process of those administrative agencies charged with the official interpretation of laws.

Synergy: The enhanced result of two or more people, groups or organisation working together. In other words one plus one equals three! it comes from the Greek “Synergia”, which means joint work and cooperative action. The word is used quite often to mean that combining forces produces a better product.

1.12 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What is Administration?
2. Administration, Organisation and Management
3. Defining Public Administration
4. Nature of Public Administration
5. Scope of Public Administration
6. Public and Private Administration
7. Importance of Public Administration
8. Role of Public Administration under Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG)

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1.14 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

1. See Section 1.2
2. See Section 1.3

Check Your Progress 2

1. See Section 1.4
2. See Section 1.5

Check Your Progress 3

1. See Section 1.6
2. See Section 1.7

Check Your Progress 4

1. See Section 1.8
2. See Section 1.9

UNIT 2: PUBLIC /POLITICS AND ADMINISTRATION ORGANIZATION - MEANING

STRUCTURE

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Why Organisations are Important
- 2.3 Meaning of Organisation
- 2.4 Principles of Organisation
- 2.5 Formal and Informal Organisation
- 2.6 Typologies of Organisation
 - 2.6.2 Typologies by Goal or Function or Purpose
 - 2.6.2 Typologies on the Bases of the Consumer or Primary Beneficiary
 - 2.6.3 Typologies on the Basis of Compliance
 - 2.6.4 Typologies on the Basis of Authority
- 2.7 Let us sum up
- 2.8 Key Words
- 2.9 Questions for Review
- 2.10 Suggested readings and references
- 2.11 Answers to Check Your Progress

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the importance of organisation vis-à-vis administration;
- Define Organisation;
- Explain Organisation and its characteristics;
- Define, describe and differentiate between formal and informal organisations; and
- Discuss the Typologies of organisations.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

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In the first Unit, an attempt is made to understand about public administration, its meaning, nature, scope, and importance, and distinction between public and private administration. In this Unit we will be discussing about the importance of organisation vis-à-vis administration. We all know that administration is a cooperative group effort for the purpose of achieving predetermined objectives or goals. Public administration is an organised activity aiming at provision of services besides application of constraints to individuals and groups in the society. It is obvious that the efforts of different persons have to be in accordance with a preconceived plan to avoid confusion and working at cross-purposes. Katz and Kahn observe that when goal-directed activities are coordinated rationally by assignment of duties and responsibilities, this rational coordination is organisation. Consequently, public administration requires organisation. But organisation can take many different forms and can maximise many diverse values. The structure of organisation affects the behaviour of the organisation as a whole and of the individual members of it. The same is true of the processes through which organisations operate. By designing organisational structures and processes of one kind or another different purpose can be achieved. Organisations come into existence for the attainment of some purpose or goal; for example the United Nation Organisation was established after the end of the Second World War with the noble objectives of saving the world from the scourge of another war. And we know that much of the cooperative human effort takes place within formal organisations, of which government agencies are only one example. Others are private companies, labour unions, religious institutions, hospitals, universities, professional societies and political parties. It is, therefore, important to know about the organisation. As rightly observed by David H. Rosenbloom, the organisation of administrative activity ranks at the forefront or deals questions with which the student and practitioner of public administration must be concerned. In this Unit, we will discuss the importance of organisation vis-à-vis administration, types, typologies, and approaches to organisation.

We now know that organisation is one of the major functions of management. In layman terms, one can look at organising as an activity

to eliminate chaos and introduce a systematic functioning in the enterprise. Technically, the organisation helps in establishing authorities, dividing workloads, assigning responsibilities, grouping tasks and allocating resources.

This is of utter importance because once the plans have been laid there is a need to allocate resources, divide tasks, workforce, ensure optimal utilisation of resources etc. so that the objectives are fulfilled. Further, it facilitates the collective working of the various members of the enterprise in an ordered manner.

Also, organisation involves defining various roles that need to be filled by suitable employees and establishing relationships between these defined goals to eliminate ambiguities in performance. In turn, this group the activities clarifies the amount of power and authority in the hands of different employees and clarifies the responsibility for various activities within the enterprise.

In a nutshell, an organisation can be defined as a process that defines the resources as well as allocate them, coordinates human efforts and integrates both in order to achieve the defined goals.

2.2 WHY ORGANISATIONS ARE IMPORTANT

In recent years organisations in all spheres of life have been growing in size and complexity. James G. March and Herbert A. Simon are of opinion that organisations are important because people spend so much of time in them. The work force, that is the adult population, spends more than a third of its waking hours in organisations. Even the child spends his time in the environment of the school organisation. In the words of the Amitai Etzioni “our society is organisational society”. We are born in hospitals, educated in schools, employed by business firms or government agencies; we join trade unions and professional associations. In sickness and in health, at work and at play, life in modern industrial society is increasingly conducted in organisational settings. Katz and Kahn are of the opinion that organisations are not a new invention. In many pre-industrial societies, organisations have been created to pursue

specific goals. In the view of many sociologists, organisations have become the dominant institutions of contemporary society.

Time is Money

Disorganized business owners may find themselves searching through piles of paperwork for that one invoice, bank statement or human resources file. This problem can extend to the virtual office as well. Using neatly organized folders to keep track of important bills or emails, for example, can save time. Good organizational skills can free up much-needed minutes every day for you to spend on more important tasks.

Keeps the Taxman Happy

At tax time, finding the appropriate documents can be stressful and time-consuming for a disorganized business owner. Missing documents can even turn into a legal hassle if the company undergoes an audit. Filing receipts, invoices and statements properly, and using basic accounting software to track sales, expenses and receivables, will make the entrepreneur (and his accountant) much happier at tax time.

Planning the Cash Flow

Organization is the root of a good financial management program. Systems that monitor receivables can help business owners keep track of their money and plan cash flow. With no system for organizing sales and invoices, balances can go unpaid without notice. If vendors aren't paid and the supply chain shuts down due to a delinquent balance, business suffers. Staying on top of how much money is going in and out can help the owner make adjustments to reduce spending or increase sales.

Winning Repeat Business

Problems with organization can lead to a drop in customer service. For example, if an online store's order processing system is not properly organized, customers may not receive orders on time. Customer satisfaction is the key to earning repeat business, and if the company is not well organized in this area, revenue will also suffer. Poor billing systems can potentially result in customers being charged multiple times for one item or not at all, which is also bad for business.

Reducing Stress and Overwhelm

Working in an unorganized environment can make a business owner and employees feel constantly on edge. Not knowing where to look for

information, sorting through unorganized paperwork and dealing with the consequences of poor organization create a stressful workplace. That stress may extend into the rest of a business owner's life and lead to job burnout. Implementing good organization systems can help reduce this stress and give a business owner more time to enjoy life outside work.

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2.3 MEANING OF ORGANISATION

The word 'organising' springs from 'organism', which means a structure with parts or components integrated in such a way that their relation to the whole governs their relation to each other. Noted below are the definitions by few famous writers: According to Nicholas Henry

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organisations are different creatures to different people, and looking at different facts of various organisations such phenomenon appears to be unavoidable.

Victor A. Thompson

An organisation is “a highly rationalised and impersonal integration of a large number of specialists cooperating to achieve some announced specific objective”.

Chester I. Barnard

An organisation as “a system of consciously coordinated personal activities or forces of two or more persons”.

E. Wight Bakke

An organisation is “a continuing system of differentiated and coordinated human activities utilising, transforming, and welding together a specific set of human material, capital, ideational and natural resources into a unique, problem-solving whole whose functions is to satisfy particular human needs in interaction with other systems of human activities and resources in its particular environment”.

Gortner, Harold F., Julianne Mahler, and Jeanne Bell Nicholson

“An organisation is a collection of people engaged in specialised and interdependent activity to accomplish a goal or mission”.

John M. Gaus, L.D. White, and M.E. Dimock John M. Gaus, L.D. White, and M.E. Dimock express similar views on organisation. Their definitions emphasise the following: Organisation is the arrangement of personnel for facilitating the accomplishment of some agreed purpose through the allocation of functions and responsibilities. It refers to a relationship of efforts and capacities of individuals and groups engaged in a common task in a coordinated way to secure the desired objective with the least friction and the most satisfaction to those for whom the task is done and for those engaged in the enterprise.

Max Weber Organisation is a corporate group, - that is, a social relationship which is either closed or limits the admission of outsiders by rules. Its orders are enforced by the action of specific individuals. The focus is on legitimate interaction patterns.

Herbert Simon Organisation means a planned system of cooperative effort in which each participant has a recognised role to play and duties and tasks to perform.

L. Urwick Organisation determines the activities those are necessary for a purpose (or plan) and arranging them in the group, which may be assigned to individuals. In this definition, while the identification of the tasks and their grouping is given priority, the individuals to whom the functions are entrusted come later.

Pfiffner and Sherwood Organisation is the pattern of ways in which a large number of people, initiate face-to-face contact, and relate themselves to each other in the conscious and systematic accomplishment of a mutually agreed purpose.

Dimock, Dimock and Koeing “Organisation is the systematic bringing together of inter-dependent parts to form a unified whole through which authority, co-ordination and control may be exercised to achieve a given purpose. Because the interdependent parts are made up also of people who must be directed and motivated and whose work must be co-ordinated in order to achieve the objectives of the enterprise, organisation is both a structure and human beings.”

Amirtai Etzioni

Organisations are “social units (or human groupings) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals. Corporations, armies, schools, hospitals, churches, and prisons are included; tribes, classes, ethnic groups, friendship groups, and families are excluded”. Etzioni stresses the following three characteristics of organisations: (i) division of labour, power and responsibilities - divisions which are not random or traditionally patterned, but deliberately planned to enhance the realisation of specific goals; (ii) the presence of one or more power centres which control the concerted efforts of the organisation and direct

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them towards its goals; and (iii) substitution of personnel, i.e., unsatisfactory persons can be removed and others can be assigned their tasks. The organisation can also recombine its personnel through transfer and promotion.

James D. Mooney Organisation “refers to more than the frame of the edifice. It refers to the complete body, with all its correlated functions. It refers to those functions as they appear in action, the very pulse and heartbeats, the circulation and respiration, the vital movement, so to speak, of the organised unit. It refers to the co-ordination of all those factors as they co-operate for the common purpose”.

Earnest Dale Organisation is a system of communication, a means of problem solving and a means of facilitating decision-making. For him, an organisation is “the process of determining what must be done if a given aim is to be achieved; dividing the necessary activities into segments, small enough to be performed by one person; and providing means of co-ordination, so that there is no wasted effort, and the members of the organisation do not get into each other’s ways”. Even though organisations represent different things to different people, it is not enough to “define” organisations, as James G. March and Herbert A. Simmon once did, with the phrase, “organisations are more earthworm than ape”. Nicholas Henry identifies the following characteristics of organisation:

- purposeful, complex human collectivities;
- characterised by secondary (or impersonal) relationships;
- specialised and limited goals;
- characterised by sustained cooperative activity
- integrated within a larger social system;
- provide services and products to their environment;

• dependent upon exchanges with their environment These features make up our working model of organisations, both public and private. What we understand is that organisation is not only a structure but also a set of complex human collectivities to achieve the purpose or a goal. According to Nicholas Henry most of the scholars who worked on the organisations have identified the above characteristics of the organisation and stressed upon different aspects or features. According to James D. Thomson the literature can be trisected into three major streams: the closed model, the open model and the newer tradition, which attempts to synthesise both the models. These three streams, which constitute the threads of organisation theory, are discussed in the succeeding units.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Why Organisations are Important?

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2. Meaning of Organisation.

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2.4 PRINCIPLES OF ORGANISATION

The dictionary meaning of the term principle is a standard or accepted guide to action. According to L.D. White it is a hypothesis or proposition, so adequately tested by observation or experiment that it may intelligently be put forward as a guide to action or as a means of understanding something. Henri Fayol defines principles as acknowledged truths regarded as processes on which one might rely. Many scholars who studied organisations to make them perform efficiently develop certain principles to govern the administration, whether public or private, either to control the work of the subordinates

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or to improve the structure of the organisation. Scholars like James. D. Mooney, Alan C. Reiley, Henri Fayol, Luther Gulick, Urwick and F.W. Taylor evolved principles of organisation as guidelines for planning an efficient organisational structure. We will discuss the principles of organisation evolved by some scholars:

Henri Fayol He has derived a set of fourteen principles of organisation.

- **Division of work** The basic objective of this principle is to enable labour to produce more and better work with same effort.
- **Authority and Responsibility** The occupant of each position should be given enough authority to carryout all the responsibilities assigned to him i.e. responsibility is a corollary of authority; it is its natural consequence and essential counterpart; and whatsoever authority is exercised responsibility exists.
- **Discipline** Discipline or obedience, imply that members behave in accordance with the standing agreement between the organisation and its members.
- **Unity of Command** The subordinate employee should receive orders from only one superior officer.
- **Unity of Direction** One head for each employee and one plan for each activity.
- **Subordination of individual interest to general interest** The interest of individual or a group should not prevail over that of the total organisation. The interest of the organisation should be above the individual and group interest.
- **Remuneration of Personnel** The salary or remuneration paid for the services rendered by the employee should be fair, encouraging or it shall not be excessive payment or be beyond reasonable limits.

- **Centralisation** It simply indicates that overall responsibility is concentrated in the top executive.
- **Scalar Chain (Hierarchy)** It is the chain of authority running along the hierarchy from the top level right down to the bottom level.
- **Order (Placement)** A place for everything in its place i.e. an employee occupies that job wherein he or she can render the most effective service.
- **Equity** Organisation should encourage an atmosphere of equity based on friendliness and justice in employer-employee relations to enable the employees to fulfil their duties with devotion.
- **Stability of Tenure** A reasonable time should be provided for continuous stay in a job at a given place to enable the employees to settle down in their jobs, to adjust to the requirements of the work.

Initiative The employees should be provided an opportunity to show their initiative with a view to improve their skills and sense of participation.

- **Esprit de corps** This principle contributes to the need for teamwork and the maintenance of interpersonal relationships based on harmony and unity.

James D. Mooney and Alan C. Reiley

They proposed four principles of organisation:

- **Coordinating Principle**
- **Scalar Principle**
- **The Functional Principle**

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- Staff and Line

Luther Gulick and L. Urwick Urwick, traces a large proportion of friction and confusion in society, with its major consequences, to faulty arrangements in organisation.

Having stressed the importance of the structure as a designing process Gulick and Urwick devote their attention to the discovery of principles based on which the structure may be designed. Gulick contributed ten principles of organisation • Division of work or specialisation; • Bases of departmental organisation; • Co-ordination through hierarchy; • Deliberate co-ordination; • Co-ordination through committees; • Decentralisation; • Unity of command; • Staff and line; • Delegation; • Span of control.

L. Urwick

He contributed eight principles of organisation • The principle of objectives – organisation should be an expression of a purpose; • The principle of correspondence – authority and responsibility must be co-equal; • The principle of responsibility – the responsibility of the superiors for the work if the subordinates is absolute; • The scalar principle; • The principle of span of control – a superior cannot supervise directly the work of more than five or six subordinates whose work interlocks; • The principle of specialisation – limiting one's work to a single function; • The principle of co-ordination; and • The principle of definition – a clear prescription of every duty. It is helpful at this stage to define or elaborate a few of the principles outlined by Gulick and Urwick.

- Principle of Objective: The organisation should be an expression of purpose;
- Division of Work or Specialisation: Gulick claims that work division is the foundation of organisation; indeed it is the reason for organisation. Without specialisation there would be little need for administrators. The objective of the division of work is to produce more and better work with the same effort.
- Principle of Correspondence:

Authority and responsibility must be co-equal. According to Henry Fayol, responsibility is a corollary of authority, it is its natural consequence and essential counterpart, and whosoever authority exercises responsibility exists; • Scalar Principle: According to Mooney, it is sometimes called hierarchical, but he prefers the use of Scalar. According to him scale means a series of steps, something graded. In organisation, it means the grading of duties, not according to different functions but according to degree of authority and corresponding responsibility. The term hierarchy refers to a graded organisation of several successive steps or levels, in which each of the lower level is immediately subordinate to the next higher one and through it to the other higher level and so on, right up to the top; • The Principle of Responsibility: The responsibility of the superior for the work of the subordinate is absolute; • The Principle of Span of Control: The Span of Control principle implies that superior cannot supervise directly the work of more than five or six subordinate whose work interlock; • The Principle Unity of Command: It means each employee receives orders from one superior only. Orders from several superiors will result in confusion, inefficiency and irresponsibility; • The Principle of Coordination: According to Mooney Coordination is the first principle of organisation. The term coordination means effecting cooperation and team work among the employees in an organisation. It is also integration of several parts into an orderly whole to achieve the purpose of the organisation. • The Line and Staff Principle: The term Line refers to authority for execution, and the term Staff to advice and ideas.

H. Eric Frank He has identified eleven principles of organisation: • The objectives of the enterprise and its component elements should be clearly defined and stated in writing. The organisation should be simple and flexible. • The responsibilities assigned to a position should be confined, as far as possible, to the performance of a single leading function. • Functions should be assigned to organisation units on the basis of homogeneity of objectives to achieve the most efficient and economic operation. • There should be clear lines of authority running from the top to the bottom of the organisation, and accountability from the bottom to the top. • The responsibility and authority of each position should b

clearly defined in writing. • Accountability should always be coupled with corresponding authority. • Authority to take or initiate action should be delegated as close to the scene of action as possible. • The number of levels of authority should be kept to the minimum. • There is a limit to the number of positions that can be effectively supervised by a single individual. • Everyone in the organisation should report to only one supervisor. • The accountability of higher authority for the acts of its subordinates is absolute. We have seen that most of the scholars of the earlier period have contributed principles for designing and structuring of an efficient 13 organisation. But the major problem is neglect of the human element in the organisation. They have considered humans as insignificant in the administrative process. They have shown concern mostly for the formal organisation, to the total neglect of the informal organisational process. As a consequence, this gave rise to human relations and behavioural studies. These studies compensated the failure of the above scholars by viewing organisation essentially as a human association. We all know that human beings have to be constantly motivated to contribute their efforts toward the attainment of the set goals. It is not only the structure, which is important, but equally important is how to motivate the people within an organisation. So, any organisation should be based on principles relating to both physical and social aspects of the organisation.

2.5 FORMAL AND INFORMAL ORGANISATION

Before we proceed to discuss organisational theory we will try to distinguish between formal and informal organisation. Mohit Bhattacharya distinguishes formal organisation from social organisation or informal organisation. According to him formal organisation is established for the explicit purpose of achieving certain goals, and possesses rules designed to anticipate and shape behaviour in the direction of these goals, and it has a formal status structure with clearly marked lines of communication and authority. He observes where social life is carried on without a framework of explicit goals or rules, which define a formal status structure; it is usually thought more appropriate to

use the term social organisation. In the words of H.A. Simon, D.W. Smithburg and V.A. Thompson Formal organisation is meant the pattern of behaviour and relationship that is deliberately and legitimately planned for the members of an organisation. Where as informal organisation is meant the whole pattern of actual behaviour the way members of the organisation really do behave – insofar as this actual behaviour does not coincide with the formal plan.

According to Chester Barnard formal organisation is a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons and such organisation comes into the existence only when a) there are persons able to communicate each other; b) who are willing to contribute action; and c) to accomplish common purpose. Thus, communication, willingness to serve and a common purpose are the three elements in a formal organisation. Barnard observes that individuals in the organisation continuously interact based on their personal relationship rather than organisational purpose. Such interaction may be due to the gregarious instinct or fulfilment of some personal desire. Because of the continuous nature of such interaction, such relations become systematised and result in what are called informal organisations. He describes an informal organisation as the aggregate of personal contacts and interactions and the associated grouping of people. These organisations are indefinite, structureless and are a shapeless mass of varied densities.

The Characteristics of Formal Organisation • It has a clearly defined structure of activities which is predetermined by the top management. • A formal organisation is relatively stable. • A formal organisation grows and expands. • The organisation structure is based on division of labour and specialisation. • The structure is based on the jobs to be performed and not according to individuals who are to perform jobs. • The organisation does not take into consideration emotional aspect. It is deliberately impersonal. • The authority and responsibility relationships created by the organisation structure are to be honoured by every one. • Organisational charts are usually drawn. All the positions from General Manager down to lower levels appear on the formal chart of the organisation.

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The Characteristics of Informal Organisation An informal organisation has its own characteristics. • Generally a society evolves its own unwritten laws, beliefs and controls regarding what is desirable behaviour and what is undesirable. This is what an informal organisation also does.

People think and act alike in groups and this continuous cooperation gives rise to common values and common codes of behaviour. • It forces the members of the group to observe the common rules. It is a very effective organisation to impose penalties on or punish those who violate these rules. • The leadership in it is also informal. • There is stratification also within an informal organisation, which is based on several factors.

Functions of Informal Organisation The informal organisation performs the following functions: • communication of unintelligible facts, opinions, suggestions and suspicions which cannot easily pass through formal channels; • minimises excessive clicks of political influence; • self-discipline of the group; and • makes possible the development of important personal influences in the organisation.

Relation between Formal and Informal Organisations Organisations consist of human beings and they are human organisations. Informal organisations have a serious impact on the members of the formal organisation, thereby bringing a continuous interaction between formal and informal organisation. According to Chester I. Barnard formal organisations create informal organisations as a means of communication and to protect the individuals from the domination of formal organisations. In turn, informal organisations tend to formalise several elements, thereby establishing a formal organisation within an informal organisation. The relation between the two according to Barnard's observation is that they are inter-dependent aspects of the same phenomenon – a society is structured by formal organisation, formal organisations are vitalised and conditioned by informal organisations. The bottomline is that there cannot be one without the other. If one organisation fails, the other will necessarily disintegrate. L.D. White is of the opinion that the two that is informal and formal organisation may nearly coincide, or they may be far apart. Further he says informal organisation is more subtle, reflecting such matters as social and

economic status outside the work relationship, race or language differences, education, and personal likes and dislikes. It has a powerful effect upon the formal organisation; and in cases of conflict may prove dominant.

What we understand from the observations of the two scholars above is that both formal and informal organisations are important, as both are interdependent.

2.6 TYPOLOGIES OF ORGANISATION

Some scholars based on size, ownership, legal status and the area of operation have classified organisation. Another set of scholars has classified the organisation based on function or purpose, primary beneficiary, consumer and authority. Now we will be discussing about the classification based on the latter set of scholars.

2.6.1 Typologies by Goal or Function or Purpose

Talcott Parsons has classified organisations into four types on the basis of their functions or goal served by the organisation. The four types of organisations are:

- i) **Production/Economic Organisation** This types of organisations produce goods or make things which are consumed by the society.
- ii) **Political Organisation** This type of organisations are concerned with the attainment of political goals. They generate and allocate power within the society and also maintain peace and stability in the society. Legislature and government departments are examples of such organisations.
- iii) **Integrative Organisations** These organisations try to settle conflicts, integrate and coordinate various segments of the society to work together and provide stability in the society. Judicial courts, police, and social agencies are examples of this type of organisation.
- iv) **Pattern Maintenance Organisation** These organisations are concerned with the societal continuity with a focus on long-term

issues such as of society's values, patterns, knowledge, culture, etc. through the educational, cultural and religious institutions.

Katz and Kahn have also classified organisations into four types based on the functions or goals served by the organisation. The four types of organisations are:

- (i) **Production or Economic Organisation** These organisations are concerned with the manufacture of goods, provision of essential services to the people and also building up of infrastructure. Their focus is on creation of wealth.
- (ii) **Managerial or Political Organisation** These organisations are concerned with adjudication; coordination and control of resources; people; and sub-systems
- (iii) **Adaptive Organisation** These organisations provide opportunities for creation of knowledge, testing and development of theories and also provide information and solutions to the existing problems. Universities and research institutions are examples of these organisations.
- (iv) **Maintenance Organisation** These organisations give space and scope and devote to the socialisation of people for their roles in other organisations and in the larger society. Schools, church, and health and welfare institutions are examples of this type of organisation.

2.6.2 Typologies on the Bases of the Consumer or Primary Beneficiary

Blau and Scott

They classified the organisation based on the primary recipient of the output or who benefits. The main basis for this classification is who the direct consumer of the output of the organisation is, or who the prime beneficiary is. Four types of organisation are derived on this basis: (i) **Mutual Benefit Association** In this type of organisation the primary beneficiaries are the members themselves. Political parties, trade unions,

professional associations and religious bodies are examples of these organisations. (ii) Business Organisations or Business Concerns In this type of organisation the owners of properties are the prime beneficiaries of the organisation. They are mostly concerned about the return on investment in the organisation than with the nature of output of the organisation. The other main concern is that of operating efficiently to make the maximum profit at minimum cost. In order to survive they have to compete with other organisations. (iii) Service Organisations In this type of organisation the clients who are served are the prime beneficiaries. Hospitals, educational institutions, social work agencies legal aid societies, etc. are examples of these organisations. The clients who are supposed to be the primary beneficiaries do not have usually control over these organisations. (iv) Commonwealth Organisations In this type of organisation the public at large is its primary beneficiary. Post office, police service, fire department, military service are examples of these types of organisations.

2.6.3 Typologies on the Basis of Compliance

A. Etzioni

He differentiates organisation on the basis of compliance. Compliance involves one party telling or directing another party to do something. It refers to the manner in which the lower participants in an organisation respond to the authority system of the organisation. In this context, Etzioni identifies three types of power: coercive, utilitarian and normative. Coercive power is based on the application or the threat of physical sanction. Here compliance is alienated. Utilitarian power is based on control over material resources. Here compliance takes a calculative or utilitarian approach. Normative power based on the allocation of symbolic rewards. Here the compliance is moral. Almost all the organisations would follow the three types of authority, which combine three types of compliance.

2.6.4 Typologies on the Basis of Authority

Max Weber identifies three types of organisation on the basis of exercise of authority. They are explained below:

(i) Charismatic Authority In this type of organisation there will be a leader and set of disciples or followers. Because of charisma or an exceptional quality of the followers accept his authority or repose their faith in the person. In this type of organisation the administrative apparatus is very loose and unstable that is a built in instability.

(ii) Traditional Authority In this type of organisation the followers or employees accept the authority of a person who occupies the traditionally sanctioned position of authority. The administrative apparatus in this kind of domination would consist of personal servants, relatives and feudal lords.

(iii) Legal or Rational Authority In this type of organisation people or followers accept the authority of a leader, which is based on the belief in the rightness of law. It is legal because authority is exercised by means of a system of rules and procedures by reason of the office, which an individual holds. The administrative apparatus corresponding to this kind of authority is bureaucracy. Bases of Organisation – Luther Gullick's Four Ps Luther Gullick identifies four bases for organisation, which are popularly known as 4 Ps i.e., purpose (function), process, persons (clientele) and place. Organisation Based on Purpose or Function

In the first place the organisation may be organised on the basis of purpose or function or service to be performed. The example are education, law and order, communication, and transport. Organisation Based on Process We can have an organisation based on the process or skills or specialisation. The accounts department, public works and law are examples of this type of organisation. Organisation on the Basis of Persons Organisations are formed on the basis of the persons served. Women and child welfare department, tribal welfare department, old persons and unemployed are examples of this type of organisation. Organisation on the Basis of Place or Territory Organisations are created on the basis of place or territory or area to be served. The railway organisation spread across the nation to various zones based on territory is an example of this type of organisation. Countries and Districts are the best examples or organisation based on territory.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Principles of Organisation.

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2. Formal and Informal Organisation.

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3. Typologies of Organisation

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2.7 LET US SUM UP

An organisation is the planned coordination of the activities of a number of persons or employees for the accomplishment of some common explicit purpose or goal through division of labour and functions and through hierarchy of authority and responsibility. If two or three persons have to work to achieve a common goal, there arises the need for an organisation. Without having a cooperative and systematic relationship between them the results are likely to be disappointing. James D. Mooney rightly observes that an organisation is necessary whenever two or more people must combine their efforts towards the same end, even if the task is a short-lived one, such as moving a large stone. We are living in a world of organisations. For every aspect we find one or other organisation to provide services. In this unit we try to make you familiarise with the how importance of organisation for administration and explain the meaning, importance, and the principles of organisation.

The nature and characteristics of formal and informal organisations and the distinction between them are discussed. The bases on which the organisations are established are also presented.

2.8 KEY WORDS

Organisation Development: An approach or strategy for increasing organisational effectiveness. As a process it has no value biases, but it is usually associated with the idea that effectiveness is found by integrating the individual's desire for growth with organisational goals.

Organisational Culture: Basic patterns of attitudes, beliefs, and values that underlie an organisation's operation.

Learning Organisation: Peter Senge's term for organisations in which new patterns of thinking are nurtured and people are continually learning together to improve both the organisation and their personal lives.

Post bureaucratic Organisation: Constantly changing temporary organisational systems; task forces composed of groups of relative strangers with diverse skills created in response to a special problem rather than to a continuing need.

2.9 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Why Organisations are Important
2. Meaning of Organisation
3. Principles of Organisation
4. Formal and Informal Organisation
5. Typologies of Organisation

2.10 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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2.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

1. See Section 2.2
2. See Section 2.3

Check Your Progress 2

1. See Section 2.4
2. See Section 2.5
3. See Section 2.6

UNIT 3: DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH OF ADMINISTRATIVE THEORIES

STRUCTURE

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Theory: Importance and characteristics
- 3.3 Public Administration theory: Need and importance
- 3.4 Administrative theory: Evolution and growth
- 3.5 Theory-building in Public Administration – An evaluation.
- 3.6 Let us sum up
- 3.7 Key Words
- 3.8 Questions for Review
- 3.9 Suggested readings and references
- 3.10 Answers to Check Your Progress

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Know the importance of a theory for the growth and development of a discipline.
- Explain need and importance of Public Administration theory.
- Explore evolution and growth of administrative theory.
- Evaluate theory building in Public Administration.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Public administration is an integral part of a society. Its importance is pivotal in both developed and developing countries. Public administration as a specialised academic field deals essentially with the machinery and procedures of government as these are used in the effective performance of government activities. According to Nichlos Henry, “Public administration purpose is to promote a superior understanding of government and it relationship with society it governs,

as well as to encourage public policies more responsive to social needs and to institute managerial practices attended to effectiveness, efficiency and the deeper human requisites of the citizenry". Public administration is a part of the wider field of administration lends itself to two usages: it is an activity and it also refers to the discipline of intellectual inquiry and study. In simple, public administration is a combination of theory and practice. In this unit, an attempt is made to review the development and growth of administrative theories.

The administrative theory is given by Henri Fayol, who believed that more emphasis should be laid on organizational management and the human and behavioral factors in the management. Thus, unlike the scientific management theory of Taylor where more emphasis was on improving the worker's efficiency and minimizing the task time, here the main focus is on how the management of the organization is structured and how well the individuals therein are organized to accomplish the tasks given to them.

The other difference between these two is, the administrative theory focuses on improving the efficiency of management first so that the processes can be standardized and then moves to the operational level where the individual workers are made to learn the changes and implement those in their routine jobs. While in the case of the scientific management theory, it emphasizes on improving the efficiency of the workers at the operating level first which in turn improves the efficiency of the management. Thus, the administrative theory follows the top-down approach while the scientific management theory follows the bottom-up approach.

Public Administration Theory is the amalgamation of history, organizational theory, social theory, political theory and related studies focused on the meanings, structures and functions of public service in all its forms. It often recounts major historical foundations for the study of bureaucracy as well as epistemological issues associated with public service as a profession and as an academic field.

Generally speaking, there are three different common approaches to understanding public administration: Classical Public Administration Theory, New Public Management Theory, and Postmodern Public

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Administration Theory, offering different perspectives of how an administrator practices public administration.

Important figures of study include: Max Weber, Frederick Winslow Taylor, Luther Gulick, Mary Parker Follett, Chester Barnard, Herbert A. Simon, and Dwight Waldo. Herbert Simon advanced a public administration theory that was informed by positivism. The influence of positivism today can be seen in journals such as the Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory and the Journal of Policy Analysis and Management. Notable Public Administration Theorist such as Max Weber expressed the importance of values in the development of public administration theory. However, theory cannot simply be derived from empirical observation of facts, it must be constructed using value judgements that direct our empirical observations and then guide out interpretation of those observations. Values are essential for the construction of public administration theories because it takes into account the meaningful ethical principles and philosophies of a culture which ensure appropriate theory practice. Public Administration theories are put into practice or considered through a few distinct strategies: Parallel, Transfer, or Collaboration also known as the theory-gap practice. This practice is used to transfer knowledge between practitioners and scholars.

3.2 THEORY: IMPORTANCE AND CHARACTERISTICS

Types of Public Administration Theory

Public Administration Theory recently has been divided into three branches. The three branches are, Classical Public Administration Theory, New Public Management Theory and Postmodern Public Administration Theory. Each of these three branches study Public Administration from a different perspective. These types of theories are some of the ways which an administrator can understand and exercise their duties as a public administrator.

Classical Public Administration Theory

Classical Public Administration is often associated with Woodrow Wilson and Max Weber. In the United States, Woodrow Wilson is known as 'The Father of Public Administration' , having written "The Study of Administration" in 1887, in which he argued that a bureaucracy should be run like a business. Wilson promoted ideas like merit-based promotions, professionalization, and a non-political system. Sympathy can lead to downfall in an administration; means there should be pragmatism in bureaucracy.

New Public Management Theory

New Public Management asset of administrative practices,a consulting fad, and a body of theory that interprets recent developments in public administration. Many scholars argue persuasively that scholars should pay more attention to New Public management as a theory than as a fad. New public management is part and parcel of the massive intrusion of freemarket values into public space, which threatens to drive out political values altogether. It is worth noting that,in this sense, new public management is the radical opposite of the notion of migrating political values into "private" space in the interest of further democratizing society. However, new public management theory fails to addresses political questions in a meaningful way. This theory looks at public administration from its roots of capitalism, and goes on through the perspective of global capitalism. Intentional or not, new public management has served the interests of elites, particularly corporate elites, has degraded the ability of governments to address the public interest, and has served as a vehicle for elevating the apolitical governance of free trade and other supranational organizations,which have fully embraced the political philosophy of economic rationalism and new managerialism.

Postmodern Public Administration Theory

Post-modern public administration is referring to the inner workings of nearly every government entity in existence. Whether it is the congress men and women in Washington D.C. or the Department of Public Safety representatives located at any DPS office handling the paper work of applicants wanted to obtain a drivers license. The idea of public

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administration is broad enough to encompass all government positions that affect the public. Members of public administration come in different forms and quantities. When understanding the theory of postmodern public administration, it is important to make a differentiation between postmodern theory and the postmodern era as well as being able to differentiate between post-modernity (period of time) and postmodernism (theory/philosophy).

Postmodern theory evolves out of the postmodern era. Chuck Fox and Hugh Miller are two of the main contributors to postmodern theory because they were able to recognize the postmodern condition and how it was playing out in public administration and public policy. Fox and Miller argue that the traditional approach to public administration "robs public administration theorists of the independence required to imagine more emancipating conditions of work and governance." Miller proposes a network model based on economic utility which would explain events better than traditional approach to public administration. Miller states that "policy networks provide a way of processing dissension, articulating values, and airing possible policy implementation strategies. Maneuvering on behalf of the public interest in this complex politically subtle network is the task of post-progressive public administration." This theory began in the 1990s, even though this theory had been around in other disciplines for a while. An estimation of time could date back to Plato and his ideas of a public and communal government where there are policy making actions and steps through levels of democracy. This theory has since been revisited and changed through three intellectual movements, interrogating the loop model of democracy, which many have argued that it is largely a myth, showing the symbolic nature of policy and politics in the United States, and discourse theory. One of the downsides of this theory is that it is based on the slippery slope of relativism. This theory also provides people with the tools to rebuild our infrastructures of symbolic and social order. This theory addresses big questions of what is right and wrong and tries to address the issue to find antidotes for anomie and relativity.

The founding father of postmodern public administration is commonly referred to as Woodrow Wilson, while many can find his roots of

inspiration from the works of Friedrich Nietzsche. Using Woodrow Wilson as a reference point, it can be shown that in his essay *The Study of Administration*, it is “traditionally accepted that with his study, Wilson applied positivist principles to public administration...based on the belief that social reality would be objectively known with the separation of positivist traditional values from facts.” (Traces of Postmodernism in the New Public Management Paradigm, Kerim Ozcan-Veyssel Agca).

Public Administration Theory Development

Public Administration theory is derived from several contemporary theory building tools such as Max Weber's Ideal type method. Theories are also derived from studies of evolving governments around the world, such as China's expanding bureaucracy. Different aspects to take into account are: accountability, state-citizen relations, and services for all in times of fiscal scarcity. When developing theories, the most effective theories are the ones tailored for a particular country taking aspects such as values into account. When empirical evidence is the only aspect taken into account it leads to an ineffective policy because the theory will not reflect the values of the citizens, resulting in bad citizen- state relationships. The Theory-Gap Practice is used to analyze the correlations between Public Administration theory and practice. The three fields of the theory gap-practice that describe the relationship between scholars and practitioners are: Parallel, Transfer, and Collaboration strategy.

Max Weber's Ideal- Type Method

The ideal-type method developed by Max Weber is a useful tool in contemporary public administration theory development because the method takes into account the culture of a society that is then integrated into a theory. Weber referred to it as cultural science or interpretive sociology, which, is to understand ideas and practices from within their own intellectual and cultural horizon and on the basis of categories that are grounded in a meaningful social and historical context. According to Margaret Stout, Ideal-type methods are used to frame observation and analysis and to evaluate what is found. Weber's method must be

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developed using value judgments that direct our empirical observations and then guide our interpretation of those observations. Through this theory building method, Weber insisted that all interpretations of meaning must remain at best "a peculiarly plausible hypothesis", as opposed to a claim of relevance of a theory. Weber's purpose for using this method is to clarify the importance of values in sense making, but how they are also extremely important for the conduct of meaningful social science. Weber's interpretive sociology employs a type of functional analysis that begins with the whole, proceeds to the parts, and then goes back from the parts to the whole. His ideal-type method is thereby simultaneously useful in both the study of social structure and social action. Social action is linked to subjective meaning at the individual level of analysis, and structural forms are a consequence or construction of social action. This combination is particularly valuable to public administration because the manner in which administrative action and the social structures of governance interrelate requires an approach that considers both. On the one hand, ideal-types enable consideration of things like alternative meanings of important concepts or alternative motivations held by social actors. On the other hand, they enable analysis of associated or resulting social structures. In this way, an ideal-type can concurrently help interpret the meaning of the administrative role as well as critique the institutions of governance.

Theory- Gap Practice

Parallel- Proponents of this strategy of relating theory and practice believe that practical knowledge cannot be derived from theories. For the practitioners of this strategy, practice and theory remain separate components of knowledge. Practical knowledge aims to how to handle problems in particular situations while theory aims at handling a specific situation in a general set of principles. Advocates for the parallel strategy claim there can be a complementary relationship between practical and theoretical knowledge or that they can substitute each other in certain situations because particular situations will require practice and theory to work together. Thus advocates that champion parallel strategy argue that

it is essential for management studies to maintain an autonomous communication system.

Transfer- This second strategy frames the theory-practice problem as one of translating and diffusing research knowledge into management. This strategy confronts the issue of public managers lack of interest or studying of the work of scholars. This is the result of the scholarly work not being easily applicable to practice, and the complexity of the journals, thus knowledge is not being transferred from theory to practice. The transfer strategy proponents claim the popularizing the scholarly work, and making it more relevant to current issues faced in public administration would enhance the transfer of knowledge from scholars to street level bureaucrats and public managers. However, some argue this approach falls short of expectations because many practitioners of public administration have little influence on the content of knowledge offered by scholars.

Collaboration- This strategy aims to enhance communication between scholars and practitioners before the theory is developed in order to build a dialectic method of inquiry, building on the idea that communication is necessary throughout the whole theory building process in order to have a well development practical theory. Scholars Van de Ven and P.E. Johnson put it as:

"Engagement is relationship that involves negotiation and collaboration between researchers and practitioners in a learning community; such a community jointly produces knowledge that can both advance the scientific enterprise and enlighten a community of practitioners."

The word 'theory' and its meaning is derived from Greek word "Qewpix" meaning theoria, that is looking at, viewing or contemplation. Theory is a body of related principles dealing systematically with a subject. Its task is to tie together significant knowledge to give it a framework. 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 generalisation applicable within the stated boundaries that specifies the relationship between facts. Development of a theory should be in consonance with adoption of scientific approach to analyse and understand a particular phenomenon. The process of scientific theory

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construction and confirmation can be viewed as involving the following steps.

- (a) The formulation of a problem or problems based on observation.
- (b) The construction of the theory to provide answers to the problem or problems based on inductions from observations.
- (c) The deduction of specific hypothesis from the theory.
- (d) The recasting of hypothesis in terms of specific measures and the operations required testing the hypothesis.
- (e) The devising of factual situations to test the theory.
- (f) The actual testing in which confirmation does or does not occur. A good theory should have the following characteristics:

- It should contribute to the goals of science. This mean 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.
- It should be clearly delineate the domain of the discipline.
- It should direct research efforts to important matters.
- It should have potential for yielding not just a few isolated facts, but powerful explanation and prediction across the whole domain.
- It should be a testable reality;
- It should not only be confirmed by research derived from it but should also be logically consistent within itself and with other known facts; and

• The best theory is the one that is the simplest statement. But Miner adds that what was a good theory at one time many not are so good some years latter. Developing a theory is important more than one reason. It provides a perspective to the reality stimulates new visions from familiar scenes; and constitutes a base for further theorizing. Theory acts as a guide to action, to collect facts, to explore the new knowledge's and to explain the phenomena that are being examined. Theories help us to understand, predict, influence or manage the future. This being the importance of theory building, one becomes an inevitable part of the growth and development of any discipline. Public administration is no exception.

3.3 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION THEORY: NEED AND IMPORTANCE

Public administration is the action part of government for the fulfilment of the objectives of the political system. The machineries of government and their functioning have attracted the attention of scholars since the time of recorded history. Kautilya's "Arthashastra", Aristotle's "Politics" and Machiavelli's "The Prince" are important contributions to both political and administrative issues and ideas. Administration as an activity and as an intellectual discipline attracted attention only since the later part of 19th century. The complex nature of the modern state resulted into enormous expansion of the functioning of government. Such expansion generated a compulsive need for an in depth study and comprehensive research into various facets of administration. The functions of public administration called upon to perform everywhere have not only expanded in scale, range and nature, but also increasing in volume. Dynamic nature of society and complex nature of government activities, make it difficult for the public administrators to understand and realise their goals. There is a need for a broader understanding of the administrative phenomenon in its totality. One of the reasons for the failure of the administrator to realise his goals is his inadequate understanding of the administrative theory. Theory building in public administration is not an easy task, as there are various kinds of public organisations, administrative structures and processes. The nature of the

state, social relations, political culture etc. heavily influences the working of all public organisations. Any public administration theory that does not take this into consideration and ignores these factors would analyse the administrative phenomenon only partially. In such a case scientific validity of such generalisations would be doubtful. Therefore, there is need for a broader and deeper understanding of administrative theory, which would help the administrator to fashion the administration as per societal requirements and enable him to manage the administrative system effectively and efficiently. 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 ability to comprehend the phenomenon and provides self-confidence. Administrative theory educates the administrators scientifically, as theory is the conceptualisation of experience.

3.4 ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY: EVOLUTION AND GROWTH

Traditionally, administrative theorizing has been the work of practitioners and reformers particularly in the United States of America. In the part of the twentieth century American Universities began to take active interest to bring reforms in government. In 1914 the American Political Science Association published a report, which delineated the objectives of the teaching of political science. One of the objectives stated was to “prepare specialists for governmental positions”. Thus, public administration was recognised as an important sub-area of political science. The subject began to gain increasing recognition in the American Universities and its study was steadily spreading. In other words, public administration as a discipline was born in the United States, and that country continues to enrich it even today. The single most important source of literature in the field of public 3 administrations is USA. The discipline has learnt to reflect the American concerns, and in the process they tend to become universalised. A systematic and scientific study of public organisation can be traced to the 19th and early part of the 20 centuries. A powerful movement at the empirical plane was the scientific management movement by F.W.

Taylor. The movement had a resounding impact on the governmental reforms in the United States. Thus, the early American administrative thought developed at a time when the Industrial Revolution was entering a state of maturity. Then, large-scale complex organisations were responding and adjusting to the demands for greater and better production in a rapidly moving competitive world. Concepts like economy and efficiency had become fairly prominent in administrative theory because of their eminent relevance to the process of capacity building of an administrative system. Limited resources and growing demand of public services led to pressure for more efficient and economical operations in the government. Much of the discussion in administrative theory during this period focused on the internal administrative environment of an organisation. It became the prime thrust of the classical school of thought. Taylor and Fayol were almost the first to formulate certain postulates, which were later synthesised as “Principles” that form the basis and substance of classical approach to the study of organisation. The aim of each principle is to raise the level of efficiency of the organisation. But from the public administration point of view several doubts arise pertaining to validity of these principles in political setting. The principles have situational relevance. Herbert Simon criticised these principles as proverbs. Despite such criticism, classical theory has its importance in the history of administrative thought. In the study of administration themes, Max Weber conceptualisation of bureaucracy provides an influential conceptual framework in public administration. If Wilson is the pioneer of the discipline, Max Weber is its first theoretician who provided the discipline with a solid theoretical base. His “Ideal type of Bureaucracy” continues to remain fundamental in any conceptualisation of organisation. For Weber, bureaucracy was a control system based on rational rules, which regulated the organisation’s structure and process according to technical knowledge and maximum efficiency. At a time when Taylor and Fayol were pursuing an engineering approach to the analysis of administrative phenomena, Max Weber was engaged in the examination of the process of evolution of modern civilisations, with bureaucracies constituting an integral part of this evolutionary process. Weber’s bureaucratic model, which operated

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in the framework of an ideal typical legal-rational authority system was based on the accentuation of certain logically interrelated characteristics of an advanced administrative system. Even though Max Weber's bureaucratic theory developed independently of the early American administrative thought, it shared many of the premises of management thought of structuralists such as Taylor and Fayol. Weber emphasised the importance of rationality in administration in order to facilitate the achievement of the implicit goal of efficiency in the solution of complex and specialised problems. The major form of public administration in modern society is the bureaucratic organisation. Contemporary bureaucratic analysis focuses largely on the functional and dysfunctional aspects of bureaucratic administration, the cultural environment of bureaucracy, bureaucratic power and the bureaucratisation of the administrative culture.

Weber's bureaucratic model is the key conceptual construct in administrative analysis. It was one paradigm in public administration. The classical theorists from Taylor to Weber laid emphasis on the physiological and mechanistic aspects of public organisations. The next historical stream of administrative thought is described as neo-classical or human relations approach to the study of administrative process. The Human Relations researches of the late 1920s and early 1930s paved the way for transformation of the study of organisations. The identified variables like informal organisation, leadership, morale and motivation, human groups and their dynamics had a noticeable impact on initiating a movement for humanising administrative analysis. Human Relations approach was considered pertinent and functional to facilitate maximum utilisation of human resources in organisations after the Second World War. Gradually the scope of the human relations approach has extended from the early studies of work norms and incentives to applied behavioural science. From the Hawthorn experiments of the 1920s onwards-chemical investigations into human behaviour in organisational 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 significant change in direction of administrative theory.

During the late 1930s and 1940s decisional analysis was introduced in administrative theory through the writings of Chester Bernard, Edwin O. Stene and Herbert Simon. The behaviour school, which evolved first in Chicago University, entered the public administration domain through decisional analysis and the main credit for this goes to Herbert Simon. Attacking the traditional principles as unscientific “Proverbs”, Simon claims that it is the decision-making that is the heart of administration. He further says that decision-making process alone can reflect the actual behaviour in an organisational setting. Stress on the behaviour of an individual in organisational setting is the crux of Herbert Simon’s analysis of administrative behaviour. R.K. Arora stated that, although the human relations researches were the first” behavioural researches in organisational analysis these could not get the credit for being so, primarily because their appearance was too early to be noticed by the acknowledged behaviouralists. Nevertheless, human relations approach was an authentic precursor to behaviouralism in administrative studies. Multidisciplinary nature of public administration strengthened the base of behavioural approach to the study of administrative systems. This approach continued to be the centre of many a profound debate in the discipline of public administration. Since World War-II there has been a growing consciousness that the quality of administration is important to modern life and it must improve. Analysis of various studies has indicated that a high percentage of administrative failures have been due to administrative incompetence and inexperience. In its post Second World War phase of growth, the discipline of public administration continued to be influenced by various disciplines of social sciences. As a result, there was a discernible stress on conceptualisation in relation to various facets of administrative behaviour.

The writing of Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, Rensis Likert and Warren Bennis, among others had a perceptible impact on the researches and writings in public administration. Another notable transformation in the field of public administration after Second World War came through the emergence of a host of developing nations in Asia and Africa. These phenomena led to a significant emphasis on the study of administrative systems in cross-national and cross-cultural analysis.

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The emergence of comparative administration and development administrative concepts as important facets of public administration focused on the centrality and complexity of achieving the externally induced progressive socio-economic goals by the administrative system. The ecological approach to the study of administration originated in the wake of the emergence of the Third World and increasing realisation of irrelevance of most of the Western organisation theories to the study of administration.

F.W. Riggs and the Comparative Administrative Group of the American Society of Public Administration pioneered a new administrative vocabulary to describe different societal typologies, administrative cultures and administrative systems. Among all the conceptual concepts thrown up by the comparative administration movement, F.W. Riggs's Prismatic-Sala model has been the most prominent. In nineteen sixties, United States of America was experienced a series of crises. But the established institutions of government and knowledge of traditional public administration were failed to provide answers to the crises. The conventional or conservative public administration measures failed to resolve these crises and necessitated fresh insights and initiatives in public administration to tackle those problems. This recognition led to the initiation of a new movement in public administration during late 1960s and early 1970s and resulted "New Public Administration". The credit for this movement goes to Dwight Waldo, who organised a conference of young public administration scholars and practitioners at the Minnbrook Conference Centre.

The conference highlighted in an effective manner the lacunae of traditional public administration. New public administration stressed upon the social relevance of knowledge. George Fredrickson called the new public administrationists as second-generation behaviourilists who held that bureaucracy ought to be committed to progressive values and take active interest in the formulation and implementation of the programmes designed to actualise these values. New public administration movement has strengthened the policy science perspective and developed public policy approach in public administration. This movement pushed the discipline towards greater relevance and

strengthened client-orientation in administration. This movement also supported democratic humanism in public organisation and produced greater awareness for internal democracy through real participation in public systems. The public policy approach has been a major breakthrough in the growth of public administration. The Weberian paradigm has dominated the public administration discipline since its inception, despite a variety of criticism against it.

A historical perspective would reveal that bureaucracies throughout the world have rarely responded effectively to environmental challenges on their own. They have lagged behind the times. In recent times, there have been some noteworthy contributions to both the theory of bureaucracy and the debate over bureaucracy-democracy relationship. The collapse of Soviet Union appears from causing a retreat of Marxism, led to a resurgence of the old and new alternative theories. One among them is post-modern or post-Weberian theory of public administration. The post-modern theory of public administration is located in the moral principles of democratic and equalitarian polity. It disputes the possibility of universal theory of public administration. Post-modern public administrationists reject the trilogy of Wilsonian political-administrative dichotomy, the scientific management paradigm of Taylor and ideal type bureaucracy of Weber.

Another conceptual construct in public administration is the public choice theory. The approach has been able to explode the myth of neutral and rationale bureaucracy. The bureaucrats have been regarded as utility maximisers and budget maximisers always exercising a rational choice while choosing among alternatives. Their rationality is determined by and limited to their knowledge of the situation. The explanations of public choice theory, its methodology, its ethical benchmark and its recommendations challenge and contradict the basic premises of classical as well neo-classical public administration. The other post-Weberian development of great significance is the impact of critical theory on social sciences in general and public administration in particular.

Jurgen Habermas is a major exponent of the stifling effect of techno-administrative domination of the bureaucracy. Critical theory of public organisation would plead for debureaucratisation and democratisation of

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administration through free flow of communication and exposure of inherent contradictions in hierarchical relationship. Discourse theory, propounded by Charles J. Fix and Hugh T. Miller is most radical of the post modernist public administration. Discourse theory while rejecting policy-administration dichotomy subscribes to the view that both policy and administration may better be graspable as public energy field. This field encompasses a variety of actors engaged in the policy process viz., organisation institutions, voluntary agencies, and the fourth estate and citizen groups. The discourse theory of public administration is a significant addition as well as a contribution to public administration theorization in general and post-modern public administration particular. All post-modern public administration theories give importance to people in the organisations than to the formal structure of organisations. Management science has its penetrating effect on the intellectual development of public administration. The core public administration has always been its external political context as well as internal managerial dynamics. What is internal to a public administrative system is its process of management and what is external to it is its political environment in which it functions. It is universally acknowledged that most maxims, principles, guidelines and dictums of efficiency and effectiveness have emanated from the writings of management thinkers. In other words, scholars of management have offered remedies to bureaucratic ailments and the scholars of public administration have adopted them. The scholars of public administration in 1980s highlighted the need for adopting in an effective manner sound management practices in government systems. New Public Management (NPM) is one such manifestation in public administration. New Public Management is a contemporary paradigm of public administration. This paradigm emerged on the heels of the movements of re-inventing government and good governance.

American scholars, David Osborne and Ted Gabler popularised the concept of “Re-inventing Government” in 1992. The World Bank develops the concept of good governance. The former was designed to be universalistic in its relevance and application, while the latter has been considered more appropriate to the countries of the Third World having

democratic form of government. The movement of reinventing government had a startling influence on the governance system throughout the world. New Public Management and good governance philosophical concepts have reoriented public administration toward the multiple actors in governance beyond the traditional organs of formal government. In this scenario public administrator's new role is thus of facilitator and stimulator. Now administrative theory has to be a vital part of the state theory. The changing complexion of administration has to be contemplated in the context of the changing nature of state. 7 The above survey of administrative theories shows that the field of public administration is being continually transformed. Traditional public administration assumptions are frequently shattered by contemporary happenings. The subject matter of public administration is exploding in all directions. New types of public organisations are being created. New concepts, techniques and processes for improving the performance of public service delivery are being searched. The result is development of different paradigms in public administration.

3.5 THEORY-BUILDING IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION – AN EVALUATION.

Theory building is a complex exercise in public administration due to its diversified nature. Administrative theory is based on conceptualisation of experience administrators or observation of the operational situations in administration. It may be derived or reinforced from the comparative studies or they may be ideas and opinions of intellectuals. The seminal contribution of academics and practitioners to the development of various facets of administration and dissemination of knowledge pertaining to it caused the germination of various theories. Theoretical and practical development in other social sciences do influence theoretical base of public administration and vice-versa due to integrated nature of the social science. Public administrators have borrowed ideas, methods, techniques and approaches from other disciplines and have applied them with varying degrees of success to public administration. People trained in other disciplines have applied their ideas to the largest and most obvious organisations in society, namely the military,

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industrial, the public bureaucracy, social service agencies, and public sector which are conceptually, institutional and functionally within the discipline of public administration. Public policy makers and administrative practitioners complain that they can find little theoretical guidance relevant to their current concerns. They claim that theorists have in mind some mythical world or they use such abstract and rarified language that they cannot be understood. In response, the theorists complain that the practitioners, steeped in pragmatism do not make the effort to understand or cannot be bothered with any theorists that do not rationalise what is currently happening in the practice of public administration. 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 behavioural sciences and apply these insights and propositions to the task of improving the processes of government and aimed at achieving politically legitimated goals by constitutionally mandated means. Caiden, Martin Landu and Lepawsky have critically commented on the state of public administration theory.

Caiden pointed, “the abundant theories in public administration deal with things both bigger and smaller than public administration, but not with public administration itself. On the one hand, they deal with all administration, all organised cooperative effort, all social organisations, and all human behaviour of which public administration is part. On the other, they deal with unique practices, specific organisations, special administrative case studies and particular administrative sub-processes that constitute parts of public administration. Few of these theories deal with the nature of public administration itself”. As Martin Landau comments, “administrative theory is marked by 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”. Lepawsky openly stated that the theorists have not contributed much of their own. Too little relevant public

administration theory exists. The most important priority in theory building is to increase awareness generally of the philosophical issues behind problem solving in public administration. In Stephen Bailey's words public administration theory must attempt to fashion descriptions of reality, postulates of betterment, sophisticated assumptions about the capacities of men and institutions, and workable tenets of instrumentation which can improve both the ends and means of democratic government. New paradigms in public administration do not look at the discipline from a fresh perspective but merely rehash the old concepts. There is a marked continuity in the administrative approaches with the past. Each new development in the discipline, even while critiquing an older concept, simply builds on the same. Incrementalism is appears to be at the very basis of the growth of the discipline. Caiden stated that one of the most compelling reasons why public administration is denied the status of an academic discipline in the other seats of learning is that it has yet to develop a systematic body of theory. Two major streams today influence the perspective of public administration:

(a) the general system seeking universal validity for theory, and

(b) efforts to evolve a theoretical model with a specific references to the Third World experience.

The Third World experience should be the basis for developing a new perspective on the discipline of the public administration. It is very difficult to evolve a general theory of public administration due to cross-cultural nature of the discipline. Public administration as 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. The goal of theory-building in public administration is need not be to develop a theory of administration but to formulate a series or a set of theories and paradigms which can contribute to better understanding of the complex administrative reality in a different settings – institutions, national, cultural and temporal.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Discuss the Theory: Importance and characteristics.

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2. Describe Public Administration theory: Need and importance.

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3. Discuss the Administrative theory: Evolution and growth.

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4. Discuss the Theory-building in Public Administration – An evaluation.

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3.6 LET US SUM UP

Theory is a body of related principles dealing systematically with a subject. It is a concise presentation of facts and a logical set up of assumptions from which empirical laws or principles can be derived. Therefore, theory building becomes very important for the growth and development of any discipline, public administration is no exception. Administrative theory will help the administrator to conceive proper reasoning and sound arguments. It educates the administrators scientifically as theory is the conceptualisation of experience. 9 Public

administration as a discipline was borne in the United States and that country continues to enrich it even today. Theory building in public administration is a very complex exercise due to its diversified nature. A brief survey of development and growth of administrative theories brings forth the contributions of various schools of thought are analysed in this unit. The survey identified that too little relevant public administration theory exists. In other words, public administration is yet to develop a systematic body of knowledge.

3.7 KEY WORDS

Constituent Policy: Policy designed to benefit the public generally or to serve the government.

Environmental Sensitivity: Tuned into agency and its environment; awareness of importance of non-technical factors.

Political Economy Approach: Focusing on politics and economies as categories for analysing organisational behaviour.

Redistributive Policy: Policy designed to take taxes from certain groups and give them to another group.

3.8 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Discuss the Theory: Importance and characteristics.
2. Describe Public Administration theory: Need and importance.
3. Discuss the Administrative theory: Evolution and growth.
4. Discuss the Theory-building in Public Administration – An evaluation.

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3.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

1. See Section 3.2
2. See Section 3.3
3. See Section 3.4
4. See Section 3.5

UNIT 4: RATIONALITY IN ADMINISTRATION BEHAVIOR: BEHAVIORAL APPROACH

STRUCTURE

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Classical Theory : Simon's Criticism
- 4.3 Place of Decision-making in Administration
- 4.4 Choice and Behaviour
- 4.5 Value and Fact in Decision-making
- 4.6 Hierarchy of Decisions'
- 4.7 Rationality
- 4.8 Programmed and Non-Programmed Decision
- 4.9 Decision-making and Administrative Process
- 4.10 Modes of Organisational Influence
- 4.11 Critical Evaluation
- 4.12 Let us sum up
- 4.13 Key Words
- 4.14 Questions for Review
- 4.15 Suggested readings and references
- 4.16 Answers to Check Your Progress

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you should be able to:

- To explain the importance of behaviouralism in Public Administration
- To explain Simon's criticism of classical theory
- To describe Simon's views on decision-making
- To discuss the meaning of rationality and its relation to behaviouralism; and
- To discuss critically evaluate the behavioural approach.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

We have discussed in unit 3 that the classical approach to the study of administration emphasised the importance of the structure-the formal dimension of organisation. The human relations approach, on the other hand emphasises the informal dimension of the organisation. While the formal and informal dimensions of organisation form an important component of organisation phenomenon, the human behaviour-the value disposition of the functionaries-determine their attitudes and working style of the organisation. The human relations and behavioural approaches broadly deal with the man in the organisation. While the former deals with the relationships among the people working in an organisation, the latter deals with the 'inside' human being with a focus on the place of his values and rationality in the working of an organisation. An understanding of 'inside' the man is as important as 'inside' the organisation. In this unit we shall focus mainly on the views of Herbert Simon on behavioural approach in Public Administration. Herbert Simon analysed the human behaviour in terms of its value preferences in decision-making process. It is this central concern that is significant to the understanding of organisation and its working, human behaviour being complex and dynamic, as a student of Public Administration you should understand and appreciate: these facets of organisation. This would help you to widen the horizon and deepen your understanding of the discipline.

4.2 CLASSICAL THEORY: SIMON'S CRITICISM

You have studied in unit 8 how Simon waged a frontal attack on the structural approach. He criticised the principles of organisation and inscribed them as mere proverbs out that the principles are contradictory additionally inconsistent. He also noted, that they are not scientifically valid and do not have universal relevance. It is on these grounds Simon questioned their theoretical basis to analyse or explain the organisation 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 study of administrative behaviour with a focus on authority and decision-making. Unlike the principles which

have a contextual relevance, the decision-making, according to Simon, is the universal process and can form the base for wider organisational analysis.

4.3 PLACE OF DECISION-MAKING 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 sufficient attention is paid to the choice which precedes action. Determination of 'what to do' rather than 'doing actually' did not receive proper attention. Decision-making deals with the process 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 study of administration would remain largely indicated. In the behavioural approach, the question that is to be understood is the process that precedes action. This is popularly known as decision-making process. The need for taking decisions arises when there are several alternatives or courses of action open to an individual. But one has to choose only one alternative by a process of elimination. Therefore, decision-making is defined as a process 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 thing of a job. It also depends on the existence of principles which would ensure correct decision-making which in turn determines the effectiveness of doing the job. In an organisation people above the operative level are considered important as they are entrusted with more crucial functions of decision-making. They have a very important role to play in realising the organisational goals. They have greater role in influencing the behaviour of the operative staff. For example, in a war the soldiers fight in the battle field. They take many decisions at their own levels. But the overall strategy that is formulated by the Generals, who are not, engaged in the actual battle would determine the outcome of the battle. Similarly in an automobile industry, the car is produced by the mechanics on the

assembly line and neither by the engineer nor the executive. Yet the latter occupied a crucial place. Again, the fire is extinguished by a team of firemen and not by the fire chief. In administration operative staffs are important. The success of organisation depends on them. The men above the operative level are equally important. They have an essential role to play in achieving the organisational goals. The supervising staff has greater influence upon the outcome of an organisational effort, than the lower levels. 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, therefore, says that effective organisation involves setting up of operative staff and above it, a super imposing staff capable of influencing the operative staff towards 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 behavioural approach emphasises that "insight into the structure and function of an organisation can best be gained by analysing the manner in which the decision and the behaviour of such employees are influenced within and by the organisation".

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. What is the focus of Simon's behavioural approach?

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2. On what grounds Simon criticized classical theory'?

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3. Why is decision-making important in administration?

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4.4 CHOICE AND BEHAVIOUR

Human behaviour involves conscious or unconscious selection of particular alternative which is physically possible and organisationally effective. The selection of a choice refers to preference of 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 particular key with a finger because a reflex has been established between the latter on printed page and the particular key. Here the action is rational but no element of consciousness is involved. It is, therefore, a conditioned reflex action. In other cases, the selection will have to be a product of a complex chain of activities called 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-making process involves three important phases 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 analyse and understand the organisational environment. He has also to identify the conditions that need decision. The second phase is design activity. This involves development of alternatives to do a particular job. The executive should also identify the merits and advantages as well as problems involved in each of the alternatives. The final phase 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 organisational goals.

4.5 VALUE AND FACT IN DECISION-MAKING

The effectiveness of a course of action depends upon the capacity of that decision to attain the goals that are set. The choosing of choice is related to the individual's performance. This deals with the question of values.

The effectiveness depends upon the information available 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 by observable means. Choice or decision involves both facts and values. They clarify the criteria in analysing the ethical and factual elements involved in a decision. Simon argues that the behaviour of members of an organisation is partly determined by 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 provides 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 process, even a minute decision governing specific action is necessarily an application of broader decisions related to purpose and to method. Simon gives the example of a man walking. He describes the process as follows: "A walk contracts his leg muscles in order to make 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 certain information to another person and so forth". Each decision involves the selection of a goal and behaviour relevant to it; his 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 called "value judgements". And if they involve the implementation of such goals they are called "factual judgements". 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-linked with the 'value judgements'. Once the priorities are decided, then the implementation mostly depends on 'factual judgements'. For instance, the length of the road, the connecting points, the type of road, etc., are the decisions related to factual judgements. There do not exist value decisions and factual decisions. Values and facts are only the premises and components which are inter-wined. Problems do not come to us as value decisions or factual decisions.

4.6 HIERARCHY OF DECISIONS'

The concept of purposiveness involves the notion of a hierarchy of decisions--each step downward in the hierarchy consistency in the implementation of the goals set forth in the step immediately above. Behaviour is purposive in so far as it is guided by general goals or objectives of the organisation. It is rational in so far as it selects alternatives which are conducive to the achievement 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 many goals. It is the complexity that makes perfect integration extremely difficult. However, certain 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 important dimensions of behavioural approach:

(1) the policy making and the implementation;

(2) the involvement of facts and values in the decision-making. It highlights that the decisions at the lower levels involves more of factual judgements. In the decision-making process, choosing of end involves selection of an alternative based on value judgment and in selection of means to achieve the end, it is based on the factual judgement that are involved. Rationality in the decision-making process, largely depends upon the correct choice of the 'value judgement' and 'factual judgement'.

4.7 RATIONALITY

As you know decision-making is a very complex process involving a chain of unending decisions? In the simpler situations analysing the sequence is easier and, therefore, a better and rational decision-making is possible. In complex situations which involve a large network of decisions at different phases, the rationality in the decision-making is bound to suffer. But Simon emphasises that all decision-making should be based on rational choices. He defines rationality as one's concerned

with the relation of a preferred behaviour alternatives in terms of some system of values whereby the consequences of behaviour can be evaluated". This requires that the decision maker should have; knowledge about all available alternatives. The decision maker should also be able to anticipate the consequences of each of the alternatives. Behavioral Approach Herbert Simon Simon explains that there are six different types of rationality viz., objective, subjective, conscious, deliberate, organisational 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 available as well as their consequences. Secondly, the assumption is that the decision maker has unlimited computational ability. Finally, it believes that the decision maker has the capacity to put in order all the possible consequences. These assumptions, Simon says, are fundamentally wrong. There are several limitations in the decision makers in terms of skills, habits, values and conception of purpose as well as the extent of knowledge relevant to his job. Therefore Simorr says that organisations should not start with the concept of total rationali~y. Instead, they should work on the basis of 'bounded rationality'. It is in this concept of' bounded rationality, Sirnon develops the concept of 'satisficing'. The term satisficing is derived from the words satisfaction and sufficing. As total rationality is inconceivable, the executive 'satisfices' with a good enough choice. The decision maker tries to arrive at either optional or fairly good solutions. Such solutions or decisions may or may not lead to maximisation of organisational goals.

1. What is meant have the notion of hierarchy of decision?
2. Explain the concept of rationality
3. What is bounded rationality'?

4.8 PROGRAMMED AND NON-PROGRAMMED DECISION

Simon makes a clear distinction between prograded and non-programmed decisions. The former are those which are repetitive and routine in nature. For such decisions definite procedures can be worked out. Each decision need not be dealt with separately. In programmed

decisions, habits, skills and knowledge about the problem is important. In such decisions, mathematical models and computer can help the decision makers to arrive at rational decisions. Non-programmed decisions, in contrast, are new, novel and unstructured. No cut-and-dried methods would be available and each question or issue has to be dealt with separately. Training in skills relevant to the job and innovative ability to this relevant and important to develop capacity to take proper and relevant decisions.

4.9 DECISION-MAKING AND ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS

Behavioural approach has certain unique characteristics which require to be appreciated. Administrative activity is a group activity. In organisations, decision-making is more systematic unlike in the case of an individual or a family. Administrative process as you know is a decisional process. This process, according to Simon involves three important steps, they are segregating the elements in the decision-making process, establishing procedures to select and determine these elements and communication of these elements to the members of the organisation. The organisation takes away from the individual a part of his decisional autonomy and substitute's it with organisational decision-making process. Organisational decision-making process specifies the functions of individuals allocate authority and also set limits to his choice.

Definition and Nature:

There is a difference between administration and administrative processes and if we fail to understand it confusion is bound to arise. By administration we mean the execution of governments or authority's policies or decisions whereas administrative process implies the methods or procedures that are applied for running the administration. In every form of administration certain policies or decisions are adopted for the management of organisation or various departments of government.

Decision-making is one of the various administrative processes. Let us briefly define it. Simon's definition runs as: "Decisions are something more than factual propositions.... they are descriptive of a future state of affairs and this description can be true or false in a strictly empirical sense, but they possess an imperative quality, they select one future of state of affairs in preference to another and direct behaviour towards the chosen alternative. In short, they have an ethical as well as factual content."

In this definition Simon has briefly stated the nature of decision. In his opinion decisions are both factual and ethical. The aim of decision is to take steps for the future development of an organisation or better management of the department under a government. So we can say that a decision deals with both the present and future of organisation.

Stephen Wasby (Political Science—the Discipline and its Dimensions—An Introduction) has defined the idea from a different background (Conflict Theory). He says: "Decision-making is usually defined as a process or sequence of activities involving stages of problem recognition, search for information, definition of alternatives, and the selection by an actor(s) of one from two or more alternatives consistent with the ranked preferences."

In every form of public administration there generally arises certain problems which require solution. But the methods of techniques of solution must follow definite principles. There shall exist clear-cut principles or procedures which will guide the administrators in running the administration of the organisation, or state department. The decisions will be taken such a way as to maximise the benefits or satisfy the actor's goal. This is called "satisficing".

Briefly stated, decision-making is a part of the management of both private and public organisation or department. Herbert Simon "declared" that a theory of administration should be concerned with the processes of decision as well as the processes of action. That is public administration is concerned with both action and decision. Simon says that without decision there can hardly be any action.

Authority starts action, but before that it takes a decision which means - what action will be taken. The decision or decision-making and action

both are continuous processes. It is due to the fact that the organisation is always under the process of continuous change. What is appropriate today may be irrelevant next time and in that case the authority will have to take a new decision and arrangements be made for the implementation of the decision. According to Simon-decision or decision-making “is a matter of compromise”. It is due to the fact that a decision-maker is faced with a number of situations problems or alternatives and he will have to make a compromise.

Compromise and Composite:

I have just now pointed out that decision or decision-making, according to Simon, is always a compromise and composite. An executive or concerned authority cannot take a decision at one sitting or quickly. He will have to bring a number of alternatives or possibilities under consideration before arriving at the final decision. This process can be stated as a form of compromise.

Talking about compromise a critic observes: “Modifications of organisational objectives usually represented compromises between several groups of potential participants in order to secure their joint cooperation” An organisation is never a one-man body. Different persons and groups are directly or indirectly involved in every organisation and because of this no single man can take a decision. Before arriving at a decision he will have to consult various groups or persons and number of aspects. Naturally, the decision or approach of a single man cannot be final. A compromise is always an inevitability.

According to Simon, administration is a group activity. In any administrative system or organisation information and advice flow in all directions. In an open system (an organisation always acts in such a system) an administrative department cannot keep itself aloof from others. For the better future of the organisation the authority must keep lively contact with all. This is the premise of compromise.

Before taking final decision the authority must collect all information and test them because the news or information may not be relevant for the organisation. Simon has said that it is the duty of the administrator to judge or test the value of every information. Naturally the decision-making is not an easy task. Let us quote Simon: “The ablest

administrators are the first to admit that their decisions are, in general, the sheerest guess-work, that any confidence they evidence is the protective shield with which the practical man armours himself and his subordinates from his doubts. What Simon wants to say is that decision-making is a very important part of organisation.

Simon next says that every decision is a composite decision-which means that behind every decision there are clear contributions of a number of persons and for that reason it is called a composite decision. It has been said by Herbert Simon that no decision in an organisation is made by any single person. He writes, "Even though the final responsibility for taking a particular action rests with some definite person..... in studying the manner in which this decision was reached that is various components can be traced' through the formal and informal channels of communicating to many individuals".

When all the aspects of a decision are properly considered or scanned it will be found that behind every decision there is contribution of many individuals or bodies —of course, everyone's contribution may not be very important, but the importance of a contribution cannot be ignored.

We have earlier noted that for the proper management of public administration it is essential that behind every decision there must be rationality. Sometimes the term rationality cannot be defined or explained properly. But the persons associated with the making of decision know, at least partially, what is rational. However, the term rationality is subject to change with the change of time and circumstances, yet this notion has good deal of importance in public administration.

Models of Decision-Making:

Incremental Change through Successive Limited Comparisons or Incrementalism:

There are several approaches to or models of decision-making process of public administration. One such model or approach is incrementalism whose author is C.E. Lindblom. Lindblom suggests two alternative approaches which a policy-maker may adopt. One such approach (or

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model) is that the policy-maker simply tries to use all related values or alternatives in order of importance.

He compares all these values or the results of methods and tries to find out which method or approach will ensure to him maximum benefit. This is no doubt a very complicated method and time-consuming. It is generally called incremental change through successive limited comparisons. In short, it is called incrementalism.

Lindblom has said that the policy-maker may not attempt a long-drawn and comparatively complex process. Rather, he may set or prepare a very simple goal and disregard the other values or goals. The policy-maker starts his activities and tries to achieve the goal. He also compares the results or consequences of the limited goal and after that he tries to reach the final decision. In other words, the policy-maker does not try to embark on an ambitious project.

He confines himself within limited choices, compares the results of those choices and, finally, decides one. It has been pointed out by a critic that “according to Lindblom the second process is much commoner and is the fact inevitable. The former assumes intellectual capacities and sources of information than men in fact do not possess and would make unrealistic demands on time and money in complex-problems”.

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C.E. Lindblom’s approach or model is also called a bargaining approach. It is so called because the policy-maker makes one type of comparisons among different methods or processes for the purpose of getting maximum benefits or favourable results for his organisation. According to Lindblom, the decision-making is primarily a value-related or value-laden matter and his objective is to harvest maximum benefits for his organisation. He suggests changes in an incremental way and for that reason it is called incrementalism. He, again, makes attempt to compare different results derived from different policies.

The incrementalism or bargaining approach is generally used in the case of internal public administration, but in foreign policies its use is not rare. A decision-maker does not jump upon a decision without bargaining or comparing the pros and cons of every policy and, after

comparing, he generally settles at one. Explaining Lindblom's incrementalism, it has been said that in any branch of public administration a policy is never made permanently, it is once made and remade again and again and the process continues until the policy-maker is fully satisfied.

One critic makes the following observation: "Policy-making is a process of successive approximation of some desired objective". Lindblom claims that his 'incrementalism' or limited comparison approach is superior to many other approaches or methods because it is practical and is based on scientific reasoning. Generally, a policy-maker endeavours to arrive at a final decision after comparing the consequences and the results of policy. The adoption of policy depends upon his satisfaction.

Rational and Extra-Rational Model:

Y. Dror has suggested an alternative model or approach for policy-making and it is called Rational and Extra-rational model. It may better be called combination of rational and extra-rational models. Dror says that Lindblom's incremental-ism—though blessed with some plus points—has certain limitations. Dror says that Lindblom's approach is closer to reality. Every policy-maker tries to make a comparison among various values or policies.

He investigates the advantages and drawbacks of every approach and finally decides one. Talking about the limitations of Lindblom's model it has been pointed out by a critic that the incremental change by successive limited comparison is only adequate if the results of present policies are reasonably satisfactory if there is continuity in the nature of the problems and if there is continuity in the available means for dealing with it.

But Dror says that, in public administration or in the activities of an organisation, the same problem does persist for long time and if the problem changes and situation also changes the Lindblom model may not work with full satisfaction or may not work at all. Dror further observes that in modern society both knowledge and techniques change and when this happens Lindblom's model will be unworkable.

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Dror has said that a scanning of modern situation reveals the following: one is, rapid changes in the aspirations and desires of people are always taking place. He again says that, once an issue is defined, that definition does not last long. The issue is being redefined persistently and this creates problem for the policy-maker. Finally, the consumers may be dissatisfied with the activities or policies of that policy-maker. Lindblom's model fails to solve these issues.

After pointing out the limitations of Lindblom's incrementalism, Dror has suggested an alternative model which is known as "normative optimum model" which combines "muddling through" and rational comprehensive model. The central idea of this model is the foundation of every model should be and ought to be the maximum amount of rationality and this could be achieved through continuous search and research of alternatives. Dror has suggested that every organisation must decide its own goals and these goals must be periodically revised reformulated and estimated to cope with change of time and physical circumstances. For the enhancement of rationality the authority must study the situation from time to time and bring the situation in its new form under active consideration.

The central aspect of Dror's model is rationality and muddling through in the vehicle which will ensure rationality. Dror has said that since rationality is the main aspect of his model the authority must focus its attention to it. The idea of rationality is a highly complex concept and it is to some extent puzzling. While determining objectives the policy-maker must bring the resource under his consideration; without resources the objectives shall never be achieved.

In explaining Dror's model one critic has said: "We should allow a place for interactive judgment and holistic impressions". There is another suggestion in Dror's model. The policy-maker must consider the fruitful application of new techniques and other methods. He has further pointed out that opinions of experts must be duly considered and if it is not done the rationality concept will be seriously affected.

Administrative Rationality:

J. M. Pfiffner has suggested another model for policy-making. It is known as Administrative rationality. Pfiffner claims that his administrative rationality is basically different from Lindblom's model. Let us explain the administrative rationality model.

“The orthodox concepts of rationality conform to those usually attributed to economic man, the scientific method and engineering man. Rational decision making is thought of as the gathering of all pertinent facts, canvassing the alternatives for action and selecting the one which will produce maximum results through a thought process...our principal thesis is that administrative rationality differs from orthodox concepts of rationality because it does take into account an additional spectrum of facts. These are the facts relative to emotions, politics, power, group dynamics, personality and mental health.” According, Pfiffner policy-making, considering all aspects, is a highly complicated issue and it is not determined by any single factor even if the factor is important.

The policy is not always made from the above but is the resultant of many forces-both seen and unseen. There are number of issues and forces in the lower echelons which, in one way or other, influences the policy-making. If the policy is determined at the topmost level and the opinions of lower echelons are not properly considered the policy may not be able to serve the purpose of the policy-maker. According to Pfiffner, policy is as much a result of an agreement as command. In other words, a real or practical policy must include the views of all.

Pfiffner has said that personal values have an important part to play in the decision-making process. Let me quote a few lines from a commentator.

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He Concludes that among the “standards of validity” that if a decision has to be made there may have to be included:

(1) some degree of conformance with the personal interests, and values of the decision-maker,

(2) conformance with the values of superiors’

(3) acceptability to those who would be affected by the decision and those who will have to implement it,

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(4) face validity in the sense that it looks reasonable in its content, and

(5) a built-in justification.

Which will furnish excuses and justifications in case the results are not as hoped". This implies that in the field of policy-making personal values and estimations have special importance and crucial role to play.

Every executive or a man holding key position has his own estimation about the working and future of organisation. He proceeds according to his own reasons and value-judgement. This he tries to apply to making of decisions. He injects his reason and values into the substance of decision-making. In large number of organisations personal values, knowledge, reason inject new concepts into the body of decision-making.

The experts are of opinion that the personal values play very important role. "Our research indicates that the organisations are in general pluralistic in nature. They are not unitary and monocratic, rather federative and cooperative." The implication is that large number of persons of various ranks and status play important role in the decision-making process.

Committee Decisions:

R. F. Bales has introduced a "New" element or concept in the decision-making process—it is called Committee decisions. According to Bales, in practice, decisions are generally taken at various conferences attended by number of executives and important persons having thorough knowledge about organisations. Bales further claims that very often the decisions are not made in any particular organisation's meeting. A number of meetings are held and thread-bare discussions take place. After a lot of discussion dealing with all the possible aspects the final decision is adopted.

In the conference the participants express their personal views and experiences regarding the policy matters and, finally, a decision is adopted. The interesting aspect is that the decision is the product of cross-current of views; it is not a one-man activity. Sometimes discussions proceed on dialectically— which means that the opinion of one man does not always prevail.

The argument or reason of one is followed by a counter-argument and in this way discussion proceeds. Finally, a decision is taken which contains the important major views of the participants. It has been said that generally a decision takes several conferences. Bales himself has admitted that though the committee system is regarded as a factor of decisions yet it may not be a reliable method. In various cases it has been found that, in the conference, serious disagreements surface and these stand on the way of arriving at a decision. Bales says 'that the emergence of disagreement is a serious aspect of the decision-making process. Sometimes the decision-making is held up due to the disagreements but this is unavoidable.

General Assessment:

Herbert A. Simon was the first man who brought the importance of decision-making in public administration and functioning of organisation to our notice. Subsequently, a good number of experts threw light on it. It is now held by all that decision-making is a vital aspect of public administration and organisation. Without proper or real decision no organisation can achieve success.

Simon has further observed that mere decision cannot make administration successful. It must be realistic. A large number of administrationists have painstakingly thrown light on the realistic character of decision. Major contributions have their places in our analysis. Simon has pointed out that all the organisations are in one way or other goal-oriented. Naturally, every organisation or public administration must (while making policy) see that the decision must be able to achieve the goal.

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Organisation is not something which will grow and work automatically like natural phenomena. These are human organisations and behind their origin, growth and functioning there are human efforts and definite human thought. Barnard has elaborated this aspect in a number of ways. Barnard's main plank of thought and argument is cooperation and application of thought and reason and continuous research are the main aspects of policy-making function. Inter-pretng his view-point a critic makes the following observation: "Decisions, he says, tend to be made on a basis relating to organisational purposes, rather than to individual motives or aspirations"

Generally an executive is called the chief architect of an organisation. But the fact is that he alone can never help the realisation of the major aims of the organisation.

The activities of organisation are a continuous process. The experience of the past guide the future. A policy-maker formulated new policy or revises the present policy on the basis of past experience. The policy-maker tries to get idea from the past and this is very important. How past works is quite explicit in the following comment: "In an established organisation, scope for decision is constrained by prior decisions, explicit or implicit, expressed in earlier invest-ments, previously approved budget, moral commitments to individuals and departments, contracts of employments".

The influences of politics or political ideas and decisions, national and international events cannot be underestimated. Particularly in this age of globalisation and liberalisation the international events influence the policy-making affairs of an organisation or public administration. An organisation cannot ignore the international events and phenomena. An export-oriented organisation must carefully study the situation of international market and trade while making important decisions regarding the export of commodities manu-factured by it. It is quite logical and realistic.

Personal liking and disliking have very little to do with the working of international market. In the second half of the last century and even before that major decision-making theories were built- up and in those years globalisation had practically no existence. Today this has gained an

important status of international event and its influence on many major national and international events is quite perceptible.

A balanced analysis of decision-making must take this into account. It may naively be stated that on the decision-making process of all developing countries there is clear influence of the capitalist countries. It is because few multinational corporations practically control the world economy, particularly trade, commerce and commercial activities. Naturally, the organisation of the Third World states cannot go beyond this orbit.

Decision-Making and Rationality:

Rationality vs Non-Rationality:

In the last few pages we have discussed the importance of rationality in the decision-making process. In this section we intend to throw light on the reverse side of the issue. That is, few eminent experts in public administration are of the view that rationality does not always play the most vital role. Rather, the role has been exaggerated.

I quote a lengthy passage from Nicholas Henry's book *Public Administration and Public Affairs*:

“The one finding unearthed by social scientists about how decisions are made in organisations that seems irrefutable is that the process is only minimally rational. The principal reason for this non-rationality is that the decisions are made by people, and people are less than logical. Herbert Simon, perhaps more than any other social scientist, enlightened the world about this darker side of decision-making”

Simon has said that decision-makers give less importance to rationality and more importance to on-going of the world and the opinions of the decision-maker about the numerous incidents that take place. According to Simon, the decision-makers do not always attach importance to real phenomena or realities at hand.

Henry interprets Simon's judgement in the following words: “Simon held that all human beings make decisions on the basis of worldview that reflects past experiences and perceptions, but not necessarily the realities at hand. Simon called this phenomenon the decision premise.” Simon has said that individual values may have importance to particular persons but

these do not claim equal importance in the field of decision-making arena.

The Bounds of Individual Rationality:

I have already noted that there is a certain amount of individual rationality in the making of policy for public administration or the management of organisation. But Simon, in a number of places, emphasises that the contribution of rationality has been exaggerated. He calls this bounded rationality. Why bounded rationality?

Simon's arguments are:

- (1) An organisation is quite large.
- (2) Decision- making is a complex matter.
- (3) Decision of an organisation is subject to change with the change of time and circumstances.
- (4) Human mind and rationality cannot comprehend all possible situations.
- (5) One psychologist has said that a mind can distinguish maximum seven categories of phenomena at a time.
- (6) Human mind is guided by emotion and in the field of policy-making the emotions have no place.
- (7) Many men are guided by self-love, heuristic feeling, and also nepotism. One cannot force an individual to be free from all these. But all these create obstacles on the way of an impartial policy.

A bold and comprehensive policy requires a good amount of intelligence, experience, farsightedness, and many other qualities. The advocates of bounded rationality emphatically assert that there is doubt how many people possess these qualities. There are various aspects of public

administration and organisation. For this reason a comprehensive policy is to be made. But the practical situation teaches us that even persons of exceptional qualities cannot make a policy which will cover all the aspects of public administration and organisation. It is said that policy-making is a group product. Several persons meet together and after elaborate discussion policy is formulated. But this is highly oversimplified. Differences of opinion must crop up and that will create hindrances on the way of making a policy. This is not an imaginary situation.

Bounded Organisational Rationality:

Nicholas Henry also points out that there are also bounds of organisational rationality. It means that an organisation cannot take decisions in accordance with its own principle or objective. Nicholas Henry writes: "The decision-maker's own organisation constitutes most of his or her decision-making environment, and this organisational environment can itself exude bounded rationality, and even irrationality" In other words, in several cases, an organisation cannot enjoy enough freedom to make policy by applying its own rationality. I have already pointed out that in the present day world no particular organisation can be treated as a solitary institution.

The globalisation has to a large extent obliterated the geographical barriers and because of this the interdependence among the organisations has considerably increased. In this situation the executives or bureaucrats quite naturally differ among themselves on the assessment of the global situation. This situation may create problems for the formulation of a comprehensive policy for the organisation.

In an earlier analysis I have pointed out that politics and administration are not completely separate from each other and because of this very often politics plays an important part in policy-making affairs, and the nature of politics in it creates divisions among the top policy-makers. There is also another limitation. An aggrieved officer may accept the majority decision. But, in practice, he may not extend his helping hand for the execution of the policy. Our point is the policy is rational, the decision was quite practical. But if a main actor does not cooperate

wholeheartedly the implementation of the policy will receive a serious setback and this is unavoidable.

Satisficing Rationality:

We shall now focus our attention to the concept satisficing rationality. Because of the limitations the concept of rationality cannot be rejected and, keeping this in mind, Simon has suggested a middle course. The chief executive will not normally try to achieve maximum rationality while formulating a policy. Rather he will try to arrive at a satisfactory stage. Let us put it in the words of Simon. He says: "The key to the simplification of the choice process is the replacement of the goal of maximising with the goal of satisficing of finding a course of action that is good enough." Simon says that the satisficing model is the rational practical and on this ground, an acceptable course that is generally adopted. Almost identical view has been expressed by Henry. He says: "Because the rationality of decision--makers is so limited by the human brain and organisational culture, decisions are rarely, if ever, optimal".

If we analyse Simon's concept the following features appear before us: The chief executive or organiser will always try to maximise the benefit. But at the same time he faces certain limitations. For this reason he tries to reach a satisfying level. Let us put it in the words of Simon: "Most human decision-making, whether individual or organisational, is concerned with the discovery and selection of satisfactory alternatives.

Only in exceptional cases it is concerned with the discovery and selection of optional alternatives." He further observes: "The central concern of administrative theory is with the boundary between the rational and non-rational aspects of human social behaviour. Administrative theory is peculiarly the theory of intended and bounded rationality of the behaviour of human beings. Who satisfice because they have not the wits to maximise.

4.10 MODES OF ORGANISATIONAL INFLUENCE

Organizational Influences

Projects can play an important role in the success of an organization, but the development and management of these structures alone will not result

in isolated entities within the organization. However, these roles are still subject to other internal and external influences that can make or break the goal of completing objectives. Projects simply give the organization focus and the ability to control activities required to complete special objectives within the organization. Because the organization typically has established departments to complete certain activities for daily operations, some of these areas produce things for profit, called profit centers; other areas within the operation complete tasks to support the profit centers, such as administration, accounting, and human resources. Because special projects can utilize resources throughout the organization primarily from within the profit centers, projects are connected to other areas within the organization not associated with profit centers to facilitate completion of strategic objectives. Although these areas are needed, they can present either positive or negative influences on the success of completing projects; therefore, project managers should take them into consideration. Three primary areas within the organization can have a significant influence on how projects are structured, scheduled, budgeted, and controlled, and they have to do with the organization's leadership, culture, and structure.

Organizational Leadership

There is a consistent rule within most organizations that everything starts from the top and rolls down. This rule also is true in the area of managing projects. Whether it is perception or actual fact, the impact this rule will have on an organization starts with the general maturity of the organization and senior staff as well as specific management styles of those overseeing projects. If the executive staff does not understand the importance and benefits of projects, they will not always be supportive of what managers are trying to accomplish and the approach they are taking in using projects to manage activities within the organization. This can come across in several forms, behaviors, attitudes, and actions such as

Poor selection of key managers in critical roles

Approval or nonapproval of certain projects and activities

Unnecessary timelines or budget constraints creating undue stress on projects and activities

Misunderstanding or ignorance of critical activity update information

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Personality conflicts with project managers

Hidden agendas that drive inconsistent or confusing decisions

It is important that executive management understand their role in leading by example. They also must understand the impact their leadership can have on the organization if it is not performed at the highest level of integrity, professionalism, and cooperation among themselves and with those reporting to them. It is also important that they understand their actions are seen not only by those reporting to them but by many in the organization; and their leadership can be a large part of the culture established within the organization.

Organizational Culture

When having discussions about the culture of organizations, people can go in several directions to assess, label, and/or stereotype organizations for a perceived culture. When we talk about culture, the general idea is not only the DNA makeup of how the organization structures itself, but also its management style and personality. It is interesting that an organization, in many ways, has a reputation or is known in the industry by its personality and how it conducts business. Some of this personality and management style are a direct result of those who started the organization or are currently senior officers within the organization, whereas other traits of organizational personality might be a result of how the organization conducts its business based on market demands and customer relations. Because these areas are typically seen as high level and generally broad-based perceptions or interpretations of business operations, the same DNA is found at the department and project levels.

It is important that project managers understand the DNA or personality of the organization in the form of a management style so that they can be consistent with the way the organization conducts business internally and externally. This helps project managers be consistent in their management style with the general culture of the organization and can make it easier to gain the approval of senior management. DNA is a complex strand of several elements, and the organization is similar because it is made up of several areas that ultimately define its personality and culture. Some of these areas include

Type of business and market position

Senior management experience, personality, and management style

Hierarchical command structure

Maturity in customer and supplier relationships

High-level investment strategies and risk tolerance

Senior management's perception of lower-level workforces

Organizational approach to customer service

General working conditions and environment within the organization

Understanding what makes up the DNA and personality of an organization can help project managers not only understand their place in the organization, but also understand the importance of a successful management style that is in sync with the culture of the organization. This also allows for managers to be more consistent with other peer management styles. The project managers can also benefit in better understanding the mindset and possible perceptions of the workforce, which can help in the project managers' management style and approach with their staff. One element of the organization's DNA is in the type of organization and how it is structured functionally based on the type of business it conducts. The type of management structure used can play a large role in defining how the organization conducts business, its relationships with customers, and the general role project managers will ultimately have.

Organizational Structures

Organizational structure is the foundation of how business is conducted both internally and externally. It plays a large role in how daily operations are carried out and how projects are integrated within daily operations. Some organizations utilize projects at a very low level, accomplishing small tasks, whereas other organizations utilize projects, and their main course of business in the organization is structured with emphasis on these large projects. Depending on how organizations utilize projects within daily operations, organizations are structured using one of three basic structures. These structures are called functional, projectized, and matrix.

Functional organizations employ the classic structure used to establish managerial hierarchy with the organization divided into traditional functional departments. These departments can include accounting,

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human resources, purchasing, engineering, manufacturing, quality control, inventory, and warehousing, as well as shipping and receiving. The general idea with this structure is each department has a specific objective with a clear chain of command wherein each department has a manager overseeing the work activities of that department. The manager of each department reports to a higher-level manager who may be overseeing several departments, and the chain of command continues all the way up to the highest level of management in the structure. Although organizations have found this structure to be successful in the general operation of business, it has inherent strengths and weaknesses with regard to efficiency, accountability, and resource management, as well as the management of projects and the role of the project manager.

The main strength of functional organizations is each department performing its activities as a unit and requiring little or no direct involvement with other departments to achieve its objectives. Each department's strength builds on the collective knowledge and experience of its members and processes it has developed to maximize the efficiency of work activities in completing its normal objectives. Likewise, projects developed within an individual department are most efficient using only its department members and overseen by the department manager.

The weakness of this structure is apparent when the organization selects a functional manager to oversee projects and that person may or may not have the experience of a project manager in structuring projects with regard to cost, schedule, resource management, and control. The project can suffer as a result. If a project manager is used in conjunction with this type of project, the project manager carries little or no authority and acts more like an activity expeditor. Projectized organizations use a completely different type of business structure than that of functional organizations where staff members are grouped into workforces that may include representatives from several traditional departments and are tasked with a unique project objective. This organization only has project groups and very few, if any, functional departments. This type of structure also places a high level of importance on project objectives; therefore, projectized organizations hire project managers to structure and oversee projects. The project manager carries a much higher level of

authority with oversight of all resources, budget, and scheduling, and responsibility for completion of the project objective.

Most projectized organizations were originally structured in this form as a result of their business strategic objectives. These objectives are based on groups of activities that result in unique output deliverables. Another big advantage of projectized organizations is the flexibility available in the business strategy. Because this structure emphasizes large projects as its main output, these organizations can respond quickly to changes in market demand, allowing them to be successful in both stable and unstable market environments.

Project management within a projectized organization requires management of activities utilizing different types of resources that can be permanently assigned to the project, borrowed from several departments within the organization, and possibly contracted from resources external to the organization. Unlike a specific project designed to accomplish a goal within a single department, projects are now the goal of the entire organization and may require only a few actual departments such as administration and engineering. Because the organization is structured for projects, human resources are assigned tasks based on the requirements of their skill for specific activities on the project. After they complete their activities, they are reassigned to another project to provide their skills for activity requirements on that project. Human resources in this type of organization spend all their employment moving from project to project. Matrix organizations are a blend of functional and projectized structures using the benefits of each in completing the organization's objectives. Matrix organizations typically have a combination of routinely produced deliverables as well as unique and specialized projects. This allows for traditional departments led by functional managers to manage output deliverables of their individual departments; the organization also is able to use these same resources in special projects. The functional manager still holds authority over her department, but the project manager can hold an equal level of authority in overseeing resources from several departments in managing a project. Matrix organizations have the advantage of structure and stability found in functional organizations through established departments. They also

use key resources within these departments on projects that allow the organizations the flexibility to produce deliverables in response to changing market conditions. This capability gives senior management a unique opportunity to assess market conditions and in parallel create a stable and predictable product delivery environment and a quick response project environment that are both successful in the marketplace.

4.11 CRITICAL EVALUATION

In the foregoing discussion you have studied how behaviour influences administrative organisation; it has its unique characteristics. The discussion indicates that for the purpose of organisational analysis, it is neither the structure nor the human relations but it is the decision-making that should be the frame of reference. The discussion highlights how some of the principles such as hierarchy, coordination, division of work, specialisation are associated with the decision-making process. The discussion also shows what efforts go into making of an organisation structure. The determinants of the structure such as authority, loyalty, efficiency and training are mainly intended to restrict the behavioural 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 reason that the organisational structure is built. Thus human behaviour and its inter-connection with the structure and group effort form the substance of behavioural approach to the study of organisation. In spite of its valuable contributions, the behavioural approach has come under considerable attack. It is criticised mainly on the following grounds:

i) The conceptual framework is not adequate. While the behavioural approach criticizes the classical approach as inconsistent and internally contradictory, the behavioural approach itself has not offered an adequate framework to explain the organisation phenomenon. It confined its analysis to only "inside" the man in organisation. It has not taken care of social setting in which an organisation operates, Ignoring the social, historical, political, economic, geographical and cultural factors is

virtually delinking the organization functions wider setting. This puts a major constraint on the explanation of organisation phenomenon.

ii) 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 by the political process. The behavioural appmach, like classical approach, took a political view giving an impression that organisations are autonomous from the political environment. An approach which has emphasised on 'value judgement should not have ignored the political process which also determines the value premises of the public organisations.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Distinguish between programmed and Non- Programmed Decisions.

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2. Administrative process is a decision-making process. Explain.

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3. Discuss how authority and training are Modes of organizational influence.

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4. Critically evaluate Simon's behavioural approach.

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4.12 LET US SUM UP

The behavioural approach marks a significant break-through in the growth and evolution of organisation theory. Its contribution to the study of organisation is quite substantial. Behavioural approach has taken the organisation study beyond the principles and structures which are of technical nature. It provided a new angle to look at organisations and offered a new frame of reference, viz., the decision-making. It also brought in concepts of value and facts and rationality into administrative discussions. The principles enunciated by the classical thinkers are presented in a new light. The lengthy discussion on time determinants of organisation-both the structural and behavioural-and the modes of organisation influences add to the rich understanding of the administration. In fact, Simon's subsequent devotion to the study of economic organisation is considered as a loss to the discipline of public administrative organisation. Critics think that had he pursued the same line of enquiry, the study of administration would have gained enormously. Finally, behavioural approach, widened the conceptual framework and contributed richly to the lively debate on organisation in general and organisation behaviour in particular.

4.13 KEY WORDS

Bounded rationality: According to Simon, human behaviour is neither totally rational nor totally non-rational. It has its limits

Horizontal division of labour: Where there is division of labour at the same level

Vertical division of labour: When there is hierarchical division of labour based on skill and knowledge required at different levels

4.14 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What is the focus of Simon's behavioural approach?
2. On what grounds did Simon criticise classical theory?
3. Why is decision-making important in administration?
4. What is meant by the notion of hierarchy of decision?
5. Explain the concept of rationality
6. What is bounded rationality?

7. Distinguish between programmed and Non- Programmed Decisions.
8. Administrative process is a decision-making process. Explain.

4.15 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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4.16 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

1. See Section-4.1
2. See Section-4.2
3. See Section-4.3

Check Your Progress 2

1. See Section-4.8
2. See Section-4.9
3. See Section-4.10
4. See Section-4.11

UNIT 5: DECISION MAKING APPROACH

STRUCTURE

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Significance of Decision making
- 5.3 Decision making Process
- 5.4 Types of Decisions
- 5.5 Models of Decision Making
- 5.6 Creativity and Decision making
- 5.7 Some Common Errors in Decision making
- 5.8 Let us sum up
- 5.9 Key Words
- 5.10 Questions for Review
- 5.11 Suggested readings and references
- 5.12 Answers to Check Your Progress

5.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- To discuss the importance and process of decision making,
- To discuss the models of decision making,
- To explain the relativity of creativity and decision making,
- To discuss common errors in decision making.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Decision making is the process of choosing actions that are directed towards the resolution. It can be defined as "the selection from among alternatives of a course of action: it is at the core of planning". The decision making process can be carried out either by individuals acting alone or by groups. There are several models and theories which are developed to explain decision making and how effectively you can make a decision. Decision making is a process of selection from a set of alternative courses of action which is thought to fulfill the objectives of

the decision problem more satisfactorily than others. Decision making is an essential part of every function of management. In the words of Peter F. Drucker, "Whatever a manager does, he does through decision making." When we talk of teachers it can be seen that a teacher is continuously involved in decision making whether it is regarding school activities or related student centered activities etc. Knowingly or unknowingly a teacher is always at decision making. Decision making involves thinking and deciding before doing and so is inherent in every activity. That is the reason decision making is often called the "essence" of managing. No one can survive without effective decision making. Some of the decisions may be of a routine type and repetitive in nature and some may be strategic in nature which may require a lot of systematic and scientific analysis. In the educational sector, a teacher is always a decision maker. Teachers are expected to make decisions that affect the growth and development of the students in their care.

Herbert A. Simon coined the phrase "bounded rationality" to express the idea that human decision-making is limited by available information, available time and the mind's information-processing ability. Further psychological research has identified individual differences between two cognitive styles: *maximizers* try to make an optimal decision, whereas *satisficers* simply try to find a solution that is "good enough". Maximizers tend to take longer making decisions due to the need to maximize performance across all variables and make tradeoffs carefully; they also tend to more often regret their decisions (perhaps because they are more able than satisficers to recognise that a decision turned out to be sub-optimal).

Intuitive vs. rational

The psychologist Daniel Kahneman, adopting terms originally proposed by the psychologists Keith Stanovich and Richard West, has theorized that a person's decision-making is the result of an interplay between two kinds of cognitive processes: an automatic intuitive system (called "System 1") and an effortful rational system (called "System 2"). System 1 is a bottom-up, fast, and implicit system of decision-making, while system 2 is a top-down, slow, and explicit system of decision-making. System 1 includes simple heuristics in judgment and decision-

making such as the affect heuristic, the availability heuristic, the familiarity heuristic, and the representativeness heuristic.

Combinatorial vs. positional

Styles and methods of decision-making were elaborated by Aron Katsenelinboigen, the founder of predispositioning theory. In his analysis on styles and methods, Katsenelinboigen referred to the game of chess, saying that "chess does disclose various methods of operation, notably the creation of predisposition-methods which may be applicable to other, more complex systems."

Katsenelinboigen states that apart from the methods (reactive and selective) and sub-methods (randomization, predispositioning, programming), there are two major styles: positional and combinational. Both styles are utilized in the game of chess. According to Katsenelinboigen, the two styles reflect two basic approaches to uncertainty: deterministic (combinational style) and indeterministic (positional style). Katsenelinboigen's definition of the two styles are the following.

The combinational style is characterized by:

- a very narrow, clearly defined, primarily material goal; and
- a program that links the initial position with the final outcome.

In defining the combinational style in chess, Katsenelinboigen wrote: "The combinational style features a clearly formulated limited objective, namely the capture of material (the main constituent element of a chess position). The objective is implemented via a well-defined, and in some cases, unique sequence of moves aimed at reaching the set goal. As a rule, this sequence leaves no options for the opponent. Finding a combinational objective allows the player to focus all his energies on efficient execution, that is, the player's analysis may be limited to the pieces directly partaking in the combination. This approach is the crux of the combination and the combinational style of play.

The positional style is distinguished by:

- a positional goal; and

- a formation of semi-complete linkages between the initial step and final outcome.

"Unlike the combinational player, the positional player is occupied, first and foremost, with the elaboration of the position that will allow him to develop in the unknown future. In playing the positional style, the player must evaluate relational and material parameters as independent variables. ... The positional style gives the player the opportunity to develop a position until it becomes pregnant with a combination. However, the combination is not the final goal of the positional player – it helps him to achieve the desirable, keeping in mind a predisposition for the future development. The pyrrhic victory is the best example of one's inability to think positionally."

The positional style serves to:

- create a predisposition to the future development of the position;
- induce the environment in a certain way;
- absorb an unexpected outcome in one's favor; and
- avoid the negative aspects of unexpected outcomes.

Influence of Myers-Briggs type

According to Isabel Briggs Myers, a person's decision-making process depends to a significant degree on their cognitive style. Myers developed a set of four bi-polar dimensions, called the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). The terminal points on these dimensions are: *thinking* and *feeling*; *extroversion* and *introversion*; *judgment* and *perception*; and *sensing* and *intuition*. She claimed that a person's decision-making style correlates well with how they score on these four dimensions. For example, someone who scored near the thinking, extroversion, sensing, and judgment ends of the dimensions would tend to have a logical, analytical, objective, critical, and empirical decision-making style. However, some psychologists say that the MBTI lacks reliability and validity and is poorly constructed.

Other studies suggest that these national or cross-cultural differences in decision-making exist across entire societies. For example, Maris Martinsons has found that American, Japanese and Chinese business leaders each exhibit a distinctive national style of decision-making.

General decision-making style (GDMS)

In the general decision-making style (GDMS) test developed by Suzanne Scott and Reginald Bruce, there are five decision-making styles: rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous. These five different decision-making styles change depending on the context and situation, and one style is not necessarily better than any other. In the examples below, the individual is working for a company and is offered a job from a different company.

- The *rational* style is an in-depth search for, and a strong consideration of, other options and/or information prior to making a decision. In this style, the individual would research the new job being offered, review their current job, and look at the pros and cons of taking the new job versus staying with their current company.
- The *intuitive* style is confidence in one's initial feelings and gut reactions. In this style, if the individual initially prefers the new job because they have a feeling that the work environment is better suited for them, then they would decide to take the new job. The individual might not make this decision as soon as the job is offered.
- The *dependent* style is asking for other people's input and instructions on what decision should be made. In this style, the individual could ask friends, family, coworkers, etc., but the individual might not ask all of these people.
- The *avoidant* style is averting the responsibility of making a decision. In this style, the individual would not make a decision. Therefore, the individual would stick with their current job.
- The *spontaneous* style is a need to make a decision as soon as possible rather than waiting to make a decision. In this style, the

individual would either reject or accept the job as soon as it is offered.

Organizational vs. individual level

There are a few characteristics that differentiate organizational decision-making from individual decision-making as studied in lab experiments :

1. Unlike most lab studies of individual decision-making, *ambiguity* is pervasive in organizations. There is often only ambiguous information, and there is ambiguity about preferences as well as about interpreting the history of decisions.
2. Decision-making in and by organizations is embedded in a *longitudinal* context, meaning that participants in organizational decision-making are a part of ongoing processes. Even if they don't take on active roles in all phases of decision-making, they are part of the Decision Process and its consequences. Decisions in organizations are made in a sequential manner, and commitment may be more important in such processes than judgmental accuracy. In contrast, most lab studies of individual decision-making are conducted in artificial settings (lab) that are not connected to the subjects' ongoing activities.
3. *Incentives* play an important role in organizational decision-making. Incentives, penalties, and their ramifications are real and may have long-lasting effects. These effects are intensified due to the longitudinal nature of decision-making in organizational settings. Incentives and penalties are very salient in organizations, and often they command managerial attention.
4. Many executives, especially in middle management, may make *repeated decisions* on similar issues. Managers may develop a sense of using his/her skills (which may be faulty) and a sense of having control and using one's skills are pervasive in managerial thinking about risk taking. Several repeated decisions are made by following rules rather than by using pure information processing modes.
5. *Conflict* is pervasive in organizational decision-making. Many times power considerations and agenda setting determine decisions rather than calculations based on the decision's parameters. The nature of authority

relations may have a large impact on the way decisions are made in organizations, which are basically political systems.

When you make decisions, there are four decision-making styles that you can use. There's an Autocratic style, a Participatory one, a Democratic style, and a Consensus-based decision-making style. Your choice of which of those four styles to use is driven by two things. First, the urgency of making the decision – from low urgency where you've got plenty of time to make the call, to high urgency where you need a decision right now.

The second dimension to consider is the size or impact of the decision, from small decisions that won't have a large impact, to big decisions that are going to have a huge impact. As you look at which style of decision making to use, you need to consider both of these dimensions.

Autocratic Decision-Making

For situations where you have low impact and they're reasonably small decisions, but they get larger as urgency goes up, an Autocratic decision-making style is the most appropriate. In Autocratic decision-making, decisions are made at the top. Buy-in is not seen as an important aspect of making this decision. And actually, it may be counterproductive to involve a lot of people in making the call. Typically, in an environment where you're making Autocratic decisions, work activities and roles are very tightly structured, they're monitored and well controlled. Command and control is very important in these situations.

Participatory Decision-Making

For larger decisions where there's higher urgency and you need to make a call soon, but the impact is going to be big, you're looking at a situation where you need to use a Participatory decision-making style. This is where you're going to make a decision with input from the people who are going to be impacted in that final call. Remember, Participatory decisions are made when the decision is much bigger and there's a lot more risk involved. Getting that additional information from more people is going to reduce that decision making risk. Also by getting that buy-in,

you're reducing execution risk because people have had an opportunity to give their input and have a say in the final call that's made.

Consensus-Based Decision-Making

For situations where it's a large decision but there's no urgency around it and you've got plenty of time, you can be using a Consensus-based decision-making style. This is where decisions are reached with a cross-functional team. People from different departments have input, and buy-in is essential. You should reserve this style of decision-making for the biggest decisions you're trying to make. However, recognize this can take a lot of time. You have to get everybody saying "yes" before that decision is made. You're going to have individuals from multiple groups, multiple functions, all working together, coming up with that final perspective for the final decision.

Democratic Decision-Making

And last, for mid-sized decisions where there's not a lot of urgency but you do need to make a decision and move on, a Democratic style is the most appropriate. This is where a decision is reached by a majority vote. Buy-in is desirable but it's not essential. These are the decisions we just have to make and move on with life. Individuals are going to interact in this style. You may have a committee where people are going to come together, form an opinion, but ultimately we set a deadline, we vote and we move on.

As you select a decision-making style, remember to consider the urgency of making the call, and the size or impact of that decision.

Want to learn more about this topic? How about taking an entire course on it? Check out the video below to learn more about the course and get started. Or you can go directly to the course and start learning how to make better decisions. The entire course is available at lynda.com.

Enjoy!

5.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF DECISION MAKING

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Decision making is important for organizational effectiveness because of its central role in the overall process of directing and controlling the behaviour of organizational members. Decisions are made that cover the setting of goals, strategic planning, organizational design, personnel actions, and individual and group actions. Besides its organizational effect, however, decision making also has an individual effect. The quality of a decision has a bearing on his or her professional success and sense of satisfaction. So studying decision making is important from both an organizational and an individual perspective. Another major reason for studying decisions is to enable us to make better quality decisions than we do presently. This point must be emphasized strongly because the quality of our decisions is often much poorer than we realize. Selective perception tends to bias the information we use in making decisions and our attitudes and values influence how we interpret that information. Drives for consistency lead to oversimplified interpretations. Our willingness to attribute positive outcomes to ourselves. (e.g., taking credit for good decisions) and to attribute negative outcomes to forces outside our control makes us remember the results of decisions in a personally favourable light. All these forces degrade our decisions. and at the same time, limit our understanding of the decision making problem, Besides being unaware of our human limitations in the decision making process, we are often unaware of the methods that can be used to increase our decision effectiveness. Very little training that emphasizes the actual decision making process is available either inside or outside organizations. In most cases experience is our guide and while experience can be a good teacher, it can be misleading as well. In many cases we may learn the wrong way to do something or we may obtain information that is actually irrelevant for the quality of the decision. In order to increase our effectiveness in decision making, we must first understand the decision making process. Decision making and planning are deeply interlinked. The determination of objectives, policies, programmes, strategies, etc. involves decision making. The most outstanding quality of a teacher to be successful is his/her ability to make sound decisions, A teacher may be in a situation where he/she has to make up his/her mind quickly on certain matters, It is

not correct to say that he/she has to make ~pur of the moment decisions all the time, While taking many decisions, he/she gets enough time Pot ~areffil fact fiadin~, merlysis sf alternative8 and eheiee sf the best alternative. Decision making is a human process. When a teacher decides, he/she chooses a course which he/she thinks is the best.

5.3 DECISION MAKING PROCESS

The basic characteristics of decision making are as follows:

It is the process of choosing a course of action from among the alternative courses of action. It is a human process involving to a great extent the application of intellectual abilities.

It is the end process preceded by deliberation and reasoning. It is always related to the environment.

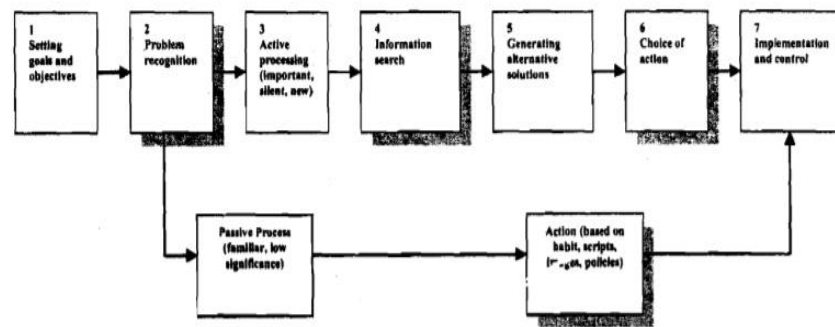
A decision may be taken in a particular set of circumstances and another in a different set of circumstances. It involves a time dimension and a time lag.

It always has a purpose. Keeping this in view, there may just be a decision to not to decide. It involves all actions like defining the problem and probing and analyzing the various alternatives which take place before a final choice is made.

The decision making process includes the following components:

- The decision maker.
- The decision problem.
- The environment in which the decision is to be made.
- The objectives of the decision maker.
- The alternative courses of action.
- The outcome expected from various alternatives.
- The final choice of the alternative.

The stages of decision making are indicated in Figure 5.1



The first stage of decision making is goals and objectives. The second is problem recognition, here the decision maker has to be alert to know what is happening and also to recognize the discrepancies which exist. During the third stage, the decision-maker must evaluate the discrepancy whether it is an important one or not. Next, it has to be found out how the problem occurred i.e., 'information-search phase'. This stage is crucial but least handled well. In the next stage 'course of action' must be explored i.e., number of alternatives to be explored. This is the 'alternative-generation' phase. Next comes the evaluation of alternatives that is the 'choice phase'. Here the pros and cons of each alternative have to be thought about before taking a decision which is known as choice of action. The last phase of the process involves the implementation and evaluation of the decision.

5.4 TYPES OF DECISIONS

Decisions may be classified into five major types. These are:

- Organisational and personal decisions
- Routine and strategic decisions
- Policy and operating decisions
- Programmed and non-programmed decisions

- Individual and group decisions

Let us discuss each type in brief.

- (i) **Organizational and personal decisions:** Personal decisions are those decisions that cannot be delegated to others. These decisions are meant only to achieve personal goals. Organisational decisions are those decisions that are taken to achieve organizational goals. For example you want to solve food habits related problems of your students. Advising them to take nutritious food becomes a personal decision. As a teacher you adopt different kinds of teaching methods so that your students are able to understand science and mathematics better. These are for organizational goals because good performance enhances the credibility of the school.

Activity 1 Illustrate with reference to your school on what occasions you had to follow organizational or individual decisions.

- (ii) **Routine and strategic decisions:** Routine decisions are those which are repetitive in nature. For example, certain established rules, procedures and policies are to be followed. You might have experienced that when a teacher goes on leave another teacher who is free at that time has to engage the class. This is a routine decision. 'Strategic' decisions are those decisions which have to be deliberated upon in depth. For example, highlighting the characteristics of the school, before giving an advertisement for admissions, can bring more revenue to the school.

Activity 2 Cite an example with reference to your school regarding a strategic decision.

- (iii) **Policy and operating decisions:** Policy decisions are those decisions which are taken at the higher level. For example, fixing pay scales for teachers. Operating decisions are those decisions which mean procedure of execution of the policy made. For

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example, how to disburse the arrears accumulated to a teacher (e.g. calculations).

Activity 3 What do you mean by operating' decision?

- (iv) Programmed and non-programmed decisions: Non-programmed decisions are those decisions which are unstructured. For example, if a child is often absent, the class teacher can analyse the reasons for his/her absenteeism from the information provided by the child and then advise as to how to recoup with the situation. Whereas programmed decisions are of routine type and repetitive in nature. For example, when children should take their breakfast, lunch etc.

Activity 4 Differentiate between programmed and non-programmed decisions citing appropriate examples.

- (v) Individual and group decisions: A decision taken by an individual in the organisation is known as 'individual' decision, where autocratic style of functioning prevails. For example, if only the principal takes a decision without the participation of teachers, it is an individual decision. 'Group' decisions are collective decisions which are taken by a committee with a proper representation. For example, decisions taken collectively by parents, teachers and principal for the welfare of students.

Activity 5 Describe a situation where individual and group decisions have to be taken?

Some other types of decisions: Decisions can also be classified on the basis of dimensionality i.e., complexity of the problem and certainty of outcome of following the decision. These are described below:

Mechanistic decisions: Mechanistic decision is routine and repetitive in nature where the outcomes are known. For example, if a child misbehaves in the class, the teacher raises voice to control it.

Analytical decisions: In this type of decision one has to analyse the situation and take a decision. For example, if students are not performing well in science, the reasons have to be explored. It can be because of the teacher or the method of teaching science, lab-facilities provided, etc.

Adaptive decisions: In this kind of decision outcomes are not known and often unpredictable, It varies from situation to situation, For example, a decision taken by a teacher without prior experience of the outcome,

Activity 6 Cite examples regarding the above types of decisions with reference to your school or a school you are familiar with.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

- 1. Discuss the Significance of Decision making.

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- 2. Describe Decision making Process.

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- 3. What are the Types of Decisions?

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5.5 MODELS OF DECISION MAKING

The following are important decision making models which enable us to know more about decision making: Contingency model Economic man model Administrative man model Social man model Let us discuss each model in brief.

- (i) Contingency model: Beach and Mitchell (1978) felt that the decision maker uses one of three general types of decision

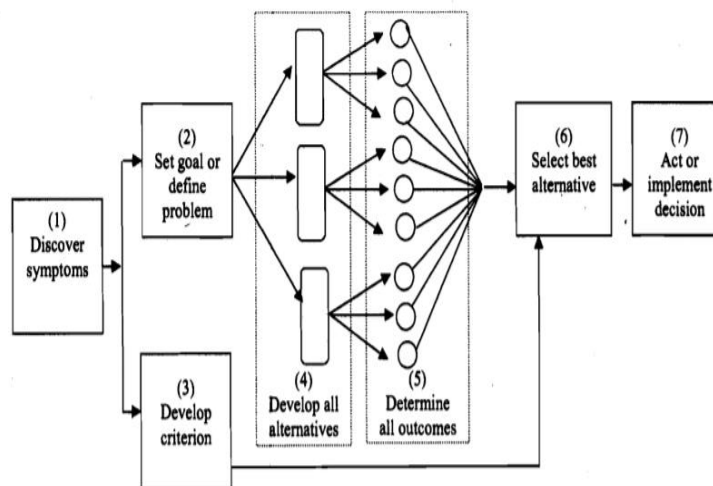
Notes

strategies: aided analytic, unaided analytic, and no analytic. The aided analytic strategy employs some sort of formal model or formula, or an aid such as a checklist. An unaided analytic strategy is one in which the decision maker is very systematic in his or her approach to the problem and perhaps follows some sort of model, but does it all in his or her head. Thinking of all the pros and cons for each alternative or trying to imagine the consequences of each action would fall in this category. Finally there is the category of no analytic strategy. Here the decision maker chooses by habit or uses some simple rule of thumb ("nothing ventured, nothing gained" or "better safe than sorry") to make the choice.

Decision Making Which strategy is to be selected depends on the personal characteristic of the decision maker and the demands of the task. The underlying assumption of this model is that a person will choose a strategy that requires the least amount of time and effort to reach a satisfactory decision. The more analytic a strategy, the more time and effort are required to use it. Since aided analytic techniques take the most effort and analysis, the use of such techniques requires that 1) the individual should have the personal characteristics necessary to employ them (e.g., knowledge, ability, and motivation) and 2) such techniques are demanded by the characteristics of the decision problem. The characteristics of the problem are divided into two groups: the decision problem itself and the decision environment. The model suggests that as the decision problem becomes less familiar and more ambiguous, complex, and unstable, the decision maker will use more time and analysis (more analytic strategies) to reduce the uncertainty caused by these factors. However, this process continues only up to a point. When the uncertainty due to these factors becomes too great, the decision maker is likely to return to a simpler rule. The reason is that when there is an extremely high degree of uncertainty in the decision problem, the potential gains of a more accurate analytic decision are small and are often far outweighed by the cost (e.g., time and effort) required to arrive at that decision. The decision

environment is composed of four factors. The model suggests that more analytic strategies will be selected when decisions are not reversible and very important, and when the decision maker is personally accountable. Also, analytic procedures are more likely to be used where there are no time or money constraints.

- (ii) (Economic man model: In this model, it is believed that man is completely rational in taking decisions. It is accepted that man takes decisions based on the best alternatives available. An economic model of decision making is given in Figure 5.2.



Flg.5.2: An Economic Model of Decision Making

Source: Behling and Schriesheim, 1976

- (iii) Administrative man model: This model assumes that though people would like to have best solution, they settle for less because the decisions may require more information which they may not possess. Thus, there is a kind of bounded (or limited) rationality in decisions. The following three steps are involved in the process of this model. Sequential attention to alternative solutions: In this step, all the alternatives are identified and evaluated one at a time. If one of the alternatives fails then the next alternative is considered Use of heuristics: A heuristic is a rule which guides the search for alternatives into areas that have a high probability for yielding satisfactory solutions. In this step if the previous solution was working then a similar set of alternatives are used in that situation. Satisfying: Here the

alternatives which are workable are found to be satisfying. A bounded rationality model of decision making is explained in Figure 5.3.

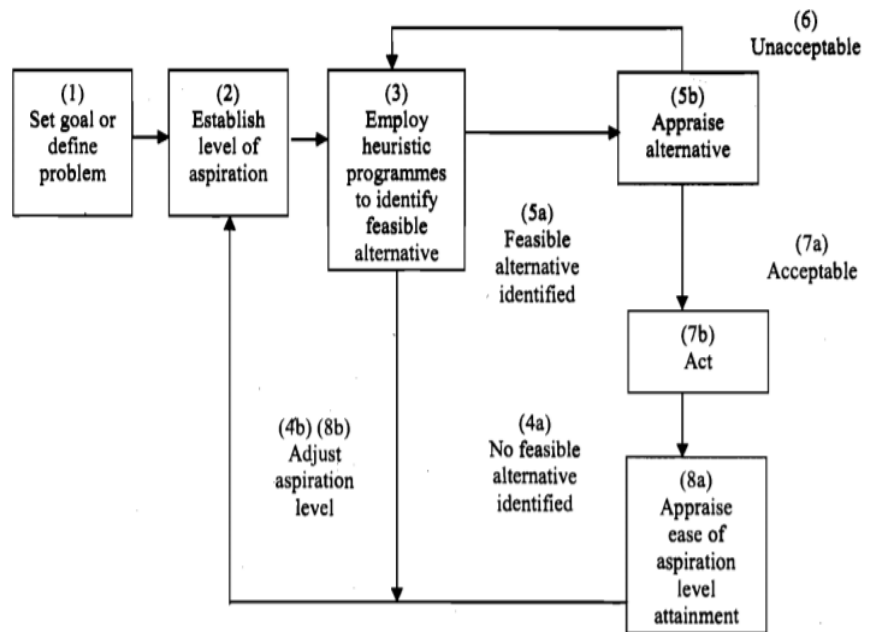


Fig.5.3: A Bounded Rationality Model of Decision Making

Source: Behling and Schriesheim, 1976

- (ii) Social man model: This model was developed by the classical psychologists. This model feels that man being a social animal is subjected to social pressures and influences. Here the decisions are taken under the following conditions: I Certainty: Because of certainty, accurate decisions can be taken. Uncertainty and risk: Several decisions are taken under conditions of risk.

Identification of Alternatives In order to generate alternatives three main processes are generally used. These are brainstorming, synectics and nominal grouping.

- (i) Brain storming: This is developed by Alex F. Osborn. It is the best technique in stimulating creative thinking. The objective of this method is to produce as many ideas as possible. In this method 'criticism' is prohibited. 'Freewheeling' is welcome. Generating a number of alternatives is the motto.

Combination and improvement are sought. This method does have limitations. They are time consuming and costly. Care should be taken to select group members who are familiar with the problem to be considered (e.g. Parent - Teacher Association meetings).

- (ii) **Synectics:** Here members are selected from different backgrounds and training. The leader poses the problem in such a way that the members deviate from traditional ways of thinking. Various methods employed include role playing, use of analogies, paradoxes, metaphors and other thought provoking exercises. This is a widely used method and though it has limitations like brain storming, it is very useful for complex and technical problems.
- (iii) **Nominal grouping** It means group in name only. This model is useful when it requires a high degree of innovation and idea generation. Here the search process is proactive rather than reactive. It is also time consuming and costly.

5.6 CREATIVITY AND DECISION MAKING

Creativity involves a novel combination of ideas which must have theoretical or social value or make an emotional impact on other people. Creative decisions and the quality of such decisions is influenced by many factors. It would depend upon the quality of the information input and any prejudices introduced because of our perceptual processes and cognitive constraints. In addition to the outside factors, the characteristics of the decision maker greatly affect the quality of the decision. The primary characteristics are the attitude of the decision maker towards risk that he/she may be facing and the types of social and cultural influences on him/her. Some of the factors and personal characteristics that have an impact on the decision maker are:

- (i) **Information inputs:** It is very important to have adequate and accurate information about the situation for decision making, otherwise the quality of the decision will suffer. It must be

recognized, however, that an individual has certain mental constraints which limit the amount of information that he/she can adequately handle. Less information is as dangerous as too much information, even though some risk takers and highly authoritative individuals do make decisions on the basis of comparatively less information than more conservative decision makers.

- (ii) **Prejudice:** Prejudice and bias are introduced by our perceptual processes and may cause us to make ineffective decisions. First of all, the perception is highly selective, which means that we only accept what we want to accept and hence only such type of information filters down to our senses and secondly, perception is highly subjective meaning that the information gets distorted to coincide with our pre-established beliefs, attitudes and values. For example, a pre-conceived idea that a given person or an organization is honest or deceptive, good or poor source of information, late or prompt on delivery can have a considerable effect on the objective ability of the decision maker and the quality of the decision.
- (iii) **Cognitive constraints:** A human brain, which is the source of thinking, creativity and thus decision making, is limited in capacity in a number of ways. For example, except in unique circumstances, our memory is short term with a capacity of only a few ideas, words and symbols. Secondly, we cannot perform more than a very limited number of calculations in our heads which are not enough to compare all the possible alternatives and make a choice. Finally, psychologically, we are always uncomfortable with making decisions. We are never really sure if our choice of the alternative was correct and optimal, until the impact of the implication of the decision has been felt. This makes us feel very insecure. These constraints limit us to use 'Heuristics', which means limiting the search for facts and data and using the limited information for decision making. This leads to 'satisfactory' decisions rather than optimal decisions.

- (iv) Attitudes about risk and uncertainty: These attitudes are developed in a person, partly due to certain personal characteristics and partly due to organizational characteristics. If the organizational policy is such that it penalizes losses more than it rewards gains, then the decision maker would tend to avoid such alternatives that have some chances of failure even though the probability of substantial potential gains is very high. The risk taking attitude is influenced by the following variables: Intelligence of the decision maker. Higher intelligence results in highly conservative attitudes and highly conservative decision makers are low risk takers. The less intelligent decision makers are generally more willing to take calculated risks if the potential rewards are large and there is some chance of success. Expectations of the decision maker. People with high expectations are generally highly optimistic in nature and are willing to make decisions even with less information. The decision makers with low expectations of success will require more and more information to decide upon a course of action. Decision Making Time constraints. As the complexity of the personal habits of the decision maker and the complexity of the decision variables increases, so does the time required to make a rational decision. Even though, there are certain individuals who work best under time pressures and may outperform others under severe time constraints, most people, by and large, require time to gather all the available information for evaluation purposes. However, most people under time pressures rely on 'Heuristic' approach, considering few characteristics of alternatives and focusing on reasons to reject some alternatives. This approach may also be in use when the cost of gathering information and evaluating all such information is high.
- (v) Personal habits: Personal habits of the decision maker, even though formed through social environmental impact and personal perceptual processes, must be studied in order to

predict his decision making style. Some people stick to their decisions even when these decisions are not optimal and try to shift the blame for failure on outside factors rather than their own mistakes. For example, Hitler found himself bound by his own decisions. Once he decided to attack Russia, there was no coming back even when it was realised that the decision was not the right one. Some people cannot admit that they are wrong and they continue with their decisions as before even ignoring such evidence which indicates that a change is necessary. These personal habits have a great impact on organizational operations and effectiveness.

- (vi) Social and cultural influences: The social and group norms exert considerable influence on the style of the decision maker. Ebert and Mitchell define a social norm to be "an evaluating scale designating an acceptable latitude and objectionable latitude for behaviour, activity, events, beliefs or any object of concern to members of a social unit. In other words, social norm is the standard and accepted way of making judgements". Similarly, cultural upbringing and various cultural dimensions have a profound impact on the decision making style of an individual. For example, in the Japanese organizational system, a decision maker arrives at decisions in consensus with others. This style is culturally oriented and makes implementation of the decision much easier, since everybody participates in the decision making process. In America, on the contrary, the decision making style is highly individualistic with the of decision models and decision techniques.

5.7 SOME COMMON ERRORS IN DECISION MAKING

Since the importance of the right decision cannot be overestimated, because the quality of the decision can make the difference between success and failure, it is imperative that all factors affecting the decision be properly looked at and fully investigated. In addition to technical and

operational factors which can be quantified and analyzed, other factors such as personal values, personality traits, psychological assessment, perceptions about the environment, intuitional and judgemental capabilities and emotional interference must also be understood and credited. Some researchers have pinpointed certain areas where managerial thinking needs to be re-assessed and where some common mistakes are usually made. These mistakes that affect the decision making process as well as the efficiency of the decision should be avoided as far as possible. Some other errors are:

- (i) **Indecisiveness:** Decision making is a very heavy responsibility. The fear of its outcome can make some people timid about making a decision. This timidity may result in taking a long time for making a decision and this may result in the loss of a good opportunity. This trait is a personality trait and must be looked into seriously.
- (ii) **Postponing the decision until the last moment:** This is quite a common practice and results in decision making under pressure of time which generally eliminates the possibility of a thorough analysis of the problem. since such analysis is time consuming. It also makes it practically impossible to establish and compare all possible alternatives. For example, I many students who postpone studying until their final exams usually do not I fare well in the exams.
- (iii) **Failure to isolate the root cause of the problem:** It is a very common practice to cure the symptoms, rather than the causes. For example, a headache may be a symptom of some deep rooted emotional problem so that just a medicine for the headache would not cure the problem. It is I necessary to separate the symptoms from the causes. Success of a decision is dependent upon the correct definition of the problem.
- (iv) **Failure to assess the reliability of informational sources:** Very often, we I take it for granted that the other person's opinion is very reliable and 1 trustworthy and we do not check for the accuracy of such information for ourselves. Many times, the

opinion of the other person is taken so that if the decision fails to bring the desired results, the blame for the failure can I be shifted to the person who had provided the information. However, this is a poor reflection on the manager's ability and integrity and the manager must be held responsible for the outcome of the decision. Accordingly, it is his moral duty to analytically judge the accuracy and reliability of the information that is provided to him.

- (v) The method for analyzing the information may not be a sound one: Since most decisions and specially the non-programmed ones have to be based upon a lot of information, and many factors and variables, the procedures to identify, isolate and select the useful information must be sound and dependable. Usually, it is not operationally feasible to objectively analyse more than five or six pieces of information at any given time. Hence, g model must be built which incorporates and handles many variables in order to aid the decision maker. Also, it is desirable to define the objectives, criteria and constraints as early in the decision making process as possible. This would assist in making the process more formal so that no conditions or alternatives would be overlooked.

Stages in the creative process

Stage	Type	Behaviours
Preparation	Conscious	<p>Saturation: Investigating the problem in all directions to become fully familiar with it, its setting, causes, and effects.</p> <p>Deliberation: Mulling over these ideas, analyzing and challenging them, viewing them from different optics.</p>
Latent period	Unconscious	<p>Incubation: Relaxing, switching off, and turning the problem over to the unconscious mind.</p> <p>Illumination: Emerging with possible answers – dramatic, perhaps off beat, but fresh and new.</p>
Presentation	Conscious	<p>Verification: Clarifying and flushing out the idea, testing it against the criterion of appropriateness.</p> <p>Accommodation: Trying out the solution on other people and other problems.</p>

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Models of Decision Making.

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2. Discuss the Creativity and Decision making.

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3. Discuss Some Common Errors in Decision making.

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5.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the importance of decision making, the process involved and different models of decision making and how decision making is helpful in everyday life. We discussed various characteristics of decision making. Four types of decisions have been discussed in this unit. We have also discussed four major models: contingency model, economic man model, administrative man model and social man model. Various factors and personal characteristics that have an impact on decision making have also been discussed.

Decision-making can be regarded as a problem-solving activity yielding a solution deemed to be optimal, or at least satisfactory. It is therefore a process which can be more or less rational or irrational and can be based on explicit or tacit knowledge and beliefs. Tacit knowledge is often used to fill the gaps in complex decision making processes. Usually both of these types of knowledge, tacit and explicit, are used together in the decision-making process.

Notes

Human performance has been the subject of active research from several perspectives:

Psychological: examining individual decisions in the context of a set of needs, preferences and values the individual has or seeks.

Cognitive: the decision-making process regarded as a continuous process integrated in the interaction with the environment.

Normative: the analysis of individual decisions concerned with the logic of decision-making, or communicative rationality, and the invariant choice it leads to.

A major part of decision-making involves the analysis of a finite set of alternatives described in terms of evaluative criteria. Then the task might be to rank these alternatives in terms of how attractive they are to the decision-maker(s) when all the criteria are considered simultaneously. Another task might be to find the best alternative or to determine the relative total priority of each alternative (for instance, if alternatives represent projects competing for funds) when all the criteria are considered simultaneously. Solving such problems is the focus of multiple-criteria decision analysis (MCDA). This area of decision-making, although very old, has attracted the interest of many researchers and practitioners and is still highly debated as there are many MCDA methods which may yield very different results when they are applied on exactly the same data. This leads to the formulation of a decision-making paradox. Logical decision-making is an important part of all science-based professions, where specialists apply their knowledge in a given area to make informed decisions. For example, medical decision-making often involves a diagnosis and the selection of appropriate treatment. But naturalistic decision-making research shows that in situations with higher time pressure, higher stakes, or increased ambiguities, experts may use intuitive decision-making rather than structured approaches. They may follow a recognition primed decision that fits their experience and arrive at a course of action without weighing alternatives.

The decision-maker's environment can play a part in the decision-making process. For example, environmental complexity is a factor that influences cognitive function. A complex environment is an environment with a large number of different possible states which come and go over

time. Studies done at the University of Colorado have shown that more complex environments correlate with higher cognitive function, which means that a decision can be influenced by the location. One experiment measured complexity in a room by the number of small objects and appliances present; a simple room had less of those things. Cognitive function was greatly affected by the higher measure of environmental complexity making it easier to think about the situation and make a better decision.

5.9 KEY WORDS

Decision making: In psychology, decision-making is regarded as the cognitive process resulting in the selection of a belief or a course of action among several alternative possibilities. Decision-making is the process of identifying and choosing alternatives based on the values, preferences and beliefs of the decision-making.

Rationality: Rationality is the quality or state of being rational – that is, being based on or agreeable to reason. Rationality implies the conformity of one's beliefs with one's reasons to believe, and of one's actions with one's reasons for action

5.11 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

4. Explain the concept of rationality in decision making? What are its limitations?
5. Discuss the economic man model of decision making. How does it differ from administrative man model of decision making?
6. Discuss various types of decision making and illustrate with reference to the school you are working in.
7. Discuss the process and relationship of creativity and decision making.
8. Discuss the Significance of Decision making.
9. Describe Decision making Process.
10. What are the Types of Decisions?
11. Models of Decision Making.

12. Discuss the Creativity and Decision making.
13. Discuss Some Common Errors in Decision making.

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5.13 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

1. See Section 5.2
2. See Section 5.3
3. See Section 5.4

Check Your Progress 2

1. See Section 5.5
2. See Section 5.6
3. See Section 5.7

UNIT 6: ORGANIZATION AND SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

BUREAUCRACY

STRUCTURE

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Origin of the Term
- 6.3 Meaning of Bureaucracy
 - 6.3.1 Bureaucratic Policy
 - 6.3.2 Bureaucracy in Power
 - 6.3.3 Office Holders
 - 6.3.4 Bureaucracy as an Ideal Construct
 - 6.3.5 Bureaucracy as Organisation
 - 6.3.6 Bureaucracy as Society
 - 6.3.7 Bureaucracy and Rationality
 - 6.3.8 Dictionary meaning of Bureaucracy
 - 6.3.9 Critics' view of Bureaucracy
- 6.4 Types of Bureaucracy
 - 6.4.1 Guardian Bureaucracy
 - 6.4.2 Caste Bureaucracy
 - 6.4.3 Patronage Bureaucracy
 - 6.4.4 Merit Bureaucracy
- 6.5 Maladies of Bureaucracy
- 6.6 Let us sum up
- 6.7 Key Words
- 6.8 Questions for Review
- 6.9 Suggested readings and references
- 6.10 Answers to Check Your Progress

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to :

- To explain the origin of the term bureaucracy

- To describe different meanings with which Bureaucracy is being used
- To point out different types of Bureaucracy and
- To explain the maladies of bureaucracy.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As a student of Public Administration you must be familiar with the term 'bureaucracy'. It is a term with strong emotional overtones and elusive implications. Bureaucracy is also a much researched area by Public Administrationists, Political Scientists, Sociologists and many others. As a result, there is no terminological accuracy about the concept of bureaucracy. To some, it is efficiency and to others, it is inefficiency. To some it is a term synonymous with civil service and to others it refers to a body of officials. It is this that has made one scholar to comment that 'bureaucracy is a notorious word of our age'. It is, therefore, necessary to know what is the origin of the term and what are its different meanings. It would enable you to gain familiarity about the different meanings. In this Unit you would study its meaning, types of bureaucracy and maladies of bureaucracy;

6.2 ORIGIN OF THE TERM

Definition:

The word bureaucracy is derived from the French word bureaucratic which is again derived from bureau. The dictionary meaning of bureaucracy is a system of government in which most decisions are taken by state officials rather than by elected representatives. This definition of bureaucracy is somewhat exaggerated because in most of the modern states the representatives take majority decisions and top government officials act as advisers to the representatives.

The definition given by Hague, Harrop and Breslin appears to be more relevant. "The bureaucracy is the institution that carries out the functions and responsibilities of the state".

In another definition the bureaucracy has been termed as a government run or managed by permanent officers, In other words, it can be said that bureaucracy is that type of government or administration which is primarily manned by some permanent officers recruited by a body which acts independently. Though this definition does not embrace all aspects, it conveys the real situation.

We can further say that bureaucracy is a government of permanent officers. They act as the advisers to the ministers but bear the burden of policy-making and policy implementation and they are responsible to their immediate boss. The boss may be a bureaucrat or a minister or any other person appointed by the government.

Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy:

Origin and Definition:

Marx said that the modern state was the outcome of capitalist development. But Weber does not agree with this view of Marx. The State existed and even developed before the development of modern capitalism. But there is an important contribution of capitalism. It created huge machinery for the management of public and private administration. Before the advent of capitalism this gargantuan administrative structure did not have any existence. It is the considered opinion of Weber and today many share this view of Weber.

Marx said that bureaucratic organisation was parasite in the state. He did not regard it as an integral part of society. But Weber here again differed. He said that centralised bureaucratic administration was an integral part of modern state structure and it is inevitable. Weber has clearly stated in his *Economy and Society: Vol. II* that "The growing complexity of the administrative task and the sheer expansion of the scope increasingly result in the technical superiority of those who have had training and experience and will thus inevitably favour the continuity of at least some of the functionaries.

Hence, there always exists the probability of the rise of a special, perennial structure for administrative purposes, which of course means for the exercise of rule" (emphasis added). Weber has clearly stated the

origin and inevitability of bureaucratic organisation and rule. The increasing complexities of modern administration only could be tackled by bureaucracy.

Characteristics

1. In bureaucracy office is arranged or ordered hierarchically like a pyramid. That is, officers hold office according to their rank. All the officers are subject to the higher authority.

2. Bureaucratic system is characterised by impersonal and written rules. The entire administration is run by impersonal authority and the authority is vested in rules. In other words, in bureaucratic system, human appeal has no importance. Laws and rules conduct the administration. All the decisions are taken on the basis of rules and their methodical application.

3. All the officials are recruited strictly on the basis of proven efficiency and potential competence. Officials are given specialist training. For the purpose of recruitment, qualifications are fixed; of course there may be provision for relaxation.

4. Each official, in bureaucracy, has special or demarcated task. That is, there is clear division of work and each official will have to strictly observe it. The tasks are -so demarcated that it involves full time employment.

5. The separation of officials from ownership of the means of administration. It means that the officials will simply conduct the administration and they cannot claim the ownership of the means of administration.

6. The officials who perform their duties competently will have security in services salaries and promotion. In other words, in bureaucracy efficiency, merit and honesty are duly rewarded. There is also the scope of recognition of seniority.

In every modern state and administration bureaucracy is practically indispensable. Without bureaucracy no administration can be run properly and efficiently. Even the ordinary management of administration is not possible. Why is bureaucracy completely indispensable? Weber has stated the reason in the following words: "The decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organisation has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organisation. The fully developed bureaucratic apparatus compares with the non-mechanical modes of production.

Precision, speed, unambiguity, knowledge of the files, continuity, discretion, unity, strict subordination, reduction of friction and of material and personal costs—these are raised to the maximum point in the strictly bureaucratic organisation". Modern economic organisation and the administrative structure have reached such a stage that bureaucracy has established its indispensability. Without bureaucracy the administration will suffer and also will suffer general public.

Complexities in modern administration and economic organisation have no doubt made the bureaucracy indispensable. But Weber has attributed another reason to its growth and it is the largeness of modern state. The ancient Greek city-states were small in size and the administration and economic systems were very simple.

Naturally the citizen of ancient Greek city-states did not feel the need of bureaucracy Weber writes: "It is obvious that technically the large state is absolutely dependent on a bureaucratic basis. The larger the state and more it is a great power, the more unconditionally is this the case, the greater the zones of friction with the outside the more urgent the needs for administrative unity at home become the more this character is inevitably and gradually giving way formally to the bureaucratic structure".

When Weber published his *Economy and Society* in the first decade of the last century there was no existence of today's large bureaucratic structure. Nor was there power politics as it is today. Naturally, bureaucracy's importance was not so keen as it is today Even a small state of Asia or Africa cannot exist without bureaucracy This is chiefly

due to the inevitability of technicality of administration. We cannot think of any modern administration which is not technical in character.

6.3 MEANING OF BUREAUCRACY

Models of Bureaucracy:

Some political scientists have devised few models of bureaucracy. We shall discuss here three main models. The first one is rational administrative model Secondly conservative power bloc model and, finally government over supply model.

The above mentioned three models are explained below:

(i) Rational-Administrative Model:

The first model of bureaucracy is rational-administrative model. Bureaucracy is run by rational administrative machine and because of the rationality Weber calls it an ideal type. We have just now analysed Weberian theory of bureaucracy which states that it is hierarchical, the area of each official is strictly demarcated, it is based on rules and laws, the authority of officers is impersonal and appointments are done on the basis of recruitment and through open and public examination. Seniority, experience and efficiency are recognised and duly rewarded. These are the reasons of why bureaucracy is an ideal type.

Because bureaucracy is rational it has earned tremendous popularity during the last one century and every state, both small and big, has adopted the bureaucratic mode of administration. It has also been asserted by Weber that bureaucratic authority or administration is superior to traditional or charismatic authority. The administration is, everywhere, being gradually bureaucratized. Weber believes that it is efficient and reliable. Above all, it is a rational method of administration. The advance of democracy or the rapid growth of democratisation has considerably accelerated the growth of bureaucracy in recent years. People's faith on traditional authority and charismatic authority began to fade away with the rise of democratisation.

They began to pin their hopes on an efficient and people's welfare oriented administration, on experience it was found that only an efficient, experienced and permanent team of administrative staff can meet this need and ultimately people looked to the efficient, independent and neutral officials.

So we can say that the concept of rationality revolves around the ideas of efficiency, experience and neutrality. Some men today raise question about these qualities of bureaucracy. But there is no doubt that it is far better than the traditional or charismatic authority.

Rapid industrialisation has also made the bureaucratic form of administration a must for every industrial society. It is due to the reason that the management of large scale industries requires a particular class which is called managerial class—and this is another name of bureaucracy. Today many people call it managerialism. Following Weber, James Burnham also threw ample light on managerialism in his work, *The Managerial Revolution*, published more than after two decades of Weber's death.

All these sufficiently strengthen-the rational aspect of bureaucratic administration. We are at the threshold of the twenty first century and in this age there has arisen an immense importance if bureaucracy which has been accentuated by the rapid growth of industrialisation and globalisation.

(ii) The Power Bloc Model:

In our analysis of power theory we referred to the corporatist theory which deals with how big corporations in advanced capitalism are controlling political and economic power. Repetition of some arguments in this section is inevitable. Like Weber, Marx did not develop a well-knit theory of bureaucracy, but he was quite aware of its existence and importance in capitalist country.

He believed that bureaucracy was a machine used by the bourgeoisie for the attainment of the goals. "He was thus concerned less with the bureaucratisation as a broader social phenomenon, but more with the class role played by the state bureaucracy. In particular, he saw the

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bureaucracy as a mechanism through which bourgeois interests are upheld and the capitalist system defended”.

We, therefore, find that in Weber’s analysis, bureaucracy has been viewed as a mechanism of administration whereas in Marxian analysis it has been seen as a mechanism of class rule. Bureaucracy and capitalists work in tandem for the furtherance of the economy controlled by capitalists. In some capitalist countries the socialist elements may be quite active and these create pressures upon the state authority to adopt pro-labour and pro-common people policies.

This attempt is thwarted by the top and experienced bureaucrats. These bureaucrats are members of the higher class and have received their education from the best schools and naturally they have, from the very childhood, developed strong affinity to their own class—the capitalist class. Ralph Miliband has said: “the social provenance and the education and class situation of top civil servants make them part of a specific milieu whose ideas, prejudices and outlook they are most likely to share and which is bound to influence their view of the national interests”.

Miliband further maintains that the top civil servants are conservative in their outlook and political ideology and this makes them very much close to the capitalist class. Wherever any anti-capitalist measure is going to be adopted the top bureaucrats of the state administration—by hook or by crook—scuttle the attempt.

Heywood concludes: “The major implication is that if senior bureaucrats are wedded to their interests of capitalism, a major obstacle stands in the way of any attempt to achieve socialism through constitutional means”. To sum up, it is the enormous affinity of the top bureaucrats of all advanced capitalist countries which has always foiled the implementation of pro-socialist or pro-labour policies.

It (bureaucracy) acts as a power bloc. Whether Weber was aware of it or not we do not know. Of course, in his time, bureaucracy was not used in abundant measure as a weapon to further the interests of the capitalist. It was generally concerned with the administration of the state. The socialist wave or feeling made bureaucracy more conscious and its role as a machine of class rule was sharpened.

(iii) Bureaucratic Over-Supply Model:

So far as bureaucracy is concerned there are two opposite views. The exponent of one view is Marx who has branded it as an instrument of class rule; the spokes-person of another view is the other German thinker Max Weber who believes that to tackle the complex of any modern administration the bureaucracy is an inevitable instrument.

According to Weber, bureaucracy is not a machine of class rule but a machine of administration. From this conception arises a different model which is known as bureaucratic over supply model. “Central to this model of bureaucracy is a concern with the interests and motivations of bureaucrats themselves”.

Bureaucracy is not only inevitable for the management of modern state but also it is the most rational choice. It is rational in the sense that no other better instrument has yet been devised to run efficiently and honestly the administration of a modern state. At least Max Weber thinks so. We have already discussed the rationality of bureaucracy.

There is another interpretation of the rational choice model/theory of bureaucracy. It is generally observed that men are self-interest seeking and bureaucrats are no exception. Whatever may be their rank and position all of them attempt to fulfill their personal interests and to that end they use and utilise all the legal and possible ways.

The fulfilment of self interests implies improvement of their position and rank, guarantee in service, favourable placement etc. They also want better scale of pay and other pecuniary benefits. As bureaucrats they do not neglect these aspects. Since bureaucrats are all rational human being it is quite natural that they will make attempts for the realisation of these objectives.

In 1971 William Niskanen's thought-provoking work—Bureaucracy and Representative Government has dealt with this interesting aspect of bureaucracy. All bureaucrats, irrespective of their rank and images, try to build up their career. Career- building is a multifaceted idea, which includes improvement of position, higher salary, better placement etc. The bureaucrats try to achieve these keeping themselves within the legal framework and political structure-of society.

Nevertheless, they very often adopt political tactics. The bureaucrats, particularly the departmental secretaries and top ranking officials, influence their political bosses—the ministers or representatives. The political bosses succumb to the bureaucrats because without them they will not be able to shoulder the burden of decision-making and policy implementing activities. In parliamentary system the ministers are completely dependent on the officials and the latter fully utilise this situation to satisfy their various needs. In almost all modern states this situation prevails.

6.3.1 Bureaucratic Policy

Bureaucratic politics approach, theoretical approach to public policy that emphasizes internal bargaining within the state.

The bureaucratic politics approach argues that policy outcomes result from a game of bargaining among a small, highly placed group of governmental actors. These actors come to the game with varying preferences, abilities, and positions of power. Participants choose strategies and policy goals based on different ideas of what outcomes will best serve their organizational and personal interests. Bargaining then proceeds through a pluralist process of give-and-take that reflects the prevailing rules of the game as well as power relations among the participants. Because this process is neither dominated by one individual nor likely to privilege expert or rational decisions, it may result in suboptimal outcomes that fail to fulfill the objectives of any of the individual participants.

Most discussions of bureaucratic politics begin with Graham T. Allison's 1969 article in *The American Political Science Review*, "Conceptual Models and the Cuban Missile Crisis," although this work built on earlier writings by Charles Lindblom, Richard Neustadt, Samuel Huntington, and others. Allison provides an analysis of the Cuban missile crisis that contrasts bureaucratic politics bargaining with two other models of policy making. The first of these assumes that policy decisions are made by a unitary, rational decision maker, represented by "the state" in many formulations. Thus, bureaucratic politics is often offered as a counterpoint to realist or rationalist conceptions of policy decision

making. The second alternative approach describes policies as guided by, even resulting from, previously established bureaucratic procedures, which leaves little room for autonomous action by high-level decision makers. Compared with these and other alternative conceptions of policy making, the bureaucratic politics model represents a significant and distinctive strain of organization- and state-level theory in international relations, organization theory, public policy, and American politics.

Perhaps the most-abiding concept from the bureaucratic politics model, and the shorthand many have used to define it, is that actors will pursue policies that benefit the organizations they represent rather than national or collective interests. This idea, that “where you stand depends on where you sit,” is often called Miles’s law after the Truman-era bureaucrat who coined the phrase. A central and intuitively powerful claim of bureaucratic politics explanations, this premise has been criticized for its narrow view of preference formation. For example, critics note that it fails to explain the role of many important actors in the original bureaucratic politics case study of the Cuban missile crisis. Yet even the early bureaucratic politics theorists, including Allison, were explicit in acknowledging that other factors, such as personality, interpersonal relations, and access to information, also play important roles in the bureaucratic politics process. For these theorists, three key questions guide one’s understanding of the policy-making game: (1) Who are the actors? (2) What factors influence each actor’s position? and (3) How do actors’ positions come together to generate governmental policies?

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Each of these queries masks a number of additional questions and hypotheses about the bureaucratic politics process. Whether actors are elected or appointed, high-, mid-, or low-level, and new to their stations or old hands can all affect their interests and bargaining positions. For example, actors who serve as part of a temporary political administration, such as political appointees of the U.S. president, might be likely to pursue shorter-term interests than would career civil servants with long-standing organizational affiliations. Many aspects of the policy

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environment also influence the bureaucratic politics dynamic. Issues that are highly salient and visible to key constituencies, for instance, may cause politically ambitious actors to alter their bargaining positions. The venue in which bargaining takes place—cabinet room, boardroom, public news media, and so forth—may also privilege some actors and some interests over others.

Important implications can be drawn from this model. A main goal of Allison's initial analysis was to show that the assumption, common among practitioners of foreign policy, that governments act as rational, unitary actors is fundamentally flawed. To understand the actions of a state—indeed, of any large, complex organization—one must understand the rules governing its decision-making processes and the motivations of actors participating therein. The result of such a process may well indicate a compromise point without any clear internal strategic logic and may even reflect the unintended consequence of a dynamic tug-of-war among actors. Thus, it may be very difficult to interpret the intentions that underlie the seemingly strategic behaviour of complex organizations, making interactions with these bodies less predictable and, in some spheres, such as international conflict, consequently more dangerous.

Though the bureaucratic politics model has been used to describe decision making in many different contexts, it is most commonly applied to national policy making in the United States and particularly to U.S. foreign policy. This focus has meant that the theory remains underdeveloped in many policy areas, and the traditional pluralistic view of bureaucratic politics has been challenged by critics who claim alternative paths to policy making. Some critics argue that in the American context the model underestimates the power of the president, who dominates policy through the selection and control of appointed officials. Others critique the model because it places too little emphasis on the power of lower-level administrators and structures to influence policy through the control of information and implementation. Because the bureaucratic politics approach has most often been applied to studies of crisis decision making, critics have also asserted that its value for explaining ordinary policy making, particularly over time, is limited. Finally, some have expressed normative worries about the implications

of the bureaucratic politics model for government accountability: if government decisions cannot be traced to individual policy makers but rather result from an opaque process of give-and-take among both elected and unelected leaders, assigning responsibility and therefore accountability for these activities becomes far more difficult.

6.3.2 Bureaucracy in Power

Since bureaucracy was formed, scholars have had different view of it. Some believe that bureaucracy is so rigid and unaccountable to the public. Others argue that bureaucracy generates efficiency and stability. Regardless of criticism or compliments, it is undeniable that the role of bureaucracy is still one of the important enduring issues in public administration today. Bureaucracy is still the main mechanism in public sectors and other sectors of public administration. Bureaucracy is not the best form of administration as both strengths and shortcomings still exist. However, bureaucracy is spreading worldwide. It is of great importance to understand the power of bureaucracy. “Imagine a world without bureaucracy (...) As a form of governance, bureaucracy has had such great success in transforming the world that most citizens of industrial nations may have difficulty imagining a world without it” (Bozeman, 2000, p. 11). This study aims to focus on the research question: Why is bureaucracy still powerful? What are the challenges to its power? The study also suggests that in order to strengthen the power of bureaucracy, it is necessary to deal with its weaknesses. Evaluating the power of bureaucracy is critical, especially for students, scholars, and practitioners of public administration, because in bureaucracy, there are still pitfalls that need to be changed and reformed. There can be different reforms of bureaucracy, but the goal of finding a mechanism to replace bureaucracy is difficult to be accomplished because of its prevailing position. However, understanding the root of powerful bureaucracy is useful to maximize its strengths and minimize its weaknesses.

What Is Power and Powerful There are many definitions of power. Power is the influence that brings about changes in every aspect of life. Power can be formal or informal (French & Raven, 1959). French and Raven (1959) provided six types of power: coercive power, reward

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power, legitimate power, referent power, expert power, and informational power. “Coercive power” refers to threatening or using punishment; “reward power” means the ability to control or mediate reward. Those who have “legitimate power” have legitimate rights to prescribe the behavior of other people. “Referent power” means that an individual has power because he/she has association with powerful people and he can use the association to create influence or make changes. “Expert power” means that power is achieved because someone has knowledge and expertise over others. “Informational power” means that the more information one has, the more power he/she achieves. Bureaucracy has all six powers, both formal and informal power as French and Raven (1959) identified. The power of bureaucracy is the capability of establishing objectives to be “consistent with one’s personal interests, skills, and aspirations” (Chackerian & Abcarian, 1984, p. 4). In order to achieve the set goals and objectives, the power of bureaucracy refers to the ability to “control over the resources” (Chackerian & Abcarian, 1984, p. 4). Powerful bureaucracy means its ability to “tame the world” (Bozeman, 2000, p. 11), which refers to its huge impact not only in one country but all countries in the world, regardless of political system, whether socialism or capitalism (Sjoberg, Vaughan, & Williams, 1984). The power of bureaucracy can be illustrated through its ideology which is “a verbal image of that part of the good society relevant to the functions of the particular bureaucracy concerned, plus the chief means of constructing that portion” (Downs, 1967, p. 237). In other words, it is the ideology of bureaucracy that shapes daily activities of administration, and gives direction for the communication within the organizations or between organizations and other outsiders. In this paper, the power of bureaucracy is focused on the impact, influence, and expansion of bureaucracy. Power in this research paper refers to the persistence of bureaucracy withstanding time. Its power shows that despite various criticisms about its pitfalls and the emergence of other forms which challenge bureaucracy, it is impossible to find a mechanism which can completely replace bureaucracy.

6.3.3 Office Holders

This is one of MW's most cited works, and is the foundation of much of organizational theory. Both in terms of extensions and reactions. The point is to identify the key character of bureaucracy, which is arguably the most successful organizational form and the height of applying rationality to the organization of social activity.

Why is bureaucracy so successful?

What: The Characteristics of Modern Bureaucracy

Weber's goal in this work is to describe why bur. works so well. When it is in place, it is highly effective and hard to distroy. To do this, he needs to identify the key characteristics. He starts by identifying the characteristics of the organizational system, then moves on to describe bureaucrats.

Here Weber points out the defining characteristics of modern bureaucratic systems. He starts by listing the 6 characterstics of bureaucracy.

1. There are principles of official jurisdictional areas simply put; every bureaucracy has its own special area: firemen do not arrest criminals, doctors do not empty bedpans, professors do not deliver mail. Formally, MW lists three elements to jurisdiction:

- The regular activities are assigned as official duties

At this point in the discussion, the key here is that *regular duties are assigned* - everyon has a role (a jurisdiction). That these are also *duties* - makes them much stronger than a free labor assignment (i.e. a firefighter doesn't stop because he is working overtime, nor does a professor limit the number of hours spent preparing for class, or have 'sick days" - the work is a duty).

- The authority to give commands is distributed in a formal way and regulated

Certain people have the right to control others, and this is spelled out clearly.

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- Methodical provision is made for the regular and continuous fulfillment of these duties; only persons who qualify under general rules are employed

Bureaucracy works regardless of a *particular* person. Individuals can come and go, but the position is defined by the workflow and the rules guiding behavior of occupants in that position.

2. Offices are Hierarchically ordered

Creates a clear system of authority, w. superiors and subordinates. This makes it possible for the governed to appeal, in a regulated manner, the decision of a lower office to the corresponding authority. Similarly, those in a particular position can always find a boss of their own superior (except, of course, at the highest level), to appeal. When fully developed, these systems are *monocratically organized*. This means that any position has only one boss, allowing for clear lines of authority.

3. Files & Positions

In section III, MW makes two points.

- That *every bureaucracy has written rules and files* that serve as the organizational memory of the bureaucracy (recall elementary principle's favorite threat: "that will go in your permanent file". Think of transcripts -- your grades will be known by the university long after every person in the office now has quite the job). This is what allows the continuous fulfillment of a position.
- That the work of the bureaucracy is done outside of one's home. It is an *official* activity, not a private activity. This separation of the office from the individual highlights the regulated, rational status of the position as distinct from the person. (We see the opposite of this when the rule is violated, embossment is an example).

4. Positions require specialized training

People are appointed to offices based on explicit qualifications (which are written down). This, as it turns out, is one of the key features relating bureaucracy to meritocracy.

5. Official activity demands the full working capacity of the official

An office holder is responsible for completing the tasks of the office, regardless of the number of hours it might take. Thus, as any of you will discover when you take on a salary position, you work to get the job done, not to full the clock. MW expands this and the previous point under his description of the position holder

6. Office Management follows exhaustive, stable, written rules, which can be learned.

- Every office holder's duties are clear, as are the responsibilities that each has to the other. In practice, knowledge of these rules is a key type of specialized training (this is why politically appointed ambassadors do so poorly -- they don't know the rules of the game needed to get things done).
- Individuals can not rule by decree -- they have to apply abstract, general rule. Again, this is a way of ensuring that *individuals* do not have power, but *office holders* do. THis is in direct contrast to rule by notables -- by patronage systems.

The Position of the official within and outside of the bureaucracy

In this section, Weber is describing the characteristics of the office holder, as opposed to the bureaucracy itself.

I. Office holding as a vocation

- The office holder is a professional, usually qualified by exams etc., with a duty to fulfill a given function. Obligations are not to a person in the hierarchy, but to the rules/area of the office.
- Office holding is not **just** a means for income, but a duty to be exercised. THus, one should not use the position for financial benefit (i.e. police running a protection racket).

"It is decisive for the modern loyalty to an office that, ..., it does not establish a relationship to a person, like the vassal's or disciples faith under feudal or patrimonial authority, but rather is devoted to impersonal and functional purposes." (p.266)

II. The social position of the official

A. Social Esteem and Status Convention.

Positions carry social status for the governing from the governed, which reenforces thier position. NOte that this is sometimes a legal

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authority (no contempt of court, for example), othertimes simply normative.

B. Appointment Versus Election: Consequences for Experties

- Bureaucratic officials are usually appointed, and elected officers are not purely bureaucratic
- Election transforms the traditional order, as those who are elected are subject to the electors, whom they then govern.

C. Tenure

- An office is held for life, if not legally, then often de-facto ("Career men" for example).

In this reading, we don't get the full reason for this. Partly, it is a reward for investing in the training needed to accomplish the task. Is this a *necessary* element for effective organization? Note as well that it is exceedingly difficult to fire office holders...

D. People are paid a Regular salary

People receive monetary compensation in the form of salary, which is based on the position, not the work done. Thus you are paid regardless of the number of hours you work, and based on the status of the position. Pay (usually) increases with authority, making advancement something that peopel desire.

E. Fixed career lines and status rigidity

There is a well known, clear career line, that people can follow. One expects to move from the lower to the higher positions. Note the kinds of problems that emerge, since there are fewer people at higher levels of the office than there are an lower levels.

The Technical Superiority of bureaucratic organization over administration by notables

MW says "The decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organization has always been its purely technical superiority" (p.269).

Why is it good:

"Precision, speed, unambniguity, knowledge of the files, continuity, discretion, unity, strict subordination, reduction of friction and of material and personal costs" (p.269) are raised to the optimum in

bureaucratic organization. "bureaucratization offers above all the optimum possibility for carrying through the principle of specializing administrative functions according to purely objective considerations." (p.269) That is, according to calculable rules without regard to persons. Note that this turns everything into a means, and usually an economic one (i.e. worries of efficiency) at that. Thus, the bureaucracy works "without regard to persons." This can raise very difficult moral questions, about how particular cases should be handled, a distinction known by "substantive versus procedural" justice. "Bureaucracy develops the more perfectly, the more it is 'dehumanized' the more completely it succeeds in eliminating from official business love, hatred, and all purely personal, irrational, and emotional elements which escape calculation." (p.270)

The Leveling of Social Differences

Here MW starts to explain when and how bureaucracy comes to be, since bureaucratic organization have only succeeded recently, and under particular circumstances:

A. Administrative democratization

It has usually only come w. the leveling of certain social differences, and inevitably accompanies mass democracy.

"This results from its characteristic principle: the abstract regularity of the exercise of authority, which is a result of the demand for 'equality before the law' in the personal and functional sense -- hence, of the horror of 'privilege,' and the principled rejection of doing business 'from case to case'" (p.229). [note that this is not cheap, and thus the rising cost of government]

Here MW also points out an interesting point: local governments tended to be plutocratic - while mass democracy has leveled the playing field, suggesting that returning to 'local control' might be antithetical to equality.

B. Mass parties and the bureaucratic consequences of democratization

He points out that political parties have moved from simple power organizations based on a particular person, to bureaucratic structures, with party officials. He also notes the similarities / important features of

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modern democratic government and bureaucratic office:

a) prevention of the development of a closed status group of officials in favor of universal accessibility

b) Minimization of the authority of officialdom in the interest of expanding the sphere of 'public opinion' - hence the desire for short terms of office.

The Objective basis of bureaucratic perpetuity

Once established, bureaucratic structures are the hardest to destroy. Bureaucracy is a power instrument of the highest order, since under otherwise equal conditions rationally organized action is superior to all other types, making those who control bureaucratic organizations quite powerful.

Moreover, people on the inside are similarly powerless to stop the organization:

"In the great majority of cases [the bureaucrat] is only a small cog in a ceaselessly moving mechanism which prescribes to him an essentially fixed route of march. The official is entrusted w. specialized tasks, and normally the mechanism cannot be put into motion or arrested by him, but only from the very top. The individual bureaucrat is, above all, forge to the common interest of all the functionaries in the perpetuation of the apparatus and the persistence of its rationally organized domination" (p.231)

Note that this holds for private as well as public organization, as modern capitalism depends on this kind of organization, which makes eliminating capitalism "more and more utopian" (p.231)

Thus one only need take over the top of the organization, since it is in everyone's interest to keep it going: "A rationally ordered officialdom continues to function smoothly after the enemy has occupied the territory; he merely needs to change the top officials. It continues to operate because it is to the vital interest of everyone concerned, including above all the enemy." (p.231)

6.3.4 Bureaucracy as an Ideal Construct

Bureaucracy has existed since the civilization period, witnessing numerous changes in society, enduring through many millennia and

achieving the longest existence and growth in the world (Farazmand, 2010). Bureaucracy strongly developed after World War II because it is closely linked with the development of “an advanced industrial-urban order” (as conceived by Weber, 1947, in Katz & Danet, 1973, p. 62). Bureaucracy is a system of an organization which is controlled by rules, regulations, and hierarchical structures. The management of bureaucracy “is based upon written documents (the ‘files’ which are preserved in their original or draught form)” (Weber, 1947, as cited in Shariftz & Hyde, 2004). There is a clear delineation of roles and responsibilities in the bureaucratic system. Those who are responsible for the management of office are believed to experience careful training. The official is expected to use the full capacity to work for the office regardless if “his obligatory time in the bureau may be firmly delimited” (Weber, 1947, as cited in Shariftz & Hyde, 2004, p. 51). Bureaucracy provides a career-based civil system for employees such as tenure and pension for staff. Vocation (professional values) and self-esteem rather than material bonus are used as rewards for bureaucrats. Furthermore, a bureaucratic official who is considered to be a pure figure must be appointed by his boss rather than be elected by those who govern (Weber, 1947, as cited in Shariftz & Hyde, 2004). Rules, regulations, division of labor, and hierarchy are considered as means to produce rationality and efficiency in the bureaucratic system because they are controlled in an impersonal and standardized manner. According to Downs (1967, p. 523), bureaucracy is created by “the routinization of charisma”. A person who is allured by a group of people can be promoted to be a leader of that group. As a leader, through the hierarchical system of bureaucracy, that group will generate and implement its own ideas. A bureau can be formed just simply to implement a certain kind of mission and meet the demand of a group of people. A bureau can be created by the separation from another bigger bureau. Additionally, because of survival, a bureau will find outside sources to maintain its existence and growth.

6.3.5 Bureaucracy as Organisation

Theories of bureaucratic power are developed by two historical scholars: Weber and Marx. Both scholars have different approaches for putting

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bureaucracy power in different circumstances. Weber (1947) argued that the power of bureaucracy originates from its central position in the history of modernization. Meanwhile, Marx and Engels (1971) saw the power of bureaucracy in the broader perspective of class domination and conflict. Bureaucracy is situated by Marx in a society without the division of class. Bureaucracy is a circle no one can leave. Its hierarchy is a hierarchy of information... The universal spirit of bureaucracy is the secret..., ... Bureaucracy is the imaginary state beside the real state, the spiritualism of state... Thus, everything has a double meaning, a real and a bureaucratic meaning. (Marx, 1967, pp. 185-187, as cited in Farazmand, 2002, p. 23) The power of bureaucracy is illustrated through the inevitable expansion of bureaucracy (Weber, 1947). Bureaucracy is a social form which “was rooted in the most distinctive features of the modern world” (Weber, 1947, as cited in Beetham, 1996, p. 53). The world is shaped by bureaucratic rationality. Bureaucracy consists of structures that produce an effective system of administration. Purely bureaucratic type of administration... is from a purely technical point of view, capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and is in this sense formally the most rational known means of carrying out imperative control over human beings. (Weber, 1947, p. 337) In an organization, there are many large areas and divisions which their actions can be coordinated by the bureaucratic system. The expertise and control of files in the bureaucratic system are monopolized. Bureaucracy is so powerful that the anti-bureaucracy movement cannot stop the expansion of bureaucracy and even increase its power “because of its indispensability for consolidating their hold on power” (Weber, 1947, as cited in Beetham, 1996, p. 57). While Weber believes that the complex technique of modern production leads to the power of bureaucracy, Marx and Engels (1971) held the view that the power of bureaucracy is rooted from the administrative structure which is used as a means for the purpose of class control. In the time of Marx, bureaucracy was expansive because bureaucracy is able to meet the demands of social order imposition and the requirements of capitalist production. Bureaucracy makes a great contribution to the transformation process between capitalism and socialism. Furthermore, “bureaucracy enjoyed through its monopoly of

political and administrative power” (Marx & Engels, 1971, as cited in Beetham, 1996, p. 76). Bureaucracy is powerful because it provides certain values including hierarchy, impersonality, and expertise. These elements make rational contributions to the development of an organization. “The power of bureaucracies is dependent on sustaining these values” (Chackerian & Abcarian, 1984, p. 18). The hierarchy values originate from the five basic needs of Maslow’s Theory (1972): from the basic needs (physiological needs), to the needs of safety or security needs, the needs of affection and belonging, the needs of esteem, and the needs of self actualization. These needs go from the low level (basic needs) to high level (self-actualization). The next level of needs only can be achieved if the lower level of needs is accomplished, which creates the equivalent level of hierarchy. Hierarchy refers to the superior and subordinate relationship, in which subordinates expect to receive something from the superior and vice versa. Both superior and subordinates want their needs to be met through hierarchical levels. Bureaucracy can prevent personal favors from being handed out to anyone. A bureaucratic system is the prevention of a feudal system in which power and interests are provided on the basis of blood and personal relationships rather than the regulations of law (Farazmand, 2009). Bureaucracy is much better than the patronage or patrimonial system in which the selection of officials is decided by personal relationships. The rules and regulations create independence for the nature of bureaucracy, and as a result, the bureaucratic system becomes impersonal. The impersonal decision creates the quality for organization and leads to more effective and efficient operations. In order to achieve goals, each one must make his/her own efforts or the so-called “self-improvement” rather than depend on the personal relationships. “Self-improvement is defined largely in terms of improving one’s calculative ability; acting ‘rationally’ means acting impersonally” (Chackerian & Abcarian, 1984, p. 16). The values of impersonality are significant elements in comparison to a traditional period when decisions are attached with personal sentiment and relations. The values of expertise are demonstrated through training. Before an employee is recruited to work for an organization, he/she is trained about the skills and additional

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knowledge to be suitable with the position he/she will hold when working for an organization. After a period of time working for the organization, he/she is provided in-service training to improve his qualifications and meet the demand of work. It is expected that the bureaucrat must work with high enthusiasm and avoid “mixing private feelings, emotions, or interests with the conduct of organizational business” (Chackerian & Abcarian, 1984, p. 18). Bureaucracy is powerful because it plays an important role in “maintaining and enhancing the political and economic system or regime in power” (Farazmand, 1997b, p. 63). Without bureaucracy, it is difficult for the regime in power to exercise its leadership. The hierarchical nature and the division of labor help leaders of the regime to control and manage the subordinates’ work. The semi-powered nature of American bureaucracy has helped the American presidential system to survive because “it satisfy(es) diverse interest groups, therefore it cannot amass the power to engage in a coup d’etat to topple the presidential regime in power—hence the survival of the regime” (Riggs, 1993, as cited in Farazmand, 1997b, p. 64). Additionally, according to Farazmand (1997b), bureaucracy is crucial for promoting both economic and national development. For example, in the U.S., the creation and expansion of the post office in the 1930s has contributed to pushing up the economy and consolidating the political and economic systems in the context of economic crisis. Meanwhile, in France, “the bureaucratic elite has been given real authority... It can even veto executive actions” (Farazmand, 1997b, p. 66). Bureaucracy is powerful because it generates “operational values,” which “are created in the workplace to satisfy bureaucratic ends” (McKinley, 1964, p. 129). The operational values are of great importance for bureaucracy. They are considered “primary vehicles for bureaucratic power” (Chackerin & Abcarian, 1984, p. 29). The “operational values” are related to the activities in which bureaucracy is spread out in the family, school, and polity. The institutions of family, school, and polity are places to diffuse the bureaucracy to individuals. Despite the linkage with individuals, the operational values are not necessarily similar to the needs of each individual in an organization. The ultimate goal is how the organization can implement the

bureaucratic goals. Even when the personal needs of an organization are opposite to the bureaucratic goals of an organization, the bureaucratic goals are still given the first priority. There are only two personal needs that can be taken into account and are in line with bureaucratic ends. As Thompson (1969, p. 35) said: “bureaucracies are powerful in part because they provide job security and material advancement”. Although the personal needs of employees cannot be met because they are contrary with the bureaucratic ends, employees still work for bureaucratic organizations because the career-based civil system with pension and “tenure for life” (Weber, 1947) protects them from the threat and risks of changes from the outside environment, especially when they retire. Additionally, the benefits of promotion, salary increases, the high possibilities of meeting self-esteem and self-actualization are appealing factors for the power of bureaucracy. One of the strengths of bureaucracy is to provide stability and continuity, especially against the backdrop of the unprecedented and unpredictable changes of a political system. Hardgrave (1984) and Hardgrave and Kochanek (1993) presented that in India when there was chaos, political crisis, and the instability of leadership in the 1950s and 1970s, “it was the bureaucracy that held the country together through its iron will” (as cited in Farazmand, 1997b, p. 83). Bureaucracy has assisted in consolidating the power and stability for India in this period. Bureaucracy is attractive and powerful because it is a useful tool to manage and control a great number of people who share a given objective and pursue that objective (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015). Its power is consolidated by its differences with non-bureaucrats. By comparing the differences between bureaucrats and non-bureaucrats, Katz and Danet (1973) held the view that bureaucrats come from large urban areas. They are not only urban citizens but were born and raised in urban areas of the Great Lakes, the Northeastern and Pacific states. Further, they are more educated than non-bureaucrats. In nature, the urban and highly educated people are more influential than others. Thus, bureaucrats can have more impact and power than non-bureaucrats. “Bureaucrats are found to value self-direction more highly than non-bureaucrats do” (Katz & Danet, 1973, p. 144). Additionally, bureaucrats are inclined to deal with more complex jobs than other non-bureaucrats

who have the same level of education. In terms of the executive branch, bureaucracy is an administrative means to effectively fulfill the means-ends relationship. As a means, bureaucracy plays an important role in influencing the positive and negative achievement of the goal. According to Gawthrop (1969, p. 1), one of the reasons for the power of bureaucracy is not because bureaucracy is a great hero who helped to save the life, but because it is impressed that “bureaucracy and the bureaucrats are terms that normally are associated with governmental functions”.

6.3.6 Bureaucracy as Society

A **Bureaucracy** is a way of administratively organizing large numbers of people who need to work together. Organizations in the public and private sector, including universities and governments, rely on bureaucracies to function. The term bureaucracy literally means “rule by desks or offices,” a definition that highlights the often impersonal character of bureaucracies. Even though bureaucracies sometimes seem inefficient or wasteful, setting up a bureaucracy helps ensure that thousands of people work together in compatible ways by defining everyone’s roles within a hierarchy.

What Bureaucrats Do

Government bureaucrats perform a wide variety of tasks. We often think of bureaucrats as paper-pushing desk clerks, but bureaucrats fight fires, teach, and monitor how federal candidates raise money, among other activities.

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The job of a bureaucrat is to **Implement** government policy, to take the laws and decisions made by elected officials and put them into practice. Some bureaucrats implement policy by writing rules and regulations, whereas others administer policies directly to people (such as distributing small business loans or treating patients at a veterans’ hospital). The task

of running the government, and providing services through policy implementation, is called **Public Administration**.

Bureaucratic Functions

One useful approach to understanding what bureaucrats do is to examine the actions of different governmental agencies. The following table summarizes the government's major functions and provides examples of agencies that perform those tasks.

Function	Bureaucratic Agencies
Promote public good	theNational Institutes of Health, Environmental Protection Agency, Federal Bureau of Investigation
Protect nation	theArmed forces, Coast Guard, Central Intelligence Agency
Sustain a strong economy	Federal Reserve Bank, Export-Import Bank, Securities and Exchange Commission

FUNCTIONS OF BUREAUCRACIES

6.3.7 Bureaucracy and Rationality

What is notable about the very idea of bureaucracy is its severe rational modernism. Political modernity and bureaucracy are largely symbiotic; the rise of the state paralleled the rise of the bureaucracy. One of the philosophers of the modern economizing state and the modern bureaucratic idea is Adam Smith (1723–1790), whose defense of the division of labor promoted the bureaucratization of the early Westphalian state. Indeed, Smith's ideas are elemental to Weber's core tenets of bureaucracy: the rigid division of responsibilities and tasks and the economization of organizational forms. Whereas Smith advocated the division of labor in order to promote efficient economic growth, Weber suggests the division of labor for the efficient production of goods or services. Inevitably, bureaucracy was conceived as, and has become, an economizing tool for the rationalization of complex and ambiguous environments.

The rationality of bureaucracy is a central idea within Weber's ideal type. In fact, Weber himself suggests that bureaucracy be a rational-legal form designed to promote the rationalization of organizational tasks and goals.

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The rationalizing tendency of bureaucracy, while being one of the elements most open to contemporary criticism, was also its most attractive quality for the architects of Enlightenment-guided governance, who sought alternatives to earlier forms of despotic and aristocratic dominance. The adoption of the bureaucratic form by theorists of liberal government has its roots in the legal protection of natural (rational) rights for all. In fact, embedded in the rationalization structure of bureaucracy is the elimination of particularism—the diminishment of universal individual rights for the sake of traditional forms of class or ethnic domination. Those responsible for the French Revolution pined, within their writings, for the rational nonexceptionalism of the bureaucratic form. Indeed, as Maximilien de Robespierre (1758–1794) and later Alexis de Tocqueville (1805–1859) identified, the *ancien régime* was epitomized by the irrational occupation of power by a centralized bureaucracy of the ruling class.

The products of mid-modern European thought on the liberalizing and economizing role of government produced the context in which Weber penned his essay "Bureaucracy." Within the essay he establishes the criteria elemental to the ideal bureaucracy. Foremost, he recommends that bureaucracy be the instrument of rational-legal authority, which he defines as that manner of authority "resting on a belief in the 'legality' of patterns of normative rules and the right of those elevated to authority under such rules to issue commands" (Scott, p. 44). This supplanted traditional forms of authority such as the sanctity of hereditary rule or charismatic authority such as the leadership of Napoleon. The bureaucratic organization of rational-legal authority involves the following necessary criteria: the specification of jurisdictional areas, the hierarchical organization of roles, a clear and intentionally established system of decision-making rules, the restriction of bureau property to use by the bureau, the compensation by salary (not spoils) of appointed officials, and the professionalization of the bureaucratic role into a tenured lifelong career. The idea of bureaucracy suggests that rules, norms, merit, regulations, and stability are paramount to the operation of government. The rule-bound nature of bureaucracy has been widely critiqued in modern political and sociological analyses; however, the

number of alternative forms of organization that have received as much consideration is limited.

6.3.8 Dictionary meaning of Bureaucracy

Evidently, government is linked with power, control, and dominance. Thus, it is easy to understand why normally mentioning government refers to bureaucracy and vice versa. In fact, bureaucracy does not only exist in governmental agencies but in other organizations, including public and private organizations. However, bureaucracy is more popular in large and complex organizations rather than in small and simple organizations. The power of bureaucracy is illustrated through the so-called “bureaucraticism” (Farazmand, 2010, p. 249), which means if there is any change that can threaten the status of bureaucracy, it resolutely opposes that change (Farazmand, 2010). Especially, if the changes can negatively affect the position of elites, bureaucracy will be an effective tool to struggle against the negative impact (Farazmand, 2010). If any sign of “existence, privileges or power” (Farazmand, 2010, p. 250) of bureaucracy is challenged, it will fight aggressively to the end. If the change does no harm to bureaucracy, it can co-exist with bureaucracy, but it must still be under the influence and power of bureaucracy. What is happening in detail inside the government and large and complex organizations is not open to the public. Only the final decision is announced through the mass media. Likely, bureaucracy for many people is secretive. As a part of administration, bureaucracy always avoids the public scrutiny and debate (Merton, 1940). The concealment of bureaucratic activities in some cases makes it more powerful because normal and local people think that bureaucracy is something so abstract that normal people cannot understand fully. The secrecy unintentionally increases the supposedly “supremacy” of bureaucracy. Bureaucracy is powerful because “bureaucracy is a control instrument and a control instrument without comparison. Control is the source of power for this type of organization” (Hummel, 1976, p. 28). The subordinates under the bureaucratic system are guided by what should be done based on the rules and regulations. The whole processes from taking action, evaluation of activities, working out solutions, and

evaluating results of the bureaucratic system. Bureaucracy as control not only has power but “unparalleled” power because people working in the bureaucratic environment must follow it or if they intend to oppose to it, they are only defeated (Hummel, 1976). The power of bureaucracy is demonstrated through its ability to collect and direct power. Hummel (1976, p. 26) was optimistic to believe that “modern bureaucracy harnesses more power than any, and possibly all, of the great projects of antiquity”. Bureaucracy is able to manage literally “millions” of employees to carry out big projects (Hummel, 1976, p. 26). The dominance of bureaucracy is more consolidated by “conservers” (Downs, 1967), who have worked for the bureau for a long time and are more interested in maintaining their position in the bureaucratic system. Enjoying the unilateral nature of authority, bureaucratic systems have more advantages than other competing mechanisms (Downs, 1967). Bureaucracy is powerful because bureaucracy is politics. Bureaucracy is not only related to administration but plays an important role in politics. Politicians use bureaucracy as a means to achieve power. There is bureaucratization of politics, in which “bureaucratic power will replace political power” (Hummel, 1976, p. 193). In other words, politicians will tend to increasingly act like managers running businesses. Weber (1947, p. 43) held the view that “in the modern state the actual ruler is necessarily and unavoidably the bureaucracy...” Thus, whoever wants to hold power, he/she must be clear of bureaucracy or only by working well in a bureaucratic system, can he/she become a leader. The power of bureaucracy is illustrated through its ability to influence the lives of the public. Street-level bureaucrats who directly work with citizens such as policemen, teachers, social workers, and public lawyers play an important role in presenting how bureaucracy works and are influential in citizen life (Lipsky, 1980).

6.3.9 Critics' view of Bureaucracy

One critique was Weber's claim that bureaucratic organizations were based on rational-legal authority. Parsons (1947) and Gouldner (1954) note that Weber said authority rests both in the "legal incumbancy of

office" and on "technical competence". This works if superiors have more knowledge and skill, but often this is not the case.

Thompson notes that in modern organizations authority is centralized but ability is decentralized (Thompson 1961). In fact staff-line distinctions seem to be a structural resolution of this authority-ability quandary that Weber overlooked.

Weber also doesn't distinguish between definitions and propositions in his model. His list of distinguishing characteristics are linked between each other

Udy (1959) found in examining 150 organizations and found no correlation between the bureaucratic attributes of the organization and its rational attributes.

More recent theorists think that earlier theorists misread Weber and distorted his views. Weber was defining a formal rationality that was not necessarily optimal for efficiency. He realized that formalization could degenerate into formalism, and that bureaucratic forms concentrated power at the top and could cause an "iron cage" to imprison the low-level worker in obscurity and monotonous detail.

6.4 TYPES OF BUREAUCRACY

6.4.1 Guardian Bureaucracy

Plato's guardians have the capacity to personify in their actions, the essence of public interest. They were considered the custodians of justice and welfare of the community. These guardians were selected on the basis of their education. Such a bureaucracy existed in China before 960 A.D. and in Russia between 640-1740 A.D. Chinese government which conducted its business based upon Confucius' teachings of righteousness is supposed to be a Platonic blue print. Duty of officials is to demonstrate exemplary life and they were selected on the basis of their scholastic achievements and trained in right conduct according to classics. These guardians were expected to develop a moral fortitude and they can exert influence upon the exercise of power subject to righteousness. The guardian bureaucracy is apt to idealise absolute practices and thus become traditionalistic and conservative, they are also

likely to become aloof from the affairs of the community and political problems of the day, They become authoritarian % unresponsive to public opinion.

6.4.2 Caste Bureaucracy

This bureaucracy is the result of class connections of those-in power. In this recruitment is made only from one class. This means persons belonging to higher classes or castes are only drawn to the civil services. For example, in ancient India, only Brahmins and Kshatriyas could become higher officials. F.M. Marx notes that the caste bureaucracy manifests in another form, i.e., linking the qualifications in the higher posts with arrangements that amount to class preferences. In England, for example, aristocratic classes were preferred to the civil service positions, Appleby commenting on the Indian Civil Service, observes that the personnel are arranged self-consciously in two firm classes and two forms and too many special services with barriers between classes and services, too high There is too much and too constant consciousness of rank, class, title and service membership, too little consciousness of membership in the public services. Higher, the intellectual resources of the bureaucracy, greater the likelihood of class or caste aspect. Social mobility will be drawn between service groups. It could even be observed that the mobility of civil servants, will not act as an antidote to caste mentality. Instead, the climber is expected to conform to the mentality of the higher group. The civil services during the early Roman Empire, Japanese Civil Services under Meiji Constitution, French Civil Services in 1950's are a few examples of the caste bureaucracy.

6.4.3 Patronage Bureaucracy

This type of bureaucracy is also called spoils system. Patronage in this is seen as a means of political control. Under this system, the proteges of the ministers or the elected functionaries are nominated to the civil service. The public jobs are distributed as personal or political favours to their supporters. In Britain, before 19th century, the system served the aristocracy to gain entry into the civil services. In United States, which is

the traditional home of patronage bureaucracy, it was considered that no one has any more right to official status than the others and that was how the patronage was distributed. But the system of patronage bureaucracy was condemned as an anachronism for its lack of competence, for its careless discipline, its concealed greediness, its irregular ways, its partisanship and for its absence of spirit of service.

6.4.4 Merit Bureaucracy

Merit bureaucracy is response to the maladies of other types of bureaucracies which we have discussed earlier. In this bureaucracy merit is the sole qualification and is governed by objective standards and stability are ensured in modern times. Merit bureaucracy puts strong emphasis on political control over the administrative system which was not the case in other forms of bureaucracy. This bureaucracy has distinguished advantage over others due to its sense of rationality in administrative behaviour;

6.5 MALADIES OF BUREAUCRACY

Indian bureaucracy has of late come under increasing criticism. It has been rated as the worst in Asia with a 9.21 rating out of 10 ~ ten being the lowest on a scale from 1 to 10 ~, according to a report advanced by the Political & Economic Risk Consultancy Ltd, Hong Kong, and released in January 2012. India fared worse than Vietnam (8.54), Indonesia (8.37), Philippines (7.57), and China (7.11). Singapore turned out to be the best with a rating of 2.25.

The report makes it clear that India's inefficient bureaucracy is largely responsible for most of the serious complaints of the corporate class. And these include poor infrastructure and corruption. Officials are willing to accept under-the-table payments and companies are tempted to pay to overcome bureaucratic inertia and gain government favours.

On 31 October last year, the Supreme Court, responding to a PIL filed by 83 retired bureaucrats led by the former Cabinet Secretary, T.S.R. Subramanian, came down heavily on the bureaucrat-politician nexus. The Bench (coram: KS Radhakrishnan and Pinaki Chandra Ghosh, JJ) directed the central and all state governments to grant bureaucrats fixed

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tenures and insulate transfers and postings from political interference. Officers must insist on written ~ rather than oral ~ orders.

The court asked Parliament to enact a Civil Services Act under Article 309 of the Constitution to provide for a Civil Services Board 'which can guide and advise the political executive on transfer, postings, disciplinary action etc.' The ruling is a mix of positives and negatives. Since bureaucracy-bashing is a favourite national pastime, the court order will hopefully improve governance and enable the bureaucracy to function better.

Certain uncomfortable questions are bound to crop up. Are we entering an era of 'government by judiciary?' Hasn't the Supreme Court stepped into the domain of the executive? Is it the business of the court to decide on the mechanism of the functioning of the government? Does it not strike at the basic feature of the Constitution ~ separation of powers? The only plausible explanation is that the weakest political executive under UPA-II has ceded its turf to the judiciary. Were the petitioners, all retired bureaucrats, true to their office and authority, when in service? Had Cabinet Secretaries and Chief Secretaries been strictly neutral, there would have been no controversies as faced by Ashok Khemka and Durga Shakti Nagpal. Indeed, politicians are calling the shots because senior bureaucrats have become wimpish. They tend to kowtow to their political masters.

Though our bureaucracy has its quota of the unscrupulous, a simple counter-question can be posed. Is their number disproportionate compared to those in other professions? The corporate sector, for instance, receives kickbacks during large-scale procurement. It even bribes the government and a section of the media ~ from paid news to fixing deals.

In order to revamp the system, it is necessary to accord recognition to the services of the upright and the apolitical. Who can forget Dr RK Raghavan of the IPS who at considerable personal risk, had protected the slain body of Rajiv Gandhi in Sriperumbudur in May 1991. KM Abraham of the IAS had once confronted Reliance, Sahara Parivar and the Bank of Rajasthan only to uphold the law and maintain the independence of an impartial regulator. Arindrajit Choudhury, IAS (West

Bengal cadre), did what he deemed right in the overall interest of rural development. He had led his team of officers from Writers' Buildings to the block level in the early Eighties to effect the sharing of powers between the rural bureaucracy and elected panchayats.

Would N Chandra been able to make TCS India's largest IT company had he reported to a Pappu Yadav and not to S Ramadorai? Nandan Nilekani would have failed to achieve what he has for Infosys had he worked under the likes of Suresh Kalmadi. Let any corporate CEO in India report to a Mayawati or Akhilesh Yadav, or Jayalalitha, or Mamata Banerjee rather than Ratan Tata or Narayana Murthi and still turn out to be successful.

Many civil servants do extraordinary work in equally extraordinary circumstances ~ during floods, drought, elections, in confronting extremists, and of course, maintaining law and order and containing fissiparous tendencies.

In a representative democracy, to quote Prof. Harold Laski, the cabinet or the political executive is 'amateur' and 'temporary', while the civil service is 'permanent', consisting of 'experts and professionals'. UPA-II has turned out to be the weakest dispensation since Independence. India direly needs an unfettered and responsive bureaucracy. The problems afflicting the bureaucracy need to be identified and addressed suitably. This will call for periodic review of performance.

Second, greater weightage is now given to subjective rather than objective factors in performance appraisal. The current system assigns 60 per cent weightage to personal attributes and functional competence (a subjective assessment) and just 40 per cent to work output (an objective assessment). A sizable segment of officers are rated 'outstanding' without having to face the appraiser. It would be a good idea to gather inputs from all concerned ~ superiors, subordinates and clients. This system of evaluation is followed by the World Bank and the government in the UK.

Third, according to Naresh Chandra, former Cabinet Secretary, Indian bureaucracy is a classic case of 'homeostasis' ~ junior and middle-level bureaucrats always look for a precedent in decision-making. They fear that bold action could lead to harassment. They want seniors to take the

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lead. “The concept of flexibility and innovation should first come at the level of senior bureaucrats who are leading the ministries and only then will it percolate down the system.’

It has been observed that while the government fares reasonably well on the policy front, implementation and delivery are below par because of the absence of team work. Lack of interdepartmental coordination hinders timely execution of projects. A lesson can be drawn from corporate governance instead of considering the problem from the narrow perspective of each department.

After the 2G spectrum scam and coal-block allocation scandal, the bureaucracy is scared of such entities as the CAG, CVC, CBI and the judiciary. “Level-jumping”, which facilitates quick disposal of files, is never encouraged. The example set by E Sridharan should inspire the bureaucracy. He had deviated from procedures and never bothered about CAG reports which deal with violation of rules.. This explains why Delhi got a world-class Metro on time and within the stipulated budget.

The technocrat-bureaucrat controversy and inter-service rivalry have led to divisiveness. Politicians take full advantage of the situation and adopt a policy of divide and rule to pursue their objectives. The evolution of a consultative mechanism headed by the DM in the district, the Chief Secretary in the state headquarters, and the Cabinet Secretary at the Centre will take care of the respective roles of the technocrat as the provider of professional inputs and the bureaucrat as the chief coordinator of governance. The protectors should not be poachers. The profile of a civil servant as penned by P Woodruff is relevant even today ~ “Who gets through his files quickly and wastes no time on looking up the rules, who writes short, decisive judgments because he is clear in his own mind where the right lies and does not seek to justify himself and who expects his subordinates to do their own work and trusts them unless he has reason not to.’

The erosion of values is responsible for the maladies of the bureaucracy. The joint family of the bureaucracy needs to be better organised both at the Centre and in the states.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Discuss the Origin of the Term Bureaucracy.

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2. Meaning of Bureaucracy.

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3. What are the types of Bureaucracy?

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6.6 LET US SUM UP

Bureaucracy (/bjʊə'roʊkrəsi/) refers to both a body of non-elected government officials and an administrative policy-making group. Historically, a bureaucracy was a government administration managed by departments staffed with non-elected officials. Today, bureaucracy is the administrative system governing any large institution, whether publicly owned or privately owned. The public administration in many countries is an example of a bureaucracy, but so is the centralized hierarchical structure of a business firm.

Various commentators have noted the necessity of bureaucracies in modern society. The German sociologist Max Weber argued that bureaucracy constitutes the most efficient and rational way in which human activity can be organized and that systematic processes and organized hierarchies are necessary to maintain order, maximize efficiency, and eliminate favoritism. On the other hand, Weber also saw unfettered bureaucracy as a threat to individual freedom, with the potential of trapping individuals in an impersonal "iron cage" of rule-based, rational control.

6.7 KEY WORDS

Bureaucracy: Bureaucracy refers to both a body of non-elected government officials and an administrative policy-making group. Historically, a bureaucracy was a government administration managed by departments staffed with non-elected officials.

6.8 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Discuss the Origin of the Term Bureaucracy.
2. Meaning of Bureaucracy.
3. What are the types of Bureaucracy?

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6.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

1. See Section 6.2
2. See Section 6.3
3. See Section 6.4

UNIT 7: ORGANIZATION OF CONCEPT FEATURES OF WEBERIAN CONSTRUCTION

STRUCTURE

- 7.0 Objectives
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Max Weber: His Life and Writings
- 7.3 Weber's Bureaucracy: The Context
- 7.4 Theory of Bureaucracy
- 7.5 Max Weber on Authority
 - 7.5.1 Components of Authority
 - 7.5.2 Categories of People in Organisation
 - 7.5.3 Types of Authority
- 7.6 Max Weber: The Concept of Bureaucracy
 - 7.6.1 Features of Legal-Rational Bureaucracy
 - 7.6.2 Features of Officials
- 7.7 Max Weber: Elements of Bureaucracy
- 7.8 Max Weber: Limits on Bureaucracy
- 7.9 Max Weber's Bureaucracy: Criticism
- 7.10 Max Weber's Bureaucracy: Relevance
- 7.11 Let us sum up
- 7.12 Key Words
- 7.13 Questions for Review
- 7.14 Suggested readings and references
- 7.15 Answers to Check Your Progress

7.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- To understand the Weber's contribution to the theory of bureaucracy;
- To explain the types of authority;
- To know the elements of bureaucracy;
- To discuss the limitation of the bureaucracy; and

- To analyse the criticism and relevance of Weberian model to the modern society.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the classical approach to administration, Weberian model of bureaucracy finds a central place. Max Weber is the first thinker who has systematically studied the bureaucracy. He has provided a theoretical framework and basis for understanding bureaucracy. Max Weber's analysis influenced many modern writers on bureaucracy. Weber, apart from bureaucracy, wrote on various aspects of the society ranging from history, religion to legitimacy and domination. Weber was founder of modern sociology and a greatest scholar among the pioneers of administrative thought. He was one of the towering thinkers of the twentieth century. The Weberian ideal type bureaucracy continues to be the dominant paradigm in the public administration.

The **three-component theory of stratification**, more widely known as **Weberian stratification** or the **three class system**, was developed by German sociologist Max Weber with class, status and power as distinct ideal types. Weber developed a multidimensional approach to social stratification that reflects the interplay among wealth, prestige and power.

Weber argued that power can take a variety of forms. A person's power can be shown in the social order through their status, in the economic order through their class, and in the political order through their party. Thus, class, status and party are each aspects of the distribution of power within a community.

Class, status and power have not only a great deal of effect within their individual areas but also a great deal of influence over the other areas.

- **Wealth:** includes property such as buildings, lands, farms, houses, factories and as well as other assets – Economic Situation
- **Prestige:** the respect with which a person or status position is regarded by others – Status Situation
- **Power:** the ability of people or groups to achieve their goals despite opposition from others – Parties

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According to Weber, there are two basic dimensions of power: the possession of power and the exercising of power.

This essay was written shortly before World War I and was published posthumously in 1922 as part of Weber's *Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft*. It was translated into English in the 1940s as "Class, Status, Party" and has been re-translated as "The distribution of power within the community: Classes, Stände, Parties"

Arguably the foremost social theorist of the twentieth century, Max Weber is known as a principal architect of modern social science along with Karl Marx and Emil Durkheim. Weber's wide-ranging contributions gave critical impetus to the birth of new academic disciplines such as sociology as well as to the significant reorientation in law, economics, political science, and religious studies. His methodological writings were instrumental in establishing the self-identity of modern social science as a distinct field of inquiry; he is still claimed as the source of inspiration by empirical positivists and their hermeneutic detractors alike. More substantively, Weber's two most celebrated contributions were the "rationalization thesis," a grand meta-historical analysis of the dominance of the west in modern times, and the "Protestant Ethic thesis," a non-Marxist genealogy of modern capitalism. Together, these two theses helped launch his reputation as one of the founding theorists of modernity. In addition, his avid interest and participation in politics led to a unique strand of political realism comparable to that of Machiavelli and Hobbes. As such, Max Weber's influence was far-reaching across the vast array of disciplinary, methodological, ideological and philosophical reflections that are still our own and increasingly more so.

Putting Weber in the context of philosophical tradition proper is not an easy task. For all the astonishing variety of identities that can be ascribed to him as a scholar, he was certainly no philosopher at least in the narrow sense of the term. His reputation as a Solonic legislator of modern social science also tends to cloud our appreciation of the extent to which his ideas were embedded in the intellectual tradition of the time. Broadly speaking, Weber's philosophical worldview, if not coherent philosophy, was informed by the deep crisis of the Enlightenment project in fin-de-

siècle Europe, which was characterized by the intellectual revolt against positivist reason, a celebration of subjective will and intuition, and a neo-Romantic longing for spiritual wholesomeness [Hughes 1977]. In other words, Weber belonged to a generation of self-claimed epigones who had to struggle with the legacies of Darwin, Marx, and Nietzsche. As such, the philosophical backdrop to his thoughts will be outlined here along two axes: epistemology and ethics.

7.2 MAX WEBER: HIS LIFE AND WRITINGS

Max Weber (1864-1920) was born in western Germany. He studied law at the University of Heidelberg. He joined University of Berlin as an instructor in law. He wrote a number of papers on law, and social, political and economic factors prevalent during that time. His major writings were, ‘The Theory of Economic and Social Organisations’, ‘General Economic History’, ‘Protestant Ethic and Spirit of Capitalism’ (1904). He studied law and economics and he became a specialist in the interpretation of religious doctrines and he was a notable biblical scholar. He had a thorough grasp of ancient Roman administration, medieval trading companies and the modern stock exchange. He became a specialist in comparative history of urban institutions. He also made a special study of social and psychological conditions of productivity in a West German textile mill. He studied methodology of social studies. Weber always preferred knowledge obtained through practical experience than library research. His writings reflect the social conditions of Germany of his time. He saw the decline of liberalism and threat to individual in the bureaucratisation of the society. Unification of Germany under Bismarck and elimination of liberal middle class movement convinced Weber that the great goal could be achieved through power policies. (Prasad. et.al. p.77).

Maximilian Carl Emil “Max” Weber (1864–1920) was born in the Prussian city of Erfurt to a family of notable heritage. His father, Max Sr., came from a Westphalian family of merchants and industrialists in the textile business and went on to become a lawyer and National Liberal parliamentarian in Wilhelmine politics. His mother, Helene, came from

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the Fallenstein and Souchay families, both of the long illustrious Huguenot line, which had for generations produced public servants and academicians. His younger brother, Alfred, was an influential political economist and sociologist, too. Evidently, Max Weber was brought up in a prosperous, cosmopolitan, and highly cultivated family milieu that was well-plugged into the political, social, and cultural establishment of the German Bürgertum [Roth 2000]. Also, his parents represented two, often conflicting, poles of identity between which their eldest son would struggle throughout his life — worldly statesmanship and ascetic scholarship.

Educated mainly at the universities of Heidelberg and Berlin, Weber was trained in law, eventually writing his *Habilitationsschrift* on Roman law and agrarian history under August Meitzen, a prominent political economist of the time. After some flirtation with legal practice and public service, he received an important research commission from the Verein für Sozialpolitik (the leading social science association under Gustav Schmoller's leadership) and produced the so-called East Elbian Report on the displacement of the German agrarian workers in East Prussia by Polish migrant labours. Greeted upon publication with high acclaim and political controversy, this early success led to his first university appointment at Freiburg in 1894 to be followed by a prestigious professorship in political economy at Heidelberg two years later. Weber and his wife Marianne, an intellectual in her own right and early women's rights activist, soon found themselves at the center of the vibrant intellectual and cultural life of Heidelberg; the so-called "Weber Circle" attracted such intellectual luminaries as Georg Jellinek, Ernst Troeltsch, and Werner Sombart and later a number of younger scholars including Marc Bloch, Robert Michels, and György Lukács. Weber was also active in public life as he continued to play an important role as a Young Turk in the Verein and maintain a close association with the liberal Evangelische-soziale Kongress (especially with the leader of its younger generation, Friedrich Naumann). It was during this time that he first established a solid reputation as a brilliant political economist and outspoken public intellectual.

All these fruitful years came to an abrupt halt in 1897 when Weber collapsed with a nervous-breakdown shortly after his father's sudden death (precipitated by a heated confrontation with Weber) [Radkau 2011, 53–69]. His routine as a teacher and scholar was interrupted so badly that he eventually withdrew from regular teaching duties in 1903, to which he would not return until 1919. Although severely compromised and unable to write as prolifically as before, he still managed to immerse himself in the study of various philosophical and religious topics, which resulted in a new direction in his scholarship as the publication of miscellaneous methodological essays as well as *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* (1904–1905) testifies. Also noteworthy about this period is his extensive visit to America in 1904, which left an indelible trace in his understanding of modernity in general [Scaff 2011].

After this stint essentially as a private scholar, he slowly resumed his participation in various academic and public activities. With Edgar Jaffé and Sombart, he took over editorial control of the *Archiv für Sozialwissenschaften und Sozialpolitik*, turning it into a leading social science journal of the day as well as his new institutional platform. In 1909, he co-founded the *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Soziologie*, in part as a result of his growing unease with the Verein's conservative politics and lack of methodological discipline, becoming its first treasurer (he would resign from it in 1912, though). This period of his life, until interrupted by the outbreak of the First World War in 1914, brought the pinnacles of his achievements as he worked intensely in two areas – the comparative sociology of world religions and his contributions to the *Grundriss der Sozialökonomik* (to be published posthumously as *Economy and Society*). Along with the major methodological essays that he drafted during this time, these works would become mainly responsible for Weber's enduring reputation as one of the founding fathers of modern social science.

With the onset of the First World War, Weber's involvement in public life took an unexpected turn. At first a fervent nationalist supporter of the war, as virtually all German intellectuals of the time were, he grew disillusioned with the German war policies, eventually refashioning himself as one of the most vocal critics of the Kaiser government in a

time of war. As a public intellectual, he issued private reports to government leaders and wrote journalistic pieces to warn against the Belgian annexation policy and the unlimited submarine warfare, which, as the war deepened, evolved into a call for overall democratization of the authoritarian state that was Wilhelmine Germany. By 1917, Weber was campaigning vigorously for a wholesale constitutional reform for post-war Germany, including the introduction of universal suffrage and the empowerment of parliament.

When defeat came in 1918, Germany found in Weber a public intellectual leader, even possibly a future statesman, with relatively solid liberal democratic credentials who was well-positioned to influence the course of post-war reconstruction. He was invited to join the draft board of the Weimar Constitution as well as the German delegation to Versailles; albeit in vain, he even ran for a parliamentary seat on the liberal Democratic Party ticket. In those capacities, however, he opposed the German Revolution (all too sensibly) and the Versailles Treaty (all too quixotically) alike, putting himself in an unsustainable position that defied the partisan alignments of the day. By all accounts, his political activities bore little fruit, except his advocacy for a robust plebiscitary presidency in the Weimar Constitution.

Frustrated with day-to-day politics, he turned to his scholarly pursuits with renewed vigour. In 1919, he briefly taught in turn at the universities of Vienna (General Economic History was an outcome of this experience) and Munich (where he gave the much-lauded lectures, *Science as a Vocation and Politics as a Vocation*), while compiling his scattered writings on religion in the form of massive three-volume *Gesammelte Aufsätze zur Religionssoziologie* [GARS hereafter]. All these reinvigorated scholarly activities ended abruptly in 1920, however, when he succumbed to the Spanish flu and died suddenly of pneumonia in Munich. Max Weber was fifty six years old.

Knowledge: Neo-Kantianism

Weber encountered the pan-European cultural crisis of his time mainly as filtered through the jargon of German Historicism [Beiser 2011]. His early training in law had exposed him to the sharp divide between the

reigning Labandian legal positivism and the historical jurisprudence championed by Otto von Gierke (one of his teachers at Berlin); in his later incarnation as a political economist, he was keenly interested in the heated “strife over methods” (Methodenstreit) between the positivist economic methodology of Carl Menger and the historical economics of Schmoller (his mentor during the early days). Arguably, however, it was not until Weber grew acquainted with the Baden or Southwestern School of Neo-Kantians, especially through Wilhelm Windelband, Emil Lask, and Heinrich Rickert (his one-time colleague at Freiburg), that he found a rich conceptual template suitable for the clearer elaboration of his own epistemological position.

In opposition to a Hegelian emanationist epistemology, briefly, Neo-Kantians shared the Kantian dichotomy between reality and concept. Not an emanent derivative of concepts as Hegel posited, reality is irrational and incomprehensible, and the concept, only an abstract construction of our mind. Nor is the concept a matter of will, intuition, and subjective consciousness as Wilhelm Dilthey posited. According to Hermann Cohen, one of the early Neo-Kantians, concept formation is fundamentally a cognitive process, which cannot but be rational as Kant held. If our cognition is logical and all reality exists within cognition, then only a reality that we can comprehend in the form of knowledge is rational — metaphysics is thereby reduced to epistemology, and Being to logic. As such, the process of concept formation both in the natural (Natur-) and the cultural-historical sciences (Geisteswissenschaften) has to be universal as well as abstract, not different in kind but in their subject matters. The latter is only different in dealing with the question of values in addition to logical relationships.

For Windelband, however, the difference between the two kinds of knowledge has to do with its aim and method as well. Cultural-historical knowledge is not concerned with a phenomenon because of what it shares with other phenomena, but rather because of its own definitive qualities. For values, which form its proper subject, are radically subjective, concrete and individualistic. Unlike the “nomothetic” knowledge that natural science seeks, what matters in historical science is not a universal law-like causality, but an understanding of the

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particular way in which an individual ascribes values to certain events and institutions or takes a position towards the general cultural values of his/her time under a unique, never-to-be-repeated constellation of historical circumstances. Therefore, cultural-historical science seeks “ideographic” knowledge; it aims to understand the particular, concrete and irrational “historical individual” with inescapably universal, abstract, and rational concepts. Turning irrational reality into rational concept, it does not simply paint (abbilden) a picture of reality but transforms (umbilden) it. Occupying the gray area between irrational reality and rational concept, then, its question became twofold for the Neo-Kantians. One is in what way we can understand the irreducibly subjective values held by the historical actors in an objective fashion, and the other, by what criteria we can select a certain historical phenomenon as opposed to another as historically significant subject matter worthy of our attention. In short, the issue was not only the values to be comprehended by the seeker of historical knowledge, but also his/her own values, which are no less subjective. Value-judgment (Werturteil) as well as value (Wert) became a keen issue.

According to Rickert’s definitive elaboration, value-judgment precedes values. He posits that the “in-dividual,” as opposed to mere “individual,” phenomenon can be isolated as a discrete subject of our historical inquiry when we ascribe certain subjective values to the singular coherence and indivisibility that are responsible for its uniqueness. In his theory of value-relation (Wertbeziehung), Rickert argues that relating historical objects to values can still retain objective validity when it is based on a series of explicitly formulated conceptual distinctions; that between the investigator’s values and those of the historical actor under investigation, between personal or private values and general cultural values of the time, and between subjective value-judgment and objective value-relations.

In so positing, however, Rickert is making two highly questionable assumptions. One is that there are certain values in every culture that are universally accepted within that culture as valid, and the other, that a historian free of bias must agree on what these values are. Just as natural science must assume “unconditionally and universally valid laws of

nature,” so, too, cultural-historical science must assume that there are “unconditionally and universally valid values.” If so, an “in-dividual” historical event has to be reduced to an “individual” manifestation of the objective process of history, a conclusion that essentially implies that Rickert returned to the German Idealist faith in the meaningfulness of history and the objective validity of the diverse values to be found in history. An empirical study in historical science, in the end, cannot do without a metaphysics of history. Bridging irrational reality and rational concept in historical science, or overcoming hiatus irrationalis (à la Lask) without recourse to a metaphysics of history still remained a problem as acutely as before. While accepting the broadly neo-Kantian conceptual template as Rickert elaborated it, Weber’s methodological writings would turn mostly on this issue.

Ethics: Kant and Nietzsche

German Idealism seems to have exerted another enduring influence on Weber, discernible in his ethical worldview more than in his epistemological position. This was the strand of Idealist discourse in which a broadly Kantian ethic and its Nietzschean critique figure prominently.

The way in which Weber understood Kant seems to have come through the conceptual template set by moral psychology and philosophical anthropology. In conscious opposition to the utilitarian-naturalistic justification of modern individualism, Kant viewed moral action as simultaneously principled and self-disciplined and expressive of genuine freedom and autonomy. On this Kantian view, freedom and autonomy are to be found in the instrumental control of the self and the world (objectification) according to a law formulated solely from within (subjectification). Furthermore, such a paradoxical compound is made possible by an internalization or willful acceptance of a transcendental rational principle, which saves it from falling prey to the hedonistic subjectification that Kant found in Enlightenment naturalism and which he so detested. Kant in this regard follows Rousseau in condemning utilitarianism; instrumental-rational control of the world in the service of our desires and needs just degenerates into organized egoism. In order to

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prevent it, mere freedom of choice based on elective will (*Willkür*) has to be replaced by the exercise of purely rational will (*Wille*). Instrumental transformation of the self is thus the crucial benchmark of autonomous moral agency for Kant as well as for Locke, but its basis has been fundamentally altered in Kant; it should be done with the purpose of serving a higher end, that is, the universal law of reason. A willful self-transformation is demanded now in the service of a higher law based on reason, or an “ultimate value” in Weber’s parlance.

Weber’s understanding of this Kantian ethical template was strongly tinged by the Protestant theological debate taking place in the Germany of his time between (orthodox Lutheran) Albrecht Ritschl and Matthias Schneckenburger (of Calvinist persuasion), a context with which Weber became acquainted through his Heidelberg colleague, Troeltsch. Suffice it to note in this connection that Weber’s sharp critique of Ritschl’s Lutheran communitarianism seems reflective of his broadly Kantian preoccupation with radically subjective individualism and the methodical transformation of the self [Graf 1995].

All in all, one might say that: “the preoccupations of Kant and of Weber are really the same. One was a philosopher and the other a sociologist, but there... the difference ends” [Gellner 1974, 184]. That which also ends, however, is Weber’s subscription to a Kantian ethic of duty when it comes to the possibility of a universal law of reason. Weber was keenly aware of the fact that the Kantian linkage between growing self-consciousness, the possibility of universal law, and principled and thus free action had been irrevocably severed. Kant managed to preserve the precarious duo of non-arbitrary action and subjective freedom by asserting such a linkage, which Weber believed to be unsustainable in his allegedly Nietzschean age.

According to Nietzsche, “will to truth” cannot be content with the metaphysical construction of a grand metanarrative, whether it be monotheistic religion or modern science, and growing self-consciousness, or “intellectualization” à la Weber, can lead only to a radical skepticism, value relativism, or, even worse, nihilism. According to such a Historicist diagnosis of modernity that culminates in the “death of God,” the alternative seems to be either a radical self-assertion and

self-creation that runs the risk of being arbitrary (as in Nietzsche) or a complete desertion of the modern ideal of self-autonomous freedom (as in early Foucault). If the first approach leads to a radical divinization of humanity, one possible extension of modern humanism, the second leads inexorably to a “dedivinization” of humanity, a postmodern antihumanism [Vattimo 1988, 31–47].

Seen in this light, Weber’s ethical sensibility is built on a firm rejection of a Nietzschean divination and Foucaultian resignation alike, both of which are radically at odds with a Kantian ethic of duty. In other words, Weber’s ethical project can be described as a search for a non-arbitrary form of freedom (his Kantian side) in what he perceived as an increasingly post-metaphysical world (his Nietzschean side). According to Paul Honigsheim, his pupil and distant cousin, Weber’s ethic is that of “tragedy” and “nevertheless” [Honigsheim 2003, 113]. This deep tension between 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.

7.3 WEBER’S BUREAUCRACY: THE CONTEXT

Scientific management and theory of bureaucracy mark the first major developments in the theory of organisation. These theories were responding to the needs of industrial organisations. Theory of bureaucracy was needed to bring the efficiency in its functioning. As stated by Weber ‘no special proof is necessary to show that military discipline is ideal model for the modern capitalist factory. (Clegg and Dunkerley, p.75). The example of most developed form of organisation, bureaucracy, the theory of which Weber found, is developed from the Prussian military forces, and which enterprises such as the British Railway Companies actually found in the ranks of the British Army, was to become the specific form of management of big business. Weber felt that emergence of modern bureaucratic organisation is ‘demanded’, he further says ‘a peculiarity of modern culture’, and specific of its technical and economic basis, demands the very ‘calculability of results’ (Clegg and Dunkerley, p.81). More specifically ‘today it is primarily the

capitalist market economy which demands the official business of the administration be discharged precisely, unambiguously, continuously, and with as much speed as possible' (Clegg and Dunkerley, p.80.) Bureaucratisation offers above all, optimum possibility for carrying through the principle of specialising administration functioning according to purely objective considerations. (Clegg and Dunkerley, p.80). Above lines show that the Weber's theory of bureaucracy was a response to the demands of industrial capitalist economy, which required an efficient administration. While Taylor attempted to rationalise functions of modern factory, Weber made an attempt at the rationalisation of bureaucratic structures. Both of them emphasised on control and discipline in the working of organisations.

7.4 THEORY OF BUREAUCRACY

Bureaucracy was discussed prior to Weber's writings. The invention of word bureaucracy belongs to Vincent de Gourney, a French economist in 1745. He took the conventional term 'bureau' meaning writing-table and office, and added to it the word derived from the Greek suffix for the 'rule', in order to signify bureaucracy as the rule of officials. It rapidly became a standard and accepted term in the conventions of political discourse. (Clegg and Dunkerley, p.75). By the end of 19th century the term was widely held to have been of German origin. J.S. Mill, an eminent political scientist included bureaucracy in his series of analysis. Karl Marx also discussed about bureaucracy at certain places. According to Marx, bureaucracy like a state itself is an instrument by which the dominant class exercise its domination over the other social classes. (Mohit Bhattacharya, p.52). Hegel conceived the governing bureaucracy of public administration as a bridge between the state and the civil society. Bureaucracy as an institution existed in China even in the period of 186 B.C, public offices were in existence and persons for those offices were recruited through competitive examinations even then. (Prasad et. al. p.79). The above discussion shows that there existed a bureaucracy much earlier to Weberian writings and also there were attempts to understand the bureaucracy by different writings. But the Weber is

considered to be the first person to attempt at the systematic understanding of the bureaucracy.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Discuss the Max Weber: His Life and Writings.

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2. Describe Weber’s Bureaucracy: The Context.

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3. Discuss the Theory of Bureaucracy.

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7.5 MAX WEBER ON AUTHORITY

Max Weber’s concept of bureaucracy is closely related to his ideas on legitimacy of authority. He worked on theories of domination, leadership and legitimacy of authority. Weber differentiated authority, power and control. To him, a person could be said to poses power, if in a social relationship, his will could be enforced despite resistance. Such exercise of power becomes controlled. Authority manifests when a command of definite content elicits obedience on the part of specific individuals. For Weber, ‘authority’ was identical with ‘authoritarian power of command’ (Prasad, et.al.p.77). Authority is state of reality where a person willingly complies with legitimate commands or orders because he considers that a person by virtue of his position could issue orders to him. Unlike in ‘power’ there is willing obedience on the part of clientele to legitimise authority.

7.5.1 Components of Authority

Weber identified five essential components of authority. They are:

- (1) an individual or a body of individuals who rule,
- (2) an individual or a body of individuals who are ruled,
- (3) the will of the rulers to influence conduct of the ruled,
- (4) evidence of the influence of the rulers in terms of the objective degree of command, and
- (5) direct or indirect evidence of that influence in terms of subjective acceptance with which the ruled obey the command.

7.5.2 Categories of People in Organisation

The authority exists as long as it is accepted as legitimate by the ruled. Thus, an administrator or organisation can rule only when it has legitimacy. While explaining authority in various organisations, Weber concluded “all administration means dominance” (Prasad. et. al. p. 77). Weber categorised persons in the organisations in to four types: (1) those who are accustomed to obey commands, (2) those who are personally interested in seeing the existing domination continue, (3) those who participate in that domination, and (4) those who hold themselves in readiness for the exercise of functions.

7.5.3 Types of Authority

Since Weber believed that authority could be exercised as long as it is legitimate he divided the authority in to three types based on sources of legitimacy for each authority. Weber classified authority in to three ‘pure’ or ‘ideal’ types based on its claim to legitimacy. They are:

- (1) Traditional authority,

(2) charismatic authority and

(3) legal-rational authority.

Traditional Authority

It rests on “an established belief in the sanctity of immemorial traditions and the legitimacy of the status of those exercising authority under them”. (Bertram Gross, p.137). In this kind of authority a command is obeyed because of the belief in age-old customs, traditions, conventions and beliefs. Those who exercised authority do so under the rules that have always existed, but may also exercise personal prerogative. This is a pure type of feudal, patrimonial regime under which the organisation consists of household officials, relatives, and loyalists. Under this type, obedience is given not to the rules but to the rulers, not to the superiors, but to the chiefs. New rules are not enacted, they are “found”. The only documents in the administration of law are the “documents of tradition, namely precedents”. Resistance, when it occurs is directed against the person of chief or a member of his staff. The accusation is that he has failed to observe traditional limits of his authority (quoted from Weber by Bertram Gross, p.138). Under the traditional authority a person enjoys authority by virtue of their inherited status. The persons who obey orders are called ‘followers’. They carry out the commands out of personal loyalty to the ruler and pious regard for his time honoured ‘status’. The system retains legitimacy as long as the customs and traditions are respected in the organisation.

Charismatic Authority

It “rests on devotion to the specific and exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character of an individual person and of the normative patterns or order revealed or ordained by him” (D.S. Pugh, p.15). The term charisma (gift of grace) is taken from the vocabulary of early Christianity. Here it is applied to supernatural, super human or extraordinary qualities of a leader. Among the holders of charisma are the sorcerer, the prophet or the warrior chieftain or the personal head of a party and demagogue. (Bertram Gross, p.138). In this type of

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authority obedience was justified because the person giving order had some sacred or out standing character. The leader exercises authority based on his personal qualities rather than formal stipulations or prescribed norms. Those subject to the authority are “followers” of the leader, not “subject”. The only basis of legitimacy is personal charisma. He can exercise his authority, so long as it is proved, that is so long as it receives recognition and is able to satisfy the followers. Under this authority the leader selects his disciples or followers as his officials based on their personal devotion to him rather than their special qualifications or status. These ‘disciple officials’ constitute an organisation and their sphere of activity and power of command depends upon likes and dislikes of the leader. (Prasad. et. al. p.79).

Legal-Rational Authority

It rests on “a belief in the legality of patterns of normative rules and the right of those elevated to authority under such rules to issue commands. Obedience is owed to the legally established impersonal order. It extends to the persons exercising the authority of office only by virtue of the formal legality of their commands, and only with in the scope of the authority of the office”. (Bertram Gross, p.139). Manifestations of legal authority are found in organisations where rules are applied judicially and in accordance with ascertainable principles valid for all members in the organisation. The members who exercise power under this authority are the superiors and are appointed or elected by legal procedures to maintain the legal orders. The organisation is a continuous process and all its members are subject to certain rules. Weber considers the legal authority as the most rational form of authority. Obedience to the authority depends upon certain related believes. They are: (1) that a legal code can be established which can claim obedience from members of the organisation; (2) that, the law is a system of abstract rules, these rules are applied to particular cases, and the administration looks after the interest of the organisation with in the limits of the law; (3) that the man exercising authority also obeys this impersonal order; (4) that only ‘qua’ member does the member obey the law; and (5) that obedience is done not to the person who holds the authority but to the impersonal order

which has granted him this position. (Martin Albrow, p.43). Of all the three types of authority Weber considers the legal authority, not only the most rational authority, but also the most efficient form of authority. He considers bureaucracy as legal-rational type of authority.

7.6 MAX WEBER: THE CONCEPT OF BUREAUCRACY

Weber never defined bureaucracy. He only described it as “an administrative body of appointed officials”. (Prasad. et. al. p.80). He also described its characteristics. Bureaucracy includes explicitly appointed officials only leaving out the elected ones. Weber wrote a great deal about the place of the official in a modern society. For him, it has an increasingly important type of social role. As in the case of authority, Weber categorised bureaucracy in to

(1) Patrimonial bureaucracy found in traditional and charismatic authorities and

(2) legal-rational bureaucracy found only in the legal type of authority. Weber identified certain features of legal-rational bureaucracy

7.6.1 Features of Legal-Rational Bureaucracy

The model of legal-rational bureaucracy described by Weber has the following features:

(1) Official business is conducted on a continuous, regulated basis,

(2) An administrative agency functions in accordance with stipulated rules and is characterised by three interrelated attributes;

(a) the powers and functions of each official is defined in terms of impersonal criteria, (b) the official is given matching authority to carry out his responsibility and (c) the means of compulsion at his disposal are strictly limited and the conditions under which their employment is legitimate are clearly defined,

(3) Every official and every office is part of the hierarchy of authority. Higher officials or offices perform supervision and the lower officers and officials have the right to appeal,

(4) Officials do not own the resources necessary for rendering the duties, but they are accountable for use of official resources. Official business and private affairs, official revenue and private income are strictly separated,

(5) Offices can not be appropriated by the incumbents as private property, and

(6) Administration is conducted on the basis of written documents. (Prasad. et. al. p.81)

7.6.2 Features of Officials

Weber also discussed in detail, as a part of his model of bureaucracy, the features of officials. They are:

(1) the staff members are personally free, observing only the impersonal duties of their offices,

(2) they are appointed to an official position on the basis of the contract,

(3) an official exercises authority delegated to him in accordance with impersonal rules, and his loyalty is expressed through faithful execution of his official duties,

(4) his appointment and job placements depend upon his professional qualifications,

(5) his administrative work is full time occupation,

(6) his work is rewarded by regular salary and by prospects of career advancement,

(7) there is a clear cut hierarchy of officials, and

(8) he is subjected to a unified control and disciplinary system.

7.7 MAX WEBER: ELEMENTS OF BUREAUCRACY

When we closely observe the above-mentioned features of bureaucracy we can identify certain important elements of Weberian model of bureaucracy.

They are:

1. Impersonal Order
2. Rules
3. Sphere of Competence
4. Hierarchy
5. Separation of Personal and Public Ends
6. Written Documents
7. Monocratic Type

Impersonal Order

Weber emphasised that the official should perform their duties in an impersonal manner. The subordinates should follow both in the issuance of command and their obedience impersonal order. According to Merton, “authority, the power of control which derives from an acknowledged status, inheres in the office, not in the particular person who performs the official role”. (Prasad. et. al. p.82). It talks about the de-personalization of relationship in the organizations.

Rules

Rules are the basis for the functioning of the legal-rational authority. Officials are bound by the rules. The rules regulate the conduct of an office. Their rational application requires specialised training. In this regard Merton felt that adherence to rules originally conceived as a means, becomes an end in itself. Rules become more important than the goals of the organisation.

Sphere of Competence

It involves a sphere of obligation to perform functions, which have been marked off as a part of a systematic division of labour. It also implies provision of the incumbent with the necessary authority to carry out the functions.

Hierarchy

According to Weber every office and every official is a part of a hierarchy. Under this system the lower office functions under the control of higher office. He attaches greater importance to the principle of hierarchy in the organisation of office.

Separation of Personal and Public Ends

Weber pleads for separation of officials from their ownership of the means of administration. Officials cannot use his office position for personal ends. The office property is separated from personal property; at the same time the official is accountable for the use of office property.

Written Documents

Written documents are the heart of Weberian bureaucracy. All administrative acts, decisions and rules are recorded in writing. These documents make the administration accountable to the people and provide a ready reference for future action.

Monocratic Type

It means certain functions performed by bureaucracy cannot be performed by any other organisation. They monopolise certain functions and only the authorised official can perform that function, makes them monocratic in nature. 10 For all types of authority, Weber wrote “the fact of the existence and continuing functioning of an administrative staff is vital. It is indeed, the existence of such activity which is usually meant by the term organisation”. (Bertram Gross, p.139). Weber considered pure or monocratic bureaucracy is the most rational form of administrative staff. He further felt that “it is superior to any other form in precision, in stability, in the stringency of discipline and in its reliability. It thus, makes possible a particularly high degree of calculability of results for the heads of organisations and for those acting in relation to it. It is finally superior both in intensive efficiency and in the scope of its operations, and is formally capable of applications to all kinds of administrative tasks”. (Bertram Gross, p.139). For bureaucratic administration is, other things being equal, always, from a formal technical point of view, the most rational type. According to Weber “for the needs of mass administration today, it is (bureaucracy) completely indispensable. The choice is only that between bureaucracy and dilettantism in the field of administration”. (Bertram Gross, p.140). Thus Weber believed that rational bureaucracy is technically superior and capable of attaining high degree of efficiency.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Discuss the Max Weber on Authority.

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2. Discuss the Max Weber: The Concept of Bureaucracy.

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3. Discuss Max Weber: Elements of Bureaucracy.

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7.8 MAX WEBER: LIMITS ON BUREAUCRACY

Weber while emphasising on the necessity of bureaucracy was aware of the fact that, the bureaucracy has inherent tendency of accumulation of power. The sources of this power could be seen in the special knowledge, which the official poses. In the course of his duties he acquired a great deal of concrete information much of it artificially restricted by ideas of confidentiality and secrecy. Nevertheless he was convinced that bureaucratisation was inevitable and that bureaucrats gained power. Weber resisted any identification of bureaucracy with rule by officials. In order to prevent the bureaucracy from acquiring powers Weber suggested certain mechanism for limiting the scope of systems of authority in general and bureaucracy in particular. These mechanisms fall in to five major categories. The categories are:

- (1) collegiality,
- (2) separation of powers,
- (3) amateur of administration,
- (4) direct democracy, and
- (5) representation. (Martin Albrow, pp.47-49).

They are explained below:

Collegiality

In a monocratic bureaucracy, Weber meant that at each stage of the official hierarchy one person and one person only, had the responsibility for taking a decision. This makes the bureaucracy more powerful. To prevent this Weber suggested the principle of collegiality involving others in the decision making process. Weber considered that collegiality would always have an important role to play in limiting bureaucracy. But it has disadvantages in terms of speed of decision and attribution of responsibility.

Separation of Powers

Separation of powers meant dividing responsibility and functions between two or more bodies. For any decision to emerge a compromise between them had to be reached. This will avoid monopoly of decision by a single body or person. Weber regarded such a system as inherently unstable. One of the authorities was bound to have edge over the other.

Amateur Administration

Since there is possibility of professional administration become powerful, Weber suggested the involvement of amateur administration in certain activities. Such men have sufficient public esteem to command and general confidence. But this system could not measure up to the demands for expertise which modern society made, and where the professionals assisted amateur it is always the professional who dominated the scene.

Direct Democracy

To limit the power of bureaucracy Weber suggested direct democracy, where the officials were guided by and answerable to an assembly. Short term of office, permanent possibility of recall was designed to serve the purpose of direct democracy. But this system is possible only in small organisations and in local governments.

Representation

Another method of limiting bureaucracy is sharing of authority of bureaucracy with the elected representatives of the people. With this method it is possible to control the power of the bureaucracy. But here, there is a possibility of representatives being bureaucratized. However Weber thought that through this medium there was a greater possibility of check on bureaucracy. Through all the above means Weber wanted to limit the powers of the bureaucracy.

7.9 MAX WEBER'S BUREAUCRACY: CRITICISM

The Weberian bureaucracy has attracted criticism from several corners. The criticism however revolves around the Weberian model, its rationality concept, administrative efficiency, formalism and the relevance of bureaucracy to the changing circumstances. Some of the very advantages of the bureaucracy claimed by Weber were turned against his own model. Robert Merton and other sociologists have questioned the rationality of Weber's model saying that it results in certain dysfunctional consequences. Merton says that the structure of the bureaucracy especially its hierarchy and rules can easily result in consequences which are detrimental to the attainment of objectives of an organisation. Merton emphasises that the bureaucracy means inefficiency. Phillip Selznick, pointing to the division of functions in an organisation shows how sub-units setup goals of their own sometimes conflicting with the organisation as a whole. Both Merton and Selznick have shown that the structure of formal organisations described by Weber is insufficient as a description of how bureaucrats behave clearly brought out this limitation of Weber's bureaucracy. Talcott Parsons questioned the internal consistency of Weber's bureaucracy. Weber expected the administrative staff to be technically superior as well as poses the right to give orders. Parsons thinks that, this itself is not always possible to ensure that the higher-level authority will be matched by equivalent professional skills.

Alvin Gouldner and others have raised the problem of compliance with the rules by members of an organisation not so much because of informal processes arising within an administrative structure but to conditions

outside the organisation which orient the behaviour of the member's vis-à-vis the rules. This criticism highlights the influence of environmental factors on the behaviour of the officials, which was neglected by Weberian model. Bendix, the biographer of Weber argued against the belief that it is possible to adhere to a rule without the influence of the general social and political values. Rudolf questioned the very conception of Weber's model that administration was a rational machine and officials were mere technical functionaries. Critics like Peter Blau questioned applicability of Weberian model to different places and times. Efficient administration is possible only when an individual is allowed to identify with the purpose of the organisation and to adopt his behaviour to the changing circumstances. Weber's bureaucracy and its assumptions about the human behaviour may not be valid in non-western environment. Joseph La Palombara believed that the developing societies may find Russian or Chinese model of administration more effective than Weberian model. Some scholars like H.C.Creel questioned the very idea that rational bureaucracy is a modern phenomenon. He pointed that almost all characteristics of Weberian model existed in China by 200 B.C. Simon and Barnard have proved that administrative efficiency would be reduced if we follow Weber's structural approach.

It is possible to increase the efficiency in the organisations through informal relations than formal practices. Critics questioned Weber's claim of internal consistency of bureaucracy and its ability to attain maximum efficiency. Gouldner who tested Weber's ideal type empirically found that it has internal contradictions such as tensions between the claims of expertise and claims of obedience based on discipline. Simon and March who have included Weber in the classical thinkers like Gulick and Urwick felt that he too neglected the human behaviour in an organisation. Maximum efficiency in the organisation cannot be achieved by emphasising on mere structure of bureaucracy without regard to its behaviour. Weber was criticised for his neglect of power that a bureaucrat assumes. Phillip Selznick and others felt that a bureaucrat is increasingly pre-occupied with his own social position neglecting the very goals of the organisation. Weber's model is also not relevant in the context of development administration. Strict adherence to

rules results in delay and inefficiency in the administration. Adherence to hierarchy leads to authoritarianism in the organisation. Weber's insistence on records results in too much of formalism in the administration.

7.10 MAX WEBER'S BUREAUCRACY: RELEVANCE

In spite of criticism from the several scholars, the ideas of Weber on bureaucracy continue to be relevant to understand the present administrative system. So far we have not been able to evolve an alternative model to Weber's bureaucracy. Weber is right in saying that when we are accustomed to the bureaucracy we cannot think of any other alternative. It is highly useful for managing large-scale organisations. His ideas on selection of officials based on qualifications, utility of written documents in administration, hierarchy etc., can be seen in any administration of the present day. The monocratic bureaucracy proposed by Weber is superior to all other forms of organisations in achieving the prescribed objectives. To overcome some of the problems of the bureaucracy, we can only bring reforms in it, but cannot replace it with any other organisation. Whether it is capitalist society or a socialist society, irrespective of the nature of economy, we find the bureaucracy playing a very important role. The people who talk about the debureaucratisation of the society have not been able to find a viable alternative to the bureaucracy. Even in the present context of liberalisation and privatisation, which emphasises on a minimalist state, cannot escape the necessity of bureaucracy to perform some of the functions of the state. We cannot think of the implementation of all the welfare and developmental programmes without the help of bureaucracy. The voluntary organisations and other forms of people's organisations can only supplement the bureaucracy, but they cannot substitute the bureaucracy. In the context of developing countries, people look to the bureaucracy for their day-to-day requirements. Hence, the bureaucracy of Weberian type continues to find its relevance even today.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of the unit

1. Discuss Max Weber: Limits on Bureaucracy.

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2. Discuss Max Weber’s Bureaucracy: Criticism.

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3. Discuss Max Weber’s Bureaucracy: Relevance.

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7.11 LET US SUM UP

Weber can be considered as one of the eminent thinkers of twentieth century. Though he has written extensively on various subjects, his contribution to the theory of bureaucracy is highly valued. Today we can see it in practice in all the societies of the world. Weber being proved correct when he said that the societies once governed by the bureaucracy can never get rid of it. His ideas on authority, rationality of bureaucracy continues to be relevant for the present day society. Most of the time, those who criticize the Weberian model are not actually criticizing Weber, but the present day bureaucracy, which reflect the changes that are taking place in the contemporary period. Bureaucracy might need certain reforms to make it more relevant to the society.

7.12 KEY WORDS

Amateur Administration: It emphasises on involving non-professionals and interested individuals in the activities of the administration.

Collegiality: Instead of one individual, a group of persons are involved in the decision making process.

Impersonality: It is one of the features of Weberian bureaucracy. Here rules are objectively followed irrespective of the person.

7.13 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What do you understand about the Max Weber's concept of bureaucracy? Explain.
2. Do you think that the major elements of Weber's bureaucracy are basically meant for bureaucratic efficiency? Discuss.
3. Do you notice the existence of three types of authorities in present day Indian society? Please explain based on your experience.
4. Discuss the Max Weber: His Life and Writings
5. Describe Weber's Bureaucracy: The Context
6. Discuss the Theory of Bureaucracy
7. Discuss the Max Weber on Authority
8. Discuss the Max Weber: The Concept of Bureaucracy
9. Discuss Max Weber: Elements of Bureaucracy
10. Discuss Max Weber: Limits on Bureaucracy
11. Discuss Max Weber's Bureaucracy: Criticism
12. Discuss Max Weber's Bureaucracy: Relevance

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7.15 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

1. See Section 7.2
2. See Section 7.3
3. See Section 7.4

Check Your Progress 2

1. See Section 7.5
2. See Section 7.6
3. See Section 7.7

Check Your Progress 3

1. See Section 7.8
2. See Section 7.9
3. See Section 7.10