

**M. A 1st Sem
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Administrative Thinkers

Unit 1-20

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UNIT-1

KAUTILYA

Structure

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1.1 Introduction:

Kautilya, also known as Chanakya, was a renowned ancient Indian philosopher and political strategist. He is most famous for authoring the *Arthashastra*, a treatise on statecraft, economic policy, and military strategy. Kautilya's real name was Vishnu Gupta, but he is often referred to as "Kautilya" because he belonged to the Kautala clan, or "gotra." The name "Chanakya" is believed to have originated either from his place of birth, the town of Canaka, or because he was the son of a man named Chanak, though the true origin of the name is debated.

There is little reliable historical information about Kautilya, and much of what is known about him is shrouded in legend. The Greek ambassador Megasthenes, who visited India around the 4th century BCE, noted Kautilya's reputation for unmatched statecraft, but his records only survive in fragmented forms. Ancient Indian texts describe Kautilya as a native of Takshashila (modern-day Peshawar, Pakistan), who traveled to Pataliputra (modern-day Patna) in search of recognition and to offer his political wisdom to the Nanda dynasty.

Scholars like John Garrett suggest that Kautilya was a Brahmin from Takshashila, living around 330 BCE, and Radha Krishna Chaudhary emphasized his pivotal role in Indian political thought. Kautilya's contribution to knowledge and political philosophy is unparalleled, with his insights into governance, strategy, and ethics still widely studied today. He is regarded as a brilliant intellectual and political thinker, whose foresight and wisdom left a lasting mark on history.

Due to his influence, Kautilya's life and legacy have been surrounded by mystery and reverence. Some texts, like the *Vishnu Purana* and *Bhagavata Purana*, predict that a Brahmin would overthrow the Nanda dynasty and establish Chandragupta Maurya as king. These prophecies, along with references in the *Arthashastra*, suggest that Kautilya played a crucial role in the downfall of the Nandas and the rise of the Maurya Empire, often described in works like the drama *Mudrarakshasa*. In the *Arthashastra*, Kautilya himself mentions his role in freeing India from the Nanda rulers, further cementing his legacy as a key figure in the establishment of the Maurya dynasty.

The two major sources of the evidence showing that Kautilya was the author of Arthashastra are

1. The Nitisara of Kamandaka and

2. The Dasakumara Charita of Dandi both of which accept the genuineness of the Arthashastra as the production of Chanakya.

1.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able

- To know about the Kautilya and their famous Arthashastra.
- To analyze the duties of king recommended by Kautilya.
- To understand important administrative bodies as suggested and practiced by Kautilya.
- To elucidate Revenue Administration, police Administration and municipal administration on the basis of Kautilya Arthashastra.

1.3 Arthashastra (Age and Authenticity)

The Arthashastra is a unique record of the secular and particular activities and achievements of the Hindu genius as distinguished from the intellectual and spiritual Arthashastra of Kautilya is the work of Chanakya. The Minister of Chandra Gupta and therefore belongs to the fourth century B.C.

Kamandaka at the beginning of his Nitisara says.

“Salutation unto the learned Vishnu Gupta who raised the ambrosia of political science out of the vast ocean of the Arthashastra.”

Kamandaka in his book Nitisara had abridge all but the second, third, fourth and fourteenth books (entire portions) of the Arthasastru. Thus the work of Kamandaka supplies very good evidence to show that the work of Kautilya was a reality.

In Dasakumara Charita of Dandi (in somadatta-upattikatha). there is reference to both Kautilya and Kanutndaka as authorities on Nitisara. In eight UNIT of Part II occurs the following remarkable reference to Kautilya. “The science of Dandaniti (politics has been of late abridged into 6000 slokaks by Acharya Vishnu Gupta for the benefit of the Maurayas.”

The borrowings of Dandi from the Arthasastra are a further proof that the work had an actual Existence and that it was the production of Chankya. Among other Sanskrit Works which also allude to the Kautilya Arthasastra may be mentioned the Nandisutra of the Jainas, the Panchatantra and the Nitivakyarnriia of Somdeva.

Professor Radha Kumud Mookerji continues to say that Arthasastra was the product of an individual rather than a school. In a quite convincing manner the learned German Orientalist Professor Jacobi had successfully contradicted Hillebrandt’s view that Kautilya was not himself the sole author of Arthasastra

Hillebrandt bases his argument on the inference that the expressions. Its Kautilyah” and “Neti Kauilayah” occurring on less than seventy- two times in the text show that it is not the work of an individual named Kautilya but of a school. The fact, says Jacobi is that the book began the school and not the school the book. Similarly a careful consideration of the style of the work would also indicate its individual authorship.

Again, there is striking correspondence between parts and passages of, the arthasastra and the accounts of India traced to Megasthenes relating to the period of Chandra Gupta. A close study of both will show that the Book of Arthasastra entitled. “Adhyaksa Prachar” gives a full view of Indian administration of which only partial view can be obtained from the observations of Megasthenes (Fig xxxiv).

Professor Radha Kumud Mookerji, thus refuted all the flimsy doubts raised by Hillebrandt with regard to authorship of Arthasastra.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on Arthashastra.

1.4 Public Administration in Arthashastra:

Kautilya, in his writings, places the king at the core of the state's structure, emphasizing his central role in governance. According to Kautilya, the king is not just a ruler, but a public figure whose life is dedicated entirely to the service of the state. He believed that monarchy was an essential component for the formation of a stable state and that the king must always put the well-being of the state above personal desires.

A key aspect of Kautilya's philosophy was the importance of self-discipline. He argued that a king should live a life of self-restraint, avoiding indulgence in pleasures that could harm the moral foundation of the state, which is guided by *Dharma* (moral law) and *Artha* (prosperity). For Kautilya, a king must be vigilant and energetic, for any stagnation in his leadership could corrupt the entire system, making it ineffective and harmful. He emphasized that the king should always be aligned with *Dharma*, as it ensures the stability and proper functioning of society. The king's duty was not only to maintain order but also to exercise his power justly and wisely, ensuring fairness and equity for his people.

Kautilya was a firm believer in the strong royal authority. He introduced a benevolent, paternalistic despotism—where the king's role is to care for and protect his subjects while maintaining control over the state. This idea represented a higher form of idealism in political philosophy, though it also signaled a departure from popular sovereignty, concentrating power in the hands of the monarch. In Kautilya's vision, the king was the central figure in the administration, holding all the power and delegating responsibilities to trusted agents who carried out the day-to-day affairs of governance.

Kautilya wrote, "The religious vow of a king is readiness to act; the satisfactory discharge of his duties is his sacrifice; equal attention to all is his offering, and his efforts should always aim at the conservation of the state." This reflects the king's responsibility to be both a guardian and a protector, ensuring the prosperity and stability of the state through his actions and decisions.

Self-Check Exercise-2

Q.1 What is Kautilya's view on Public Administration?

1.5 Duties of King :

The following duties were enumerated by Kautilya of a king:

1. Executive duties.
2. Judicial and Legislative Duties.
3. Administrative Duties.
4. Revenue Duties.
5. Military Duties.

Kautilya regarded king as the servant of the people. Kautilya did not mention “right of the people against the king”. Kautilya stood for moderation rather than asceticism Kautilya calls king the creation of epochs”. ‘

The king of Kautilya was not an absolute monarch. There were restraints on royal authority. These restraints were moral rather than constitutional and political. “The subservience of king to Dharma and customary practice and usages.

The scheme of administration as envisaged by Kautilya, is wide and extensive. In his scheme, king is the central figure. He was the source of all authority and everything was conducted in his name. Since the personal administration of a vast empire was beyond the capacity of one man, Kautilya prescribed a well-regulated machinery and a vast organized bureaucracy based on a hierarchy of agents of different grades. Kautilya suggested the lines on which a system with increasing requirements was to be built up. The important administrative bodies as suggested and practised by Kautilya were as follows;

1. The Central Executive Machinery
2. The Consultative Body the Mantri-Parishad and the Secretariat
3. The Bureaucracy and the Departments of Central Government.
4. Provincial and the Local Government,

Self-Check Exercise-3

Q.1 What are the duties of a king according to Kautilya?

1.6 The Central Executive Machinery

It consisted of the king, his trusted advisers and the departmental heads having their offices in the capital. The recognition of the eighteen Tirthas exhaust roughly the whole sphere of work of a

state. The chief officials included one or more mantrins, the Purohitas, the Senapati or the Commander-in-chief, Yuvajara or Heir Apparent the Dauvarika, the Antaravanisika the Prassasti, the Samaharta the Sannidhata, the Pradesta, the Nayaka, the Paura, the Vlyavaharika, the Karnantika^ Mantri-Parishadhyaksha other Mhyakshas the Dandapalas, the Sutapalas and Atavikas.

Self-Check Exercise-4

Q.1 Write a short note on central executive machinery.

1.7 The Mantri-Parishad (The Consultative Body):

It is physically impossible even for a highly accomplished sovereign to assume all the duties of the government and hence, he must, therefore, rely on his ministers. It is humanly impossible for a single individual, however strong and intelligent, to regulate and guide the entire social organisation on proper lines and hence the necessity and desirability of having co-adjutors or Mantrins to subserve royalty.

Appointment of Ministers:

The appointment of Mantrins is king's voluntary business and thus a matter of pure discretion and expediency. The king by doing so i.e. by appointing ministers, does not delegate authority, he rather divides work i.e. it is the application of the famous principle of 'Division of Work' of Public Administration.

Self-Check Exercise-5

Q.1 Write a short note on Mantri Parishad given by Kautilya.

1.8 Revenue Administration:

Revenue administration the administration concerning land, land measurement and land produce in India is as old as Vedas. In Vedic India king needed to be assisted in administration work by Sabha and Samiti. The king used to derive his revenue from contributions of his subjects known as Bali, at first voluntary but afterwards developed into a compulsory payment. Another source of revenue for a king was "tribute" from the conquered communities. When the king's revenue came to be derived from the agricultural produce, the rate was one-sixteenth and a contribution in cattle from the villages. Revenue administration developed with development of theory of taxation.

"The origin of land system is as old as the origin of state in ancient India. One of the fundamental conceptions is that taxes are king's dues for the service of protection."

The general features of the revenue system as envisaged by Kautilya, and the sources of finance were as many as could be devised by human ingenuity. From cooked rice to dried fish all things taken into city were taxed and stamped at city gates.

The Arthashastra differentiates between forms of revenue, not according to their incidence but according to their source. Revenue is either derived from the land (Aparthiva) or derived from the sources other than land (Aparthiva). The government was to tax the people even to maintain their religion and this appears to be an innovation of Kautilya.

The tax rate on land fluctuated between one-twelfth and one-third, especially during times of crisis. The exact amount of land tax depended on factors such as soil fertility and the labor required for cultivation, sometimes amounting to one-twelfth of the total produce. The Department of Revenue played a crucial role in governance. Recognizing that financial stability was the foundation of all state activities, Chandragupta Maurya and Kautilya meticulously developed the revenue administration. Kautilya, in particular, identified multiple sources of revenue and established systematic mechanisms for their efficient collection and utilization.

The machinery of Revenue Administration of Kautilya could be easily traced to the Vedic Samhitas and the Brahmins.

The Panchavimsa Brahmana mentions same grahitr and Bhagadugha. Sayana explains Bhagadugha in the sense of one who collects that king's share from the people and make it over to the king. Kautilya believed that State Revenues depended upon the production of wealth. Kautilya mentions two high officials Samaharta and Sannidhata who are practically vested with the immediate control of the whole of financial administration. In his financial capacity, the Samaharta's functions practically extended over the whole range of state income and expenditure. The task of collecting revenues was intimated to Samaharta and his officials. The Samaharta was assisted by the Sthanikas and under them were Gopas, each of whom was in charge of five or ten villages. The Samaharta should prepare a great revenue roll of the kingdom and under his direction Gopa is to prepare various registers and census list of villages. In local areas, the Gopas were the agents of local government. They made collections and maintained registers of income and expenditure.

A sthanika was to superintend a fourth part of the kingdom in the same manner as the Gopa. Sannidhata may be termed as Minister of store and revenue while Samaharta was Minister in charge of collection.

Self-Check Exercise-6

Q.1 What are the main points of revenue administration according to Arthashastra?

1.9 Police Administration-Law of Order

The stability of human society relies on the harmonious interrelationship of its members, with each contributing to the collective good. The law is shaped by the social and economic conditions of a particular country, evolving as society's intellectual and moral capacity grows. The development of justice is closely tied to these social and political conditions, ensuring that laws adapt to meet the needs of the people.

In his *Arthashastra*, Kautilya outlines legal measures designed to protect citizens' rights, including safeguarding their lives, property, and personal liberty. The text provides protection against defamation, assault, attempts on one's life, and abuse by government officials. It is clear that Kautilya viewed the rule of law as essential for maintaining order and fairness within the state.

Greek historian Megasthenes, who visited India during Chandragupta Maurya's reign, provided insights into the legal and social conditions of the time. He noted the rarity of lawsuits in India, which he interpreted as a sign of the straightforward and honest dealings among the people. He even remarked that "an Indian has never been convicted of lying." In his observations, he pointed out that Indians did not engage in frequent litigation, and that trust played a significant role in their society—people often made deposits without the need for formal seals, and houses were typically left unguarded. Megasthenes also observed that thefts were rare, and when they did occur, the total value of stolen goods rarely exceeded 200 drachmas (around 100 rupees).

The *Arthashastra* also discusses various forms of punishment, including torture and mutilation of limbs. However, Kautilya proposes a more humane approach by substituting these physical penalties with fines, making the practice of mutilation largely a theoretical provision rather than a widely implemented one. This reflects Kautilya's progressive approach to justice, balancing deterrence with fairness.

Self-Check Exercise-7

Q.1 What was the scenario of law and order during the period of Kautilya?

1.10 Municipal Administration

Kautilya had thought of administering urban areas through a highly planned manner Arthashastra (II.3) contains Kautilyan scheme of administration of the cities and town.

1.10.1 Nagarika : The city chief was called Naganka known as Mayor of today or prefect of French 'cities. The Mayor or Prefect of the city which was normally the Sthaniya or town proper is called the Naganka. He is also called Puramukhaya (II.16). It will be recalled that as an officer the Nagarika was subordinate to the Samaharta as the Minister whose portfolio included Municipal Administration as a subject along with several other subjects mentioned above.

1.10.2 Sthanika and Gopa : The Nagarika held a position in the city similar to that of the Samaharta in the province. Just as provinces were systematically organized, towns were also divided into four sections or wards. Each ward was overseen by an official known as the Sthanika, who, in turn, managed a group of subordinate officers called Gopas. These Gopas were responsible for supervising twenty to forty households. In Kautilya's administrative framework, the duties performed by the Sthanika and Gopas in a town closely resembled those carried out by Committee No. 3, as described by Megasthenes, although our understanding of the latter remains incomplete.

1.10.3 Powers of Nagarika : Naganka enjoyed powers and performed functions as given below:

1. to maintain peace in the city,
2. to keep watch over the whereabouts and conduct of the new-comers,
3. to take charge of foreigners and to keep an eye on brothel keepers,
4. to keep census of the inhabitants with their income and expenditure,
5. to ensure good sanitary condition-violator of municipal rules' were to be severely punished,
6. to protect people from the ravages of fire and other epidemics,
7. to guard the city,
8. to keep drains and water in the proper order
9. to help foreigners in distress,
10. to take charge of lost articles.

The **Nagarika** oversaw a well-structured administrative system, supported by a team of officials responsible for various functions. The town also served as a center for judicial administration. Municipal governance was carried out efficiently, with the city being developed according to a well-planned layout. Each department was managed by capable officers, ensuring smooth functioning. The **Nagarika** operated under the authority of the **Samaharta**.

Kautilya envisioned a highly organized civic administration, where detailed records of every area under its jurisdiction were maintained. The town was divided into four wards, each supervised by a **Sthanik** or **Gopa**, who functioned as census officers.

Megasthenes also provides insights into the town's administration, mentioning an official called the **Astynomoi**, who performed similar duties to those outlined by Kautilya. One of the key responsibilities of this official, as noted by Megasthenes, was the supervision of factories. Additionally, he refers to a group of officials responsible for managing inns, attending to travelers, and ensuring their medical care. Another set of bureaucrats handled the registration of births and deaths, maintaining systematic records of the population.

According to Strabo, the above mentioned duties including control of markets, inspection of weights and measures, inspecting manufactured goods and collection of taxes, were discharged by Six Boards (consisting of thirty members) the effective functioning of the municipal administration depended upon two main factors:

- (a) an elaborate and widespread, organization
- (b) civic sense of the people.

Self-Check Exercise-8

Q.1 Write a brief note on municipal administration during the period of Arthashastra.

1.11 Rural Administration

A village was established for a minimum size of 100 families and a maximum of 500 families. The villages were separated by well defined boundaries such as river -hill, forest shrubs, valley, embankments and trees.

Rural life was structured in a way that encouraged collective living and efficient administration. To achieve this, every two villages were grouped under a common administrative unit known as

Sangrahana. As the scale expanded, 200 villages were brought under **Kharvatika**, while 400 villages formed a larger unit called **Dhronamukha**. This hierarchical structure culminated in a grand union of 800 villages, referred to as **Mahagran**.

At the heart of this system was the **Stheniya**, which served as the administrative hub. More than just a governing center, it was a vibrant place where culture, trade, and commerce flourished. It provided essential means of livelihood and became a gathering place for villagers from the surrounding areas. Here, they not only conducted business but also fostered a sense of community, strengthening the bonds of collective rural life.

Rural Development: The state had taken to itself the charge rural development as below:

- (1) mining and metallurgical works
- (2) plantations forests
- (3) plantations of forests for elephant
- (4) grazing grounds of cattles. road for traffic
- (5) water-ways and land routes and
- (6) markets for commodities.

The state used to make provision for rural water supply by construction of reservoirs.

The villages were semi-autonomous, enjoying a good deal of freedom in ordering their affairs they regulated land and water-rights, cultivation and payment of revenue' through the gamins; an official of the central government.

The check and control of bureaucracy was provided not only by official openly charged with such duties of inspection, audit and report like *paradeshris* but by the regular employment of spies and agents provocateurs constant use of secret means in administration, diplomacy and war was everywhere taken for granted and few modern governments could be said yet. To have out grown the practice.

Self-Check Exercise-9

Q.1 What are the main points of rural administration during the period of Kautilya?

1.12 Summary:

Kautilya's administrative thought.

1. Kautilya overwhelmingly favored rule by one hereditary person anti-democrat.
2. Kautilyan administrative system was highly organized.
3. The administrative machinery at the top was headed by king assisted by a number of ministers and a council.
4. The detailed work of administration was carried on by an efficient and highly organized bureaucracy.
5. Megasthenes had recorded that the king of Kautilyan days was the Supreme Head of all branches of administrative machinery.
6. The Mantri-parishad formed a part of the administrative machinery.
7. Administrative Divisions - Mauryan empire was structured into a number of Viceroyalties and Provinces comprising of a Governor at the top, a council of Ministers (Mantri Parishad), Heads of Departments (Adhyakshas), the civil service represented by a hierarchy of officers in different grades of jurisdiction, and self governing communities at the foundation of the structure.
8. Viceroyalties: There were four viceroalties at that time.

(a) Taxila, (b) Ujjain, (c) Tosali, (d) Suvarnagiri, Taxila was the Capital of North Western Frontier Province. Ujjain of Central Provinces (Avanti rashtra) Tosali was the capital of Kalinga and Suvarnagiri, was the capital of southern province.
9. Kautilya : "Administration can 'not be the work of one man, just as one wheel cannot drive a car'".

10. The normal administrative machinery prescribed for the government was made up of the following elements:

(a) The sovereign, (b) the Viceroys and Governors (c) the ministers, (d) the heads of departments. (e) the subordinate of service, (f) officers in charge of rural administration in the villages.

11. Mantri Parishad: The policy and plan of administration is first task of king and his Ministers.

12. Administrative work is preceded by the determination of policy,” – Kautily.

13. The administrative aspects relate to the following.

a. Provincial Administration

b. District Administration

c. Municipal Administration

d. Rural Administration

1.13 Glossary

Arthashastra- An Indian treatise on state craft, economic policy and military strategy.

Mantri Parishad- A Council of Minister.

Administration- The Process or activity of running a business, organization etc. The Management of Public affairs.

1.14 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.7

Self-Check Exercise-6

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.8

Self-Check Exercise-7

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.9

Self-Check Exercise-8

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.10

Self-Check Exercise-9

Ans 1. Refer to section 1.11

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8.1 Terminal Questions

- a. Discuss about Revenue Administration according to Kautily's Arthashastra.
- b. Write a note on Rural Administration on the behalf of Kautily's Arthashastra.

UNIT-2
M.K. GANDHI

Structure

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Learning Objectives

- 2.3 Gandhi's Idea about Administration
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 2.4 Village Panchayats and Administration
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 2.5 Democracy and Administration
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 2.6 Theory of Trusteeship and Cooperation
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 2.7 Gandhi and other Theorists: A Comparison
 - Self-check Exercise-5
- 2.8 A Critical Evaluation
 - Self-check Exercise-6
- 2.9 Summary
- 2.10 Glossary
- 2.11 Answer to Self-Check Exercises
- 2.12 References/Suggested Readings
- 2.13 Terminal Question

2.1 Introduction

Mahatma Gandhi (1869–1948) was one of the most influential figures of the twentieth century, leaving a profound impact on India's socio-economic and political landscape. He is widely regarded as the greatest peaceful revolutionary of modern India. While not a systematic philosopher in the traditional academic sense, Gandhi developed fundamental principles aimed at the moral and social regeneration of individuals and the reconstruction of society and politics.

His contributions place him among the foremost thinkers in social, political, and administrative thought. Though he may not be considered a rational dialectician like Shankara or Kant, he is often seen as a prophet, teacher, and leader who guided India's freedom struggle with his unique philosophy. Gandhi wrote extensively on a range of subjects, including religion, philosophy, ethics, economics, politics, and administration, leading many to describe him as an "extraordinary paradox."

Gandhi's ideas were shaped by a blend of influences from both Western and Eastern traditions. He drew inspiration from thinkers such as Plato, Aristotle, John Ruskin, and Leo Tolstoy, as well as from spiritual figures like Buddha, Ramakrishna Paramhansa, and Swami Vivekananda. Additionally, the teachings of the **Vedas**, **Bhagavad Gita**, **Upanishads**, and **Ramayana** played a crucial role in shaping his worldview. As a result, his philosophy seamlessly integrated elements of both Western and Eastern thought, tradition and modernity, as well as individualism and collectivism.

Gandhi's Major Works

1. Hind Swaraj of Indian Home Rule:
2. An Autobiography or the Story of My Experiments with Truth:
3. Constructive Programme : Its Meaning and Place

2.2 Learning Objectives

After Studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To Know about Mahatma Gandhi and their contribution.
- To tell about Gandhi's ideas about administration.
- To understand the theory of trusteeship and cooperation.
- To discuss village panchayat and administration as per the Gandhian view points.

2.3 Gandhi's idea about Administration

An understanding of Gandhi's Ideas about administration requires some knowledge of his principles and ideals which he cherished. Gandhi's ideas are based on religious, psychological, ethical, economic and philosophical foundations.

2.3.1 Religious Foundations

Gandhi was deeply influenced by the traditional socio-religious culture of India, and the Gita and the

Bible loomed large in his life. He believed in the philosophy of Vedanta contained in Upanishads. He was a firm believer in Bhagavadgita. Hence his thoughts are based on religious scriptures. He equated God with Truth believing that there was “no religion higher than truth”. Besides truth and non-violence as two important pillars, he regarded Karmayoga and morality as guiding principles. He says “Action is my domain what I understood according to my lights, to be my duty and what comes my way I do”. Gandhi’s concept of religion is somewhat akin to Mathew Arnold’s view of religion as morality suffered with emotion. He was deeply devoted to the sense of self-realization through a moral life and service of the people.

2.3.2 Psychological Foundations

For Gandhi, the real individual Atma, is an immortal spiritual entity. Hence man can be said to be a divine spark and not a mere mechanical or organic aggregation of physical and chemical forces. The Individual, conceived in moral and spiritual terms is of supreme importance in Gandhian thought.

2.3.3 Ethical Foundations

Ethical’s influence also shaped Gandhi’s administrative thinking. Gandhian thought may be regarded as Ethical Absolutism or Ethical institutionalism.

He believed that human life is guided, by a set of principles. He believed that moral considerations are superior to material advantages. He thought that through a life of ‘Karmayoga’, freedom could be won. He believed in the Idea of moralization of social and political action by incorporating into society and politics the value of love and justice in place of the desire for power and glory.

2.3.4 Economic Foundations

As a national leader, he could not help in noticing the terrible poverty which was the lot of the overwhelming majority of Indian masses. For Gandhi, the malady of modern civilization is fundamentally psychological because there is an ever-expanding quest for commodities, and the greed for accumulation of wealth and

power. He regarded economics as a moral science Instead of a mere positive and analytical science. He believed in principle of “plain living and high thinking”. He condemned monster god of materialism which is more or less the foundation of most of social sciences. He criticized the pervasive economic exploitation, engineered by capitalism, but unlike the economic exploitation engineered by capitalism, but unlike the positivists school economics, he stressed upon psychological uproot of exploitation. Ruskin's Unto This last had a great impact on Gandhi for which he found an Indian term Sarvodaya, meaning the rise of all.

2.3.5 Ideal State

Gandhi is opposed to the nation for its being organ of the centralized power structure. He says “Centralization as a system is inconsistent with non-violent structure of society”. He is critical of the nation state in communist society as well as capitalist society. He applauded its ideal of socialization of property but was critical of violence. He even predicted the end of the Soviet regime as early as 1928. The modern state has given rise to bureaucracy which is the instrument through which the state exercise power. Gandhi says: “I took upon an increase of the power of the State with the greatest feat, because although, while apparently doing good by minimizing exploitation, it does the greatest harm of mankind by destroying individuality, which lies at the root of all progress.” He believed that the state represented violence in a concentrated and organized form.

Gandhi envisioned an India based on the principles of *Ram Rajya*, a society rooted in justice, equality, and moral governance. He expressed his aspirations for a constitution that would free India from all forms of bondage and external influence, even granting its people the right to make their own choices, including mistakes. His dream was of an India where the poorest citizens would feel a sense of belonging and have a meaningful role in shaping the nation. He sought a society free from class distinctions, where all communities coexisted in perfect harmony. This, he believed, was the true essence of his ideal India.

He says “That state is perfect and non-violent where the people are governed the least.” It is evident that this Ram Rajya will be more a society than a state and its social bonds will be more cohesive than the formal bonds of legal organization. The theory of Ram Rajya amounts to the synthesis of the St. Augustinian conception of the “divine city” and the Rousseauian conception of “general will”. He also regarded it as the manifestation of decentralized political and economic power based on pure moral authority. “The Ram Rajya of my dream ensures the rights alike of prince and pauper. You may be sure that I shall throw the whole weight of my influence in preventing a class war.”

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a brief note on Gandhiji's idea on Administration.

2.4 Village panchayats and Administration

When discussing the ideal form of administration, Mahatma Gandhi emphasized the need for governance to start at the grassroots level. He envisioned each village as an independent republic, governed by a **Panchayat** with full authority over local matters. According to him, every village should be self-sufficient and capable of defending itself against external threats. While self-reliance was a key principle, he also acknowledged the importance of mutual cooperation and voluntary support from neighboring communities and the broader world.

Gandhi firmly believed that decentralization was essential for societal progress through non-violent means. By empowering villages and individuals, he aimed to create a system where governance was driven by local participation, ensuring sustainable and harmonious development. His vision was not about complete isolation but rather about fostering a balance between self-sufficiency and interdependence, allowing communities to thrive through collaboration and shared responsibility.

Gandhi's idea of decentralization is not his own. The anarchists and early socialists had regarded it as axiomatic. Rousseau was one of the most modern political thinkers who asserted decentralization of power. Yet Gandhi's special characteristics about this concept in comparison to other contemporaries are two. (i) He regards decentralization of power as an essential corollary to Non-violence. (ii) Gandhi insists that such centralization would be possible only in a predominant 'non-industrial society' in the self-sufficient village.

Gandhi's conviction is that it would be possible to preserve the freedom of a society, both internal and external, through the non-violent method only when the social organization is non-industrial and highly decentralized.

A "Gandhian Constitution of Free India" was also prepared by B. Shriman Narayan, the then Principal, Sakseria College of Commerce, Wardha which was published before the time when the Constitution of India. This publication any be Constituent Assembly was deliberating upon taken as "His Last Will and Testament."

The only way, according to Gandhi, to emancipate the nation from its age-long bondage was to

make the villages of India self-sufficient and self-reliant through the decentralized structure of village republics. Gandhi felt that a perfect administration could be founded only on the foundation of Panchayat. So he stood for villages. Gandhi laid a good deal of emphasis on cottage industry. Revival of weaving and spinning industry (Khaddar) which British had destroyed, avoid the evils of industrialization, and at the same time help the village to be self-sufficient economic unit which, to him, was also the ideal political unit at the lower level namely the Panchayat Raj, the reign of the village councilors.”

Thus, the administrative structure of free India was not to be in the shape of a pyramid. It was to be based on the spirit of mutual interdependence and harmonious operation. The self-reliant village were to manage their own affairs. They were not to dependant the help of a central arm for defense. They should as a principle, develop themselves to the extent even of having the strength of perished in the attempt of self- defence.

The village panchayat is to conduct the administration in the village. Every of five adult men and women being villagers or village minded shall form a unit. Decisions were to be taken by consensus. It should be deal with all cases. The panchayat was to be the legislature, executive and judiciary combined into one. The panchayats could only function through their own laws. Public opinion would be a critical force in the Panchayati Raj.

Gandhi acknowledged the necessity of a police force to maintain law and order, but his vision for it was quite different from conventional policing. He believed that the police should be composed of individuals committed to non-violence, serving as protectors rather than enforcers. Instead of instilling fear, they would earn the people's trust through mutual cooperation. While they might carry weapons, their use would be extremely rare, if at all. More than law enforcers, these officers would act as reformers, focusing primarily on addressing crimes like theft and fraud.

Similarly, Gandhi envisioned prisons not as places of punishment but as institutions of rehabilitation, functioning like hospitals. He believed that criminals should be treated as patients in need of care and reform. Prison staff, in his view, should adopt the mindset of doctors and nurses, offering guidance and support rather than mere discipline. He hoped that inmates would see prison officials not as adversaries but as allies in their journey toward transformation.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Write a brief note on Gandhiji's idea on Village Panchayats?

2.5 Democracy and Administration

Gandhi was against capitalization- and westernization. He believed that their democracy had in it three contradictions: imperialism, racialism and capitalism. He said “The European democracies are to my mind a negation of democracy.”

He believed in a democratic government where individual and freedom of opinion and action would be protected, and even the minority would not be coerced but only persuaded, respected and this is to Rousseau's theory of “General will”. Gandhi describes the concept of “Real Democracy” at a Press Conference on September 28, 1944;

“The way of approaching a question is not to examine the numerical strength of those behind the opinion, but to examine the soundness of the opinion on merits, or else we will never reach a solution, and if we reach one, it will be a blind solution simply because it is the will of the largest body. If the largest body does wrong, it is up to me to say you are wrong. The rule of majority does not mean that it should suppress the opinion of even an individual. If it is sound an individual's opinion should have greater weight than the opinion of many if that opinion is sound on merits. That is my view of real democracy.”

According to Gandhi a true democratic government derives its justification from its readiness to respond to public opinion because supreme political power rests in the people. Public opinion is the basis of democratic governance. He recognized that “legislation in advance of public opinion has often been demonstrated to be futile.”

Like Plato, Gandhi wanted that the members of the governing group should lead a simple life. The governors and administrators must be content with being the servants of the nation and their status and prestige should be based not upon the acquisition of power and wealth but upon devotion to a noble cause. He wanted even manners of the top administrative cadre to lead a simple and serviceable life.

Gandhi lays emphasis on self-rule or Swaraj. He uses this term in a broad sense to include the true development of individual and his society. It means self for the individual and freedom from foreign domination for the country. Although, in the Hind Swaraj, Gandhi was opposed to the patterns of functioning of the British Parliament he suggested for India a parliamentary government based on universal suffrage. His conception of Swaraj meant a government based on the consent of the people. This consent of the people was to be determined by the largest number of adult population.

Gandhi firmly believed that relying on military force was fundamentally opposed to the principles of true democracy. To him, a nation that depends on military strength for its survival cannot foster genuine democratic values or the growth of the human spirit. He saw an inherent

contradiction between democracy and the reliance on armed forces, including the police and the military.

In his vision, a truly democratic society should be built on the foundation of non-violence, self-governance, and moral strength rather than coercion and force. For democracy to thrive, it must move away from dependence on military power and instead cultivate a system based on mutual trust, justice, and peaceful coexistence.

He wanted to present the model of real village government to depict his ideal of a perfect democracy based upon individual freedom and at the same time upon collective and cooperative action.

Decentralizing Planning

Gandhi also believed in planning as an element of administration. Gandhi maintained that in order to put Independent India on the right path of strive for his ideal state were all were cared for and maximum happiness prevailed for the society as a whole the country need political, economic and moral independence, economic reorganization and social reformation. He emphasized the importance of planning at the village level and even went to the extent of declaring that 'if villages perish, India will perish too. He believed in decentralized planning.

Whereas the modern concept of planning refers to economic planning, his planning was concerned with the overall balanced development of society. He believed decentralization and operation of cottage industries, thus opposing the idea of increasing centralization and mass production. He planned a Constructive Programme in eighteen measures so as to constitute a Greater Republic of India through seven lakh villages. For the implementation of these plans and programmes. He proposed the disbanding of congress organization and its reconstruction into a Lok Seva Sangh. It was his deep belief that an efficient administration can be secured through the proper planning and development of villages.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What is democracy according to Gandhiji?.

2.6 Theory of Trusteeship and Cooperation

Gandhi was aware of the western dilemma between capitalism and communism. If modern means of production remains in private hands, these lead to concern of wealth and power in a few hands. On the other hand if these means pass primarily into the hands of the state, the demon of dictatorship raised its head. Gandhi, therefore, visualized a decentralized and broadly autonomous

economic order with the smaller units in the private hands and the larger ones owned and managed by cooperative communities. Thus he offers his theory of trusteeship as an alternative to both capitalism and communism.

Gandhi's trusteeship does not recognize hereditary inheritance of property. It visualizes a transition or transformation from individual ownership to community. For Gandhi, trusteeship involves the building of consensus of a society for its use for social goods.

Through Trusteeship, Gandhi wanted to establish an equitable economic order through a proper scheme of distribution of the accumulated wealth to all members of the society. In Gandhi's view, the institution of trusteeship was primarily to provide an opportunity to capitalists and landlords in whose hands a huge quantum of wealth of the society accumulated, to voluntarily transfer their wealth to the society. The capitalists were expected to act as trustees along with other representatives of the society.

Thus in Gandhi's view, the economy in the ideal society would function through the mechanism of cooperation. However, this cooperation is based on the principle of non-violence. Gandhi also says: "Voluntary cooperation will produce real freedom and a new order, vastly superior to the new order in Soviet Russia." He also believed in cooperative farming. He says, "I firmly believe too that we shall not derive the full benefits of agriculture until we take to co-operative farming. Does it not stand to reason that it is better for a hundred families in a village to cultivate their lands collectively and divide the income therefore than to divide the land anyhow into a hundred portions". He says that "man is a social being. With interrelation with society he cannot realize his oneness with the universe or suppress his egotism".

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 What is theory of trusteeship and cooperation?

2.7 Gandhi and other theorists

A Comparison Gandhi may not be regarded as a system-builder in the academic sense of the term. But certainly his ideas are of great value to both academics and practitioners. His concepts and views are still relevant to modern India. However, it is essential to make a comparative study of his ideas.

Gandhi like Machiavelli, Marx or others did not separate religion from poetics but attempted to provide a synthesis of the two. Machiavelli regarded human nature as egoistic and distinguished

mortality from politics. In the same way, Marx being influenced by Darwin's ideas of biological evolution of human life took the mechanistic view of human life. But Gandhi's conviction is that politics devoid of religion is a death trap because it kills the soul.

Further the idealistic character of both Gandhism and Marxism is pertinent in their anarchist philosophy. Of course, it is very true that distinguished from Max Stirner and Michael Bakunin's conceptions of anarchism, Marxism does not propagate the deliberate destruction of the state machine but only advocates its withering away. Although in British Godwin in the American Tucker and in the German Stirner we find much of anarchist ideas, still anarchism is a characteristically Russian phenomenon. The anarchist elements in Gandhi's theory represent the influence of the religious and moral anarchism of Tolstoy. Marx revolted against capitalism and propounded a Four-fold alienation owing to the same. Gandhi also advocated his conception of the loss of

morality, humanity, creativity and freedom due to capitalist encroachment. Both however differ on certain grounds like their techniques of action. While Gandhi emphasized, Marx, on the other hand, stressed class-solidarity, and the propaganda of communist ideology. Hence we find that a man laces their idea and theories join hands.

Both Plato and Gandhi have an integral comprehensive approach to the problems of man and society. Plato in the Republic and the Laws discussed political, economic, moral and administrative problems. Gandhi is also concerned with all dimensions of human problems. Plato theme the theory of philosopher-rule may. To some extent, be computed to the Gandhian notion of "Ram Rajya." There is no doubt that the rule of philosophers would demand the necessary existence of a reformed political system. But Gandhi's Ram Rajya may also be interpreted as signifying a state of enlightened anarchy that would be characterized by the absence of government coercion. If this interpretation is emphasized the Ram Rajya' and philosopher-rule tend to be two different things. Though both are critics of democratic excesses, yet Gandhi had far more to the democratic spirit of identification with the masses than the Athenian Aristocrat. At the operative and institutional levels Plato was an elitist. He favoured the rule of a selected few, of course the selection being made on the basis of virtue, Gandhi, on the other hand, was a mass leader and he wanted the creation of a political system on the basis of widest possible participation of citizens.

Gandhi is also totally opposed to the Hegelian and Austin concepts of law and sovereignty. Positive law and the sovereign political structure, owing to their emphasis on violence, authoritarian dictates and compulsive commands, do not help the genuine realization of the individual rights.

Gandhi's conscience revolted against the absolute and illegitimate power of the state as he felt that they attacked the moral fiber of civilization. Against the absolutist doctrines and concepts of Hobbes, Austin and Hegel, Gandhi appeared as the spokesman 'of the moral sovereignty of the people.

Gandhi's concepts and ideas could also be compared with those of Lenin, Both Gandhi and Lenin were strictly against bureaucratization which was spreading in all organisations. Marxism had its influence of both of them and 'alienation theory' was favoured by them also. Gandhi like Lenin believed that whole of the population was to learn the art of administration and participate in it. Both, for, the sake of bringing about revolution worked through organizations, but Lenin unlike 'Gandhi had a soft corner for violence. Whereas Gandhi propounded the set-up favoured political decentralization. Lenin was in the favour of management of industry by a vast administration set up. Of course, both join hands as, far as a set-up on socialist ideas and equality are concerned.

There is also a good deal of similarity between some administrative ideals of Gandhi and Simon, Simon's concept of rationality in organizational set up seems to match Gandhi's ideal set up. Both do not come out with principles for organizational functioning but strive for perfection. Gandhi goes for equality and for fulfilling human needs and Simon proposes a satisfying model for administrative man. However Simon like Weber is a staunch follower of bureaucratic formalism and consequently favours capitalism which is just contrary to Gandhi's conceptualization.

Thus, Gandhi's concept and views in a stable state though not completely systematically presented and marred with inconsistencies at places may, be compared with many political and administration thinkers of the West.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 Write a short note on the thoughts of thinkers other than Gandhi .

2.8 A Critical Evaluation

Like other administrative thinker, Gandhi has been criticized for his ideas. He has presented a picture of an ideal society which is impracticable. It seems that Gandhi has not taken the trouble to develop the idea of the decentralized, non-industrial, non-violent and self-sufficient free society into a politically tenable hierarchical system. He has never entered into a discussion regarding the problems of relationship between one village and another and the problems of political and economic adjustment and coordination from lowest unit of organization to the highest centre of political authority wherein sovereignty resides. He is merely presenting a picture of village administration in which there is perfect

democracy based on individual freedom and non-violence.

Gandhi advocates the establishment: of a republic of every village in India. But how are 'these seven lakh village republics to be organized. The problems of communication, coordination, settlement of grievances and so on in each republic pose many other problems. In fairness to Gandhi, it may be said, however, that as a prophet he was concerned with stressing some profound insights.

Gandhi has argued that individual is always free to resist the tyranny of society through 'Satyagraha'. This is certainly a very good idea provided it could be shown that Satyagraha is in fact, such a universal panacea as it is claimed to be. But it has a number of limitations and can, by no means, be regarded as a universal remedy against injustice under all circumstances. The Gandhian concept of satyagraha would therefore seem to be predicted on facts, not in evidence.

In Gandhi's village society and administration, there would be very little scope for the expression of exploratory or even intellectual genius of man. Such village administration may be consistent with Gandhi's own conception of freedom but in reality there cannot be the suppression of the creative urge of the man which is obviously an indispensable element of human freedom. Rabindra Nath Tagore also says "A civilization which comprises mainly village life cannot advance very far. There the individual is unimportant, the community predominant.

Gandhi strongly opposed the concentration of power in the hands of the state and instead advocated for decentralization. However, he did not present a concrete or fully developed plan for how such a decentralized system should be organized and administered. His follower, **Jayaprakash Narayan**, made efforts to address the challenge of power distribution, but his proposals also lacked a comprehensive framework, particularly in terms of financial authority, administrative control, and economic development.

Similarly, Gandhi's **theory of trusteeship**, which sought to encourage the wealthy to act as guardians of the people's welfare, failed to gain widespread acceptance. Throughout his life, he urged industrialists and capitalists to embrace social responsibility and serve the public good. However, as time passed, he became disillusioned, realizing that many of his capitalist supporters primarily sought personal gains rather than genuinely working for the well-being of the people.

Critics argue that Gandhi's trusteeship model ultimately hindered radical economic transformation. They believe that by relying on the goodwill of capitalists rather than pushing for structural changes, his approach slowed down the momentum for revolutionary economic reforms.

Self-check Exercise-6

Q.1 Critically evaluate the views of Gandhiji on Administration?

2.9 Summary

As a system of administrative thought, it may be summarized that Gandhism represent various intellectual thinking in process of synthesis. He was deeply influenced by idea contained in the New Rousseau and Dayanada, Gandhi revolts against the evils of present civilization. Like Cicero and Aquinas, Gandhi upholds the cause of moral authority in politics. Like Marx and Lenin Gandhi is strikingly opposed to social and economic exploitation of the poor. Like Spencer and other individualists. Gandhi does not trust the action of the government and like Thoreau and Laski. He vindicates the right of resistance against unjustified state authority. He preaches the realization of the common good of all as advocated by Green and Welfare.

Similarly his philosophy of Sarvodaya is partly based on Ruskin's Unto This Last. Hence it can be said that Gandhi's fusion of the teachings of the Bhagavadgita and Buddhism combined with the teachings of the Bible, Tolstoy and Ruskin represents a cultural synthesis of the East as well as the West.

When the whole is caught up in the arms race and heading towards nuclear disaster, it is necessary on the India's part to practice Gandhian philosophy, promote peace in the vicinity and other regions by adopting Gandhi peaceful and non-violent methods, and create international brotherhood through Gandhi's dream of the Ram Rajya.

2.10 Glossary

Truth- The Quality or state of being true.

Trustee- An individual person or member of a board given control or powers of administration of property in trust with a legal obligation to administer.

Cooperation- The action or process of working together to the same end.

2.11 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 2.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 2.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 2.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 2.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 2.7

Self-Check Exercise-6

Ans 1. Refer to section 2.8

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2.13 Terminal Questions

- a. Examine Gandhi's idea about administration.
- b. Write a note on Democracy and Administration.
- c. Critically examine Gandhian and Marxian Theory of Philosophy.

UNIT-3

J. L. Nehru

Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Learning Objectives
- 3.3 Nehru's Scientific Temper
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 3.4 Science and Religion
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 3.5 Scientific Humanism
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 3.6 Nehru's Theory of Culture
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 3.7 Political Ideas of Nehru on Democracy
 - Self-check Exercise-5
- 3.8 Nehru On Socialism
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- 3.9 Summary
- 3.10 Glossary
- 3.11 Answers to Self-check Exercises
- 3.12 References/Suggested Readings
- 3.13 Terminal Questions

3.1 Introduction:

Jawaharlal Nehru is widely regarded as the architect of modern India. He had immense faith in the Indian people and envisioned a nation that was democratic, economically progressive, and influential on the global stage. A visionary thinker and pragmatic leader, Nehru was deeply influenced by Western democratic ideals and socialist thought. However, as time passed, he developed a deeper appreciation for India's rich history and philosophical traditions. As political biographer Michael Brecher observed, Nehru's evolving understanding of India's heritage shaped his leadership and policies. While he was keenly aware of international developments, he remained firmly rooted in the realities of Indian society.

Despite being born into privilege, Nehru maintained a strong connection with the masses. Born in 1889, he received his early education at home in Allahabad before pursuing studies at Harrow and later at Cambridge in England. His seven years in Britain exposed him to liberal humanist traditions, drawing inspiration from thinkers like John Stuart Mill, William Gladstone, and John Morley. He was also influenced by intellectuals such as George Bernard Shaw and Bertrand Russell. While Nehru was not a political philosopher in the traditional sense, he was a man of ideas who seamlessly blended thought with action.

A tireless freedom fighter, Nehru played a pivotal role in India's struggle for independence. Under Mahatma Gandhi's leadership, he actively participated in the Congress movement alongside leaders like Vallabhbhai Patel, Subhash Chandra Bose, Jayaprakash Narayan, and Rajendra Prasad. He led the interim government in 1946 and became independent India's first Prime Minister, a position he held until his passing in 1964. Throughout the national movement, Nehru endured multiple imprisonments and served as Congress President on several occasions. One of his most significant contributions came in 1929 when, under his leadership, the Congress adopted the historic resolution of *Purna Swaraj* (Complete Independence), marking a defining moment in India's freedom struggle.

3.2 Learning Objectives

After Studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To Know about Jawahar Lal Nehru and his contribution.
- To tell about Nehru's ideas about scientific temper and administration.
- To understand the ideas of Nehru on Democracy and Nationalism.

- To discuss the ideas of Nehru on Socialism.

3.3 NEHRU'S SCIENTIFIC TEMPER

Jawaharlal Nehru approached life with a scientific mindset, making him one of the first nationalist leaders to recognize the crucial role of **science and technology** in India's modernization. For many modern, educated Indians, he embodied the aspiration to adopt a rational and scientific outlook. He firmly believed that science was the very foundation of progress, without which the modern world would struggle to survive.

Nehru saw **science as a guiding force** for shaping both the **social system and economic structure** of a nation. He emphasized that the greatest achievement of science was not just technological advancements but the development of a **scientific temperament**—a mindset that encouraged logical thinking, curiosity, and skepticism. He argued that only a **rational and scientific approach** could bring hope for a better life and put an end to suffering in the world.

Like his father, **Motilal Nehru**, Jawaharlal Nehru was **agnostic**. He never fully embraced the deep religious devotion of his mother, nor was he influenced by **Mahatma Gandhi's** spiritual philosophy despite their long association. Although Nehru was not a militant atheist, he did not subscribe to religious mysticism. He acknowledged the mysteries of the universe, writing:

"Often, as I look at this world, I feel a sense of wonder, of unknown depths."

This reflects his curiosity about life's mysteries while maintaining a rational, evidence-based worldview.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q. Write a short note on scientific temperament of Nehru?

3.4 Science and Religion

Jawaharlal Nehru's **scientific temperament** shaped his worldview, making him resistant to dogma and superstition. He did not feel drawn to any particular religion, as he viewed religious beliefs as largely rooted in **unscientific approaches**. However, he acknowledged that religion fulfills a deep emotional need for many people and provides a **moral and ethical framework** for life. While he was not religious himself, he accepted religion only in this limited sense.

Nehru did not engage in **ritualistic worship** or religious practices, believing instead that science offered a more rational and reliable foundation for understanding life. His **commitment to rationalism** naturally aligned him with secularism. **V.P. Varma**, in *Modern Indian Political Thought*, observed that for someone like Nehru—who was an **agnostic and materialist**—adopting a secularist stance came naturally. Nehru was not emotionally invested in religious debates but firmly believed in **separating religion from politics**.

Nehru's concept of **secularism** was not about opposing religion but ensuring **equal respect and opportunities for all faiths**. He clarified this idea, stating:

"Some people think that secularism means opposition to religion. That is incorrect. It means that the state will honor all religions equally and provide them with equal opportunities, without aligning itself with any particular faith."

According to Nehru, **religion is a personal matter**, and everyone should have the freedom to practice—or not practice—any faith without state interference. While he respected **Gandhi's belief** that religion could instill morality in politics, Nehru strongly opposed the idea of **political parties being formed along religious lines**. He believed that linking religion with politics **fueled hatred, division, and violence**.

At the same time, Nehru supported **religious equality** as a means to achieve **peaceful coexistence and social harmony**. He understood that **social progress is impossible without**

social peace. However, while he acknowledged that religious conversions could sometimes disrupt harmony, he did not politically endorse restrictions on religious freedom.

As a firm **secularist**, Nehru rejected both **Hindu and Muslim communalism**, striving to protect India's **religious minorities**. His **rationalist approach and belief in scientific methodology** played a significant role in shaping his **nationalist political ideology**, ensuring that India remained a **diverse, inclusive, and secular democracy**.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q. What were Nehru's views on science and religion?

3.5 Scientific Humanism

Nehru cannot be easily classified as irreligious, nor was he opposed to religion. He acknowledged that religion fulfills a deep human need, serving as a source of faith and providing people with a sense of purpose. In *An Autobiography*, Nehru observed that religion offers individuals a belief in progress, ideals, human goodness, and destiny. While he viewed faith as essential to human nature, he also believed that science and reason should guide one's understanding of the world.

For Nehru, science explained the "**how**" of existence, but it could not answer the "**why**"—a question that required intuition and deeper contemplation. He maintained that **science sharpens the senses**, while **intuition helps grasp the spiritual aspects of life**. In *The Discovery of India*, he argued that the most balanced approach to life was one that combined **scientific reasoning with philosophical depth**, ensuring harmony between the **external and internal self**.

Nehru's intellectual stance reflected a **synthesis of ideas**. While he admired **Marx's scientific approach**, he distanced himself from Marxist ideology due to its **disregard for the human spirit**. At the same time, he resonated with **Gandhi's emphasis on moral values**, even though he did not fully embrace Gandhi's spiritual outlook. This blend of **scientific rationalism and humanistic values** became the foundation of Nehru's **scientific humanism**—a perspective that sought to balance scientific progress with ethical and humanitarian concerns.

Unlike Gandhi's **singular focus on spirituality**, Nehru adopted a **multidimensional approach**, believing that human relationships could be improved through better social conditions rather than mere moral preaching. He held that people would naturally develop **faith in humanity** when their **circumstances improved** and their **basic needs were met**.

For Nehru, the true path to **social progress** lay in **embracing both reason and humanism**. He saw no contradiction between **scientific thinking and humanitarian values**, asserting that the **modern mind should be practical, ethical, and socially responsible**. He believed that **humanity itself should be the guiding principle**, and **social service should be seen as a form of devotion**.

With his **scientific and rational outlook**, Nehru viewed science as a **powerful tool for human liberation**, capable of eliminating ignorance, poverty, and social injustice. His vision was not limited to technological advancements; he wanted science to be accompanied by **compassion, ethics, and a commitment to the greater good**.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q. What is scientific humanism as per Nehru?

3.6 Nehru's Theory of Culture

As both a politician and a writer, Nehru viewed culture with a blend of sociological realism and political practicality. He did not subscribe to the idea of culture as a fixed, timeless entity bound by an ancient, unchanging system. Instead of seeing India's cultural continuity as a product of divine or mystical revelation, he recognized it as an evolving process shaped by historical transformations. From the ancient Harappan civilization to modern times, Nehru acknowledged that India's cultural identity had been continually shaped by its diverse influences and changing social dynamics.

Nehru's perspective was grounded in **naturalism and determinism**, favoring scientific data from fields like geology, chemistry, and anthropology, while rejecting any spiritual force that might guide the cosmic process. For him, there was no **providential plan** or deep emotional connection to a specific cultural or religious tradition. Despite being born into a Brahmin family, Nehru did not hold much significance in traditional rituals or religious practices. While he appreciated the **ethical teachings of the Bhagavad Gita**, particularly its message of selfless action, he was more influenced

by thinkers like **Russell** and **Lenin** than by the pursuit of spiritual enlightenment like **Nirvana**. Nehru found the material achievements of the **Western** and **Soviet worlds** more compelling than the spiritual cosmology of the **oriental** traditions.

That said, Nehru was not strictly Marxist-Leninist either. While he recognized the strengths of Marxism, particularly in its analysis of class struggle and material conditions, he was aware of its limitations in addressing **humanism**, **human values**, and the **positive aspects** of capitalism. Nehru's outlook was a **blend** of these extremes: he sought **civilizational progress** alongside a strong commitment to **human values** across all spheres of life.

Professor Vartila further elaborates that **cultural comprehensiveness** requires an **emancipated mind**, free from dogmatic theology and unjust social demands. It also calls for the rejection of attempts to impose one's narrow **ethics**, **justice**, and **social norms** on others with differing beliefs. Nehru's understanding of culture, in this sense, was about creating a society that was inclusive, tolerant, and deeply committed to democratic **liberalism** and **cultural pluralism**. His commitment to **secularism** was not only a political stance but also a deeply held cultural value that reflected his belief in a **cosmopolitan** and **human-centered** vision for India.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q. What is Nehru's theory of culture?

3.7 POLITICAL IDEAS OF NEHRU ON DEMOCRACY

Democracy

Nehru was a lifelong champion of democracy, firmly believing in its principles and aspiring for independent India to embody a truly democratic system. His commitment to freedom was unwavering, shaped by his exposure to Western democratic traditions. From an early age, he engaged with the works of philosophers like Rousseau, Montesquieu, and Mill, often drawing on their ideas in his own writings. Reflecting on his intellectual influences in his *Autobiography*, Nehru acknowledged, "*My roots are still perhaps partly in the 19th century, and I have been too*

much influenced by the humanist liberal tradition to completely break free from it.”

For Nehru, democracy was not just a form of governance but a way of thinking and living. He believed that freedom was fundamental to human existence, but he also recognized that it needed a strong foundation. In his view, qualities like self-discipline, tolerance, and a commitment to peace were essential for a truly free and harmonious society. While he valued individual liberty, he also understood the necessity of balancing personal freedoms with collective responsibility. As political thinker M.N. Jha pointed out, Nehru saw the state as a means to safeguard freedom, ensuring that individual self-interest did not undermine the larger social good.

His democratic vision was deeply rooted in his moral and philosophical beliefs. He saw democracy not just as a political system but as a force that could elevate society by guaranteeing and actively upholding individual rights. To Nehru, democracy carried both political and social significance. In the early years of India's independence movement, he viewed it as the ideal of self-rule and responsible government. However, as his perspective evolved, influenced by socialist thought, he came to believe that true democracy required not only political freedom but also economic and social equality. He envisioned a nation where every individual had the opportunity to grow, prosper, and reach their full potential, making democracy a living reality rather than just a constitutional ideal.

On Nationalism

Nehru was a passionate nationalist, although he did not have a rigid theory of nationalism. He strongly believed in the **fundamental unity** of India, which he felt was rooted in its **cultural foundations**, though not in a narrow or religious sense. Nehru acknowledged the country's **diversities**, but what truly inspired him was the unity that ran deep through India's history. He was particularly drawn to the idea of **cultural pluralism** and **synthesis**, seeing nationalism as a noble expression of self-identity and collective pride. In his words, “Nationalism is essentially a group memory of past achievements, traditions, and experiences,” and he observed that nationalism was stronger than ever, especially when societies faced challenges. People, he believed, often turned to their history and traditions for strength and comfort in times of crisis.

However, Nehru also saw nationalism as having **social, political, and economic** dimensions. He was, by nature, a **nationalist** and a strong opponent of authoritarianism. Nehru didn't favor politics

that were too reliant on authority or formalities, and for this reason, he found himself aligned with figures like **Bal Gangadhar Tilak**. In his own words, Nehru said, “So far as political matters were concerned, I was, if I may say so, an Indian nationalist desiring India’s freedom, and rather inclined, in the context of Indian politics, to the more extreme wing of it, as represented then by Mr. Tilak.”

Despite his admiration for Tilak’s nationalist stance, Nehru didn’t share Tilak’s deeply religious motivations. His vision of nationalism was **inclusive** and **dynamic**, a living force that could connect and energize people across the world. For Nehru, the type of **socialism** that could fuel **freedom** also had the power to unite and give strength to people. However, he strongly opposed the narrow, fanatical forms of nationalism that promoted superiority or **aggressive expansionism**. As **R.C. Pillai** notes, Nehru warned against nationalism that made people overly conscious of their own superiority, stressing that such nationalism was **harmful**.

Nehru himself described Indian nationalism as liberal and tolerant. He believed that nationalism, when rooted in hatred and anger against others, could become dangerous and destructive. He saw his own brand of **nationalism** as being centered on **patriotism** and the **independence** of India. This commitment was evident in his unwavering stand for **complete independence**, which he emphasized as essential for India’s ability to contribute meaningfully to the world. In 1928, Nehru famously declared, “If India has a message to give to the world, it is clear that we can do so more effectively as an independent country than as a member of the British group.” That same year, as president of the **Lahore Congress**, he played a pivotal role in passing the **Purna Swaraj** resolution, which called for India’s full independence from British rule.

Individual Freedom and Equality

Nehru was a democrat by nature, temperament, and conviction. He strongly believed that individual freedom and equality were essential pillars of any democratic system. According to him, human creativity could only thrive in an environment of freedom. Both society and individuals, he argued, must enjoy liberty for the true values of human life to flourish. He saw democracy as a means to create conditions that nurtured creative development and personal growth.

Nehru believed that India needed to embrace democracy not just for material progress but for the enrichment of human life. He emphasized that while a high standard of living was important, it should not come at the cost of human creativity, the spirit of adventure, and the finer aspects of life that had uplifted humanity throughout history. In his view, democracy was not just about holding

elections; it was about fostering an environment where individuals could think freely, express themselves openly, and contribute meaningfully to society.

At the core of Nehru's ideology was his belief in the primacy and autonomy of the individual. He firmly held that the state had no right to suppress personal freedoms, as true progress could never be achieved if human creativity was stifled. His vision of individual liberty extended beyond political rights to include freedom of speech, expression, association, and various other aspects of human activity. For Nehru, the overall well-being of a society was closely linked to the extent of freedom its people enjoyed.

On Parliamentary Democracy

Nehru's support for parliamentary democracy over the presidential system of the United States was deeply influenced by India's cultural traditions and historical experiences, particularly under British colonial rule. He believed that parliamentary democracy offered greater flexibility to accommodate India's **diverse social groups**. Unlike the more rigid structure of a presidential system, a parliamentary system is able to integrate various social groups and allow them to voice their grievances within the democratic process. Even if Nehru personally disagreed with certain demands, he was willing to accept them within a democratic framework, understanding that such concessions were crucial for the functioning of a healthy system.

A notable example of this is the **States Reorganization** based on language. For years, there were protests from the Telugu-speaking people advocating for the separation of Andhra from the Madras Presidency. Nehru, rather than dismissing their demands outright, took a pragmatic approach by setting up a **Committee for the Reorganization of States** on the basis of language. By doing this, he accommodated their wishes within the democratic process, which ultimately quelled the agitation. This approach reflects the spirit of a true democratic leader, who may not always agree with every demand, but is willing to make compromises for the greater good of the nation.

Once the states were reorganized, India began functioning more as a federation, despite the Constitution formally referring to it as a union of states. This federal structure allowed for the nurturing of **linguistic and cultural identities** within the framework of the nation. The Indian Constitution's distribution of powers between the **center and the states** laid the foundation for a functioning democracy. While legal and institutional arrangements are key to the democratic process, the incorporation of linguistic federalism gives it the necessary substance. Over the past fifty years, this system has generally functioned smoothly, despite occasional challenges from

peripheral states.

Nehru's commitment to parliamentary democracy also meant supporting the **cabinet system of government**, which allowed for representation of various states and communities in the executive. Unlike the presidential system, where the president holds significant power over the formation of the executive, the **parliamentary system** fosters inclusivity by making the Prime Minister part of a **Council of Ministers**. This dynamic ensures that all viewpoints, including those of state leaders, are taken into account. Nehru maintained regular communication with the **Chief Ministers** of states, even when they disagreed with his policies. For instance, during the discussions surrounding the **Hindu Code Bill**, Nehru had significant differences with President **Rajendra Prasad**, but he still attempted to accommodate Prasad's concerns in shaping the bill, despite considering it a conservative piece of legislation.

Nehru's opposition to the **President's intervention** in the legislative process was rooted in his belief that the President, as the **nominal head of state**, should not overstep his constitutional role. As Prime Minister, Nehru respected the President's position, but he envisioned the President's role as more of a **guide** and **friend** to the government, rather than a **master** dictating policy. This reflects Nehru's deep commitment to democratic principles and his understanding that true leadership in a democracy requires listening to diverse perspectives and fostering cooperation.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 According to Nehru, what is democracy?

3.8 NEHRU ON SOCIALISM

Nehru's interest in socialism dates back to his time at Cambridge, where he was drawn to the ideas of George Bernard Shaw and the Webbs, as well as the lectures of John Maynard Keynes and Bertrand Russell. These intellectual influences, combined with the rapid political, social, and economic changes happening worldwide, deepened his socialist leanings. The poverty and suffering of millions in India further solidified Nehru's belief that socialism was essential for the country's progress, even as Marxist ideas from figures like Marx and Lenin also had a significant impact on his thinking.

For Nehru, socialism was more than just an economic theory—it was a way of life, a deeply held belief that shaped his vision for India. At the 1936 Congress session, he passionately affirmed his commitment to socialism, stating that he embraced it with both his "head and heart." He was

convinced that without adopting socialist principles, India could not overcome its widespread poverty and suffering. In his view, democracy and socialism were inseparable, as no democracy could truly succeed without ensuring social and economic justice for all.

Nehru defined socialism as a system where the state played a central role in controlling the means of production to prevent the exploitation of the poor by the wealthy. To him, socialism was not just about economic planning—it was about uplifting society by addressing poverty, unemployment, and social inequality. While he distanced himself from both Gandhi's interpretation of socialism and the Marxist concept of a proletarian dictatorship, he advocated for a socialist framework tailored to India's unique needs.

However, Nehru's socialism did not call for the complete abolition of private property. Instead, he sought to replace the profit-driven economic model with one based on cooperative service and social responsibility. He believed that production should be managed collectively for the welfare of all, rather than being controlled solely by the state or private interests. For Nehru, socialism and democracy were not opposing forces but complementary ideals, both essential for shaping a just and equitable India.

Nehru's vision of socialism was centered on **progressive industrialization**, which he saw as the key to solving India's economic challenges, including poverty, backwardness, and low productivity. He firmly believed that industrialization could only be achieved by harnessing modern science and technology, which would not only drive industry forward but also foster agricultural development. Nehru dismissed the capitalist model and instead advocated for a socialist approach, which included the nationalization of key industries and a cooperative model for agriculture, while still allowing the private sector to participate in both areas.

This approach to socialism was reflected in India's **economic planning**, the **mixed economy**, and the **Five-Year Plans**. Although Nehru acknowledged that this system was not "pure socialism," he believed it would lead the country in the right direction.

Nehru's concept of socialism was deeply tied to his vision for a modern, progressive India. He saw the need for a scientific foundation to build the country's industries, reform the outdated feudal land system, and bring agriculture in line with modern methods. Nehru also emphasized the importance

of developing social services, which he saw as severely lacking in the country. He argued that to modernize, India had to “lessen her religiosity” and embrace science, shedding the exclusive and outdated social habits that held her back. For Nehru, this transformation was crucial for India's growth and for overcoming the societal limitations that stunted the nation's potential.

Self-check Exercise-6

Q.1 Write a short note on ideas of Nehru on Socialism?

3.9 Summary

Nehru’s vision of socialism was deeply intertwined with his desire to modernize India and prepare it for the future. He believed that India needed to be built on a scientific foundation, one that would foster industrial development, transform the outdated feudal land system, and modernize agriculture using contemporary methods. In addition, he recognized the urgent need to develop social services, which were severely lacking at the time.

For India to truly modernize, Nehru argued, it had to move away from excessive religiosity and embrace science. He believed that the country needed to shed the exclusivity in thought and social habits that had become entrenched over centuries. These limitations, according to Nehru, acted like a prison, restricting India’s spirit and hindering its growth. He was convinced that only by freeing itself from these old constraints could India truly unlock its potential and progress. (From Ignou)

3.10 Glossary

Democracy: democracy is an intellectual condition and primarily a way of life.

Scientific Humanism: According to Nehru, it was from 'faith' that 'the inner imaginative urges' which distinguished man from other beings, flowed, and it was to these urges that the ends of a life bore reference.

3.11 Answers to Self-check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 3.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 3.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 3.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 3.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 3.7

Self-Check Exercise-6

Ans 1. Refer to section 3.8

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3.13 Terminal Questions

- a. Describe the Model of Scientific Humanism given by Nehru.
- b. What is the barrier of Parliamentary Democracy?

**UNIT 4 Woodrow
Wilson**

Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.1 Learning Objectives
- 4.2 The Study – Three Drafts
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 4.3 Administration and Government
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 4.4 Administrative Science
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 4.5 Politics and Administration
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 4.6 Comparative Method
 - Self-check Exercise-5
- 4.7 The Government – New Meaning
 - Self-check Exercise-6
- 4.8 An Evaluation
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- 4.9 Glossary
- 4.10 Answers to Self-check Exercises
- 4.11 References/Suggested Readings
- 4.12 Terminal Question

4.1 Introduction

The intellectual foundations of Public Administration as a discipline can be traced back to the groundbreaking work of Woodrow Wilson in the 1880s. His influential essay, *The Study of Administration*, played a pivotal role in encouraging the need for a more scientific approach to the study of administration. Wilson's work marked a turning point by highlighting the conduct of government as an area worthy of analytical inquiry and generalization, effectively laying the groundwork for public administration as a field of study.

Although Wilson himself described his essay as a "semi-popular introduction to administrative studies," it is often seen as the inception of public administration as a distinct academic discipline. What makes his contribution even more remarkable is that Wilson wrote this essay without direct personal experience in American administration, which only added to the significance of his pioneering effort. Despite his early success in this area, Wilson did not continue with formal teaching or research in public administration, though elements of his administrative thought would surface in his later works.

4.2 Learning Objectives

After Studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To Know about Woodrow Wilson and his contribution.
- To tell about Wilson's ideas about science of administration.
- To understand the ideas of Woodrow Wilson on Politics and Administration

4.2 The Study – Three Drafts

Wilson began his serious work on comparative systems of administration shortly after starting his teaching career at Bryn Mawr in 1885. Prior to the publication of his groundbreaking essay in the *Political Science Quarterly* in 1887, he had prepared three drafts on the same topic. The first draft, titled "Notes on Administration," evolved into "The Art of Government" before finally becoming "The Study of Administration." Examining these drafts reveals a clear evolution in Wilson's ideas, with significant changes from one version to the next.

Before it was published, Wilson presented the paper at a meeting of the Historical and Political Science Association in Ithaca, New York, at the invitation of Charles K. Adams, President of Cornell University and Wilson's former teacher. Although Wilson initially dismissed the paper, considering it unworthy of publication, it was regarded by many as one of his finest works. According to some experts, the essay quickly gained fame among scholars of administration and has since remained a valuable source of insight. In his article, Wilson traced the history of the study of administration, explaining its relatively recent emergence within political science. He also clearly articulated the importance and value of this field and outlined the methods that should guide its study.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on initial works of Woodrow Wilson?

4.3 Administration and Government

Wilson begins his essay by introducing the concept of administration and its growing importance. He argues that the study of administration arose from the increasing complexity of society, the expanding functions of the state, and the shift towards democratic governance. As governments took on more responsibilities, the question naturally emerged: "How should these functions be carried out, and in what directions should they be directed?"

Wilson believed that government reform was essential, particularly in the administrative realm. He saw the primary goal of administrative study as determining what the government could effectively and properly do, and how it could do so with maximum efficiency while minimizing both costs and

energy. Another key aim, he argued, was to move away from haphazard methods and to base administrative practices on solid, reliable principles.

To Wilson, administration was the most visible and dynamic aspect of government—it represented the government in action. However, he observed that this active side of government had largely been neglected in academic discussions about political science. Prior to the 19th century, political theorists focused primarily on abstract questions related to constitutions, the nature of the state, the location of sovereignty, and the purposes of government. They were concerned with questions such as "Who should make the laws?" and the substance of those laws, but the practical details of how those laws were implemented were often overlooked, relegated to clerks rather than considered part of serious political study.

Wilson explored the reasons behind this neglect of administrative study. He explained that, before the 19th century, small populations meant that the functions of government were simple and manageable. However, as trade, commerce, and industry grew, and as large corporations emerged, the complexity of governmental functions increased dramatically. These new challenges made the once straightforward tasks of government far more intricate, difficult, and numerous. As a result, the very concept of the state and its duties had evolved, and the central question became: "How should the state perform its expanding functions?"

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 What are the views of W. Wilson on Government and Administration?

4.4 Administrative Science

Wilson firmly believed that administration is fundamentally a science, a view he emphasized by stating that the science of administration is the latest development in the broader study of political science. He argued that the field of administration, which was still in its early stages, represented a significant academic breakthrough. Despite this, Wilson was critical of American administrative practices, noting that they lacked a clear scientific approach. He pointed out that there was little consistency or clarity about what constitutes effective administration in the United States at the time.

Wilson explained that the foundations of administrative science were first laid in Europe, particularly by French and German scholars. European administrative systems, which were developed to suit centralized, compact states, differed significantly from those in the United States. Wilson identified two main reasons for the growth of administrative science in Europe: first, European governments often operated independently of popular consent, which led to more extensive administrative systems; and second, centralized governments aimed to maintain control, prompting them to find the most efficient means of governance.

Wilson argued that, in order to apply European administrative principles to other countries, particularly the United States, significant adjustments would be necessary. One of the primary challenges in the U.S. was the principle of popular sovereignty. Wilson believed that organizing administration in a democracy was more difficult than in a monarchy because administration had to be constantly responsive to the "multitudinous monarch called public opinion." In democracies, public opinion often shaped government decisions, making administrative reforms slower and more compromised.

Wilson also argued that constitutional changes hindered the progress of administration. He believed that frequent changes to the constitution made it difficult for governments to focus on administrative efficiency. He was of the view that no constitution could last more than ten years without needing amendments, which diverted attention from the crucial task of improving administration. Therefore, Wilson advocated for setting aside debates on constitutional principles in favor of focusing on the practical aspects of administration.

Wilson's concern was with the implementation of governance, not just the theoretical principles outlined in constitutions. He believed it was far more challenging to run a constitution effectively than to create one. In his analysis, Wilson distinguished between the broad plans of government, which he saw as separate from administration, and the detailed execution of those plans, which constituted the essence of public administration. According to him, the study of administration is closely linked to understanding the proper distribution of constitutional authority, as administration deals with the practical application of laws.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q. What do you understand by science of administration?

4.5 Politics and Administration

Wilson explored the relationship between administration and politics, but his views on the subject were somewhat contradictory. At times, he emphasized the close interconnection between the two, acknowledging that it was difficult to draw clear lines separating administrative from non-administrative functions. He wrote that attempting to demarcate these boundaries would be like navigating a complex maze of distinctions and legalities, often becoming unclear and difficult to distinguish. Wilson also noted that "no topic in the study of government can stand by itself—least of all administration," highlighting that administration is deeply intertwined with political principles. He believed that administration should reflect the principles of government in action and cannot be understood apart from its relationship to politics.

However, at other times, Wilson took a different stance, arguing that administration and politics should be seen as separate spheres. He felt that administrative matters were distinct from political ones and that politics was the domain of statesmen, while administration was the responsibility of technical officials. He also argued that bureaucracy could only function effectively when it was removed from political influence, with its policies and standards focused on efficiency and technical competence, rather than political considerations.

This ambivalence in Wilson's writings led to different interpretations by later scholars. Some, like Mosher, highlighted Wilson's strong position on the politics-administration dichotomy, suggesting that he believed the two should be distinct. Others, like Riggs, argued that for Wilson, administration and politics were inseparable, with administrative actions being closely tied to the implementation of policies developed through political processes. Wilson, it seems, understood that the development of administration could not happen in a political vacuum, and he sought a balance between the two realms.

Wilson's overall goal was to enhance government efficiency by creating an administrative system that was free from political interference, while also recognizing that the two domains must work together for the proper functioning of government.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Write a short note on politics and administration?

4.6 Comparative Method

In the final section of his article, Wilson turned his attention to the methods most appropriate for studying administration. He rejected the philosophical approach and instead emphasized the value of historical and comparative methods. He argued that, within the realm of politics, these methods could be most effectively applied to the study of administration. Wilson believed that without comparative studies, we would be left with misconceptions about how administration functions differently in democratic versus non-democratic states. He stressed that the only way to understand the strengths, weaknesses, and unique features of a system is to compare it with others.

Wilson also addressed concerns that the comparative method might lead to blindly adopting foreign systems. He argued that it was possible to learn from others without copying their undesirable traits. For instance, he suggested that one could adopt the efficient administrative practices of European autocracies without embracing their autocratic principles. In fact, he believed that democratic governments needed to do so to better meet internal and external challenges.

There has been some debate about Wilson's views on the export of administrative practices from one country to another. Riggs, for instance, argued that Wilson was deeply committed to democratic government and would have opposed the export of administrative methods to non-democratic countries. Riggs believed that Wilson would have recommended focusing first on political development and democratic reforms before reorganizing administration. In contrast, Heady interpreted Wilson's position differently. He noted that Wilson's essay seemed to assume there were no restrictions on the availability of administrative techniques for export, and that his focus was entirely on the conditions under which these techniques could be imported into other systems.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 Write a short note on comparative methods used by Woodrow Wilson?

4.7 The Government – New Meaning

As we've noted earlier, Wilson did not continue his academic work on public administration after publishing *The Study*. However, a quarter-century later, in 1912, he published an article titled *The New Meaning of Government*, which appeared in a women's magazine in the same month he was elected President of the United States. This article can be seen as a significant reflection of his thoughts on governance and administration, revisiting some of the ideas from *The Study* while expanding on them.

In this short piece, Wilson shifts focus, particularly on the practical aspects of administration. While in *The Study* he discusses the concept of 'consent of the governed', in *The New Meaning of Government* he takes this further, emphasizing the need for widespread participation in government from all classes and interests. He advocates for the government to be free from the grip of vested interests and to be responsive to the genuine will of the public. This government, he argues, should have a broader vision for the nation.

Wilson also reiterates his earlier argument that the government should operate with the same efficiency as a successful business organization. He emphasizes that laws should be clear, well-founded, and unambiguous, with penalties that are equally clear. If laws are found to be ineffective or unjust, they should be changed. He stresses the need for laws to be implemented intelligently, fearlessly, and without favoritism toward any financial or political interests.

Moreover, Wilson argues that the government must act as a good trustee of resources, using its powers for the social betterment of all. He identifies key areas for government attention, such as food security, conservation of natural resources like rivers and forests, public health and sanitation, agricultural development, industry, education, and the empowerment of women and cities. This, he concludes, constitutes what he calls "the new meaning of government."

Self-check Exercise-6

Q.1 What is the new meaning to the government?

4.8 An Evaluation

Woodrow Wilson's famous essay is often regarded as the moment public administration began to emerge as a distinct academic field. In this essay, Wilson aimed to lay the foundation for public

administration as a recognized area of study, clearly articulating many of the doctrines that the field would later accept as valid. However, after reading *The Study of Administration*, the reader may still be left uncertain about its true content and implications.

Wilson draws parallels between administration and business practices, discussing topics like civil service reform, accountability to the public, and the distribution of constitutional authority. These concepts, though important, are somewhat vague and can be frustrating to a careful reader. In the opening paragraph of the essay, Wilson states that the aim of administrative study is to determine what government can effectively and appropriately do. Yet, much of the essay focuses on the separability of politics and administration, a point that, according to scholar Waldo, creates a serious inconsistency in Wilson's argument.

This inconsistency led later scholars to interpret Wilson's ideas in various ways. As Wilson himself acknowledged, his essay was broad, general, and at times, unclear. He raised more questions than he provided answers, failing to offer a concrete explanation of what the study of administration should involve. He didn't clarify the proper relationship between administration and politics, nor did he resolve whether public administration could ever be considered a science in the same vein as the natural sciences.

As a result, some have questioned whether Wilson himself had a clear understanding of what public administration truly is. There are even scholars, like Van Riper, who argue that the foundational ideas of American administrative study should be credited to the Founding Fathers rather than Wilson and his essay.

Self-check Exercise-7

Q.1 Critically evaluate the contribution of Woodrow Wilson to the administration.

4.9 Glossary

Administrative Science: Wilson strongly believed that administration is eminently a science. This is clear when he said that the science of administration is the latest fruit of the study of the science of politics.

Woodrow Wilson said, “It is harder to run a constitution than to frame one.”

4.10 Answers to Self-check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 4.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 4.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 4.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 4.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 4.7

Self-Check Exercise-6

Ans 1. Refer to section 4.8

Self-Check Exercise-6

Ans 1. Refer to section 4.9

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4.12 Terminal Questions

- Describe the Politics-Administration Dichotomy given by Woodrow Wilson.
- What is the Administrative Science?

UNIT-5 HENRY FAYOL

Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning Objectives
- 5.3 Fayol's Contributions to Management Thought
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 5.4 Fayol's Principles of Management
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 5.5 The need of Administrative Training
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 5.6 Fayol's General Principles of Management
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 5.7 Criticism of Fayol's Ideas
 - Self-check Exercise-5
- 5.8 Taylor Vs Fayol
 - Self-check Exercise-6
- 5.9 Summary

5.10 Glossary

5.11 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

5.12 References/Suggested Readings

5.13 Terminal Questions

5.1 Introduction

Henri Fayol, often regarded as the father of the Principles of Management, was born in 1841 into a middle-class French family. After completing his education in mining engineering, he started his career in 1860 as an engineer at a mining company. Through years of hard work and expertise, he steadily climbed the ranks, eventually becoming the Managing Director in 1888. Fayol dedicated three decades to leading the company before retiring from the role in 1918, though he remained on the board as a Director until his passing in December 1925 at the age of 84.

5.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able to:

- To know about Fayol's life style and their contribution to management thought.
- To understand basic ideas of Fayol and need of Administrative Training.
- To comprehend about Fayol's General Principles of Management.
- To analyze elements of Management.

5.3 Fayol's Contribution to management Thought

The credit of highlighting the importance of management activities from the top management point of view goes to Fayol. Fayol worked primarily on the operative level from the bottom level to the industrial hierarchy upward. Fayol however, concentrated on top management and worked downwards. Thus, Fayol was largely concerned with the general management rather than subversion. He was more consumed with overall control rather than details of operation.

Basic ideas of Fayol

In English-speaking countries, there was a common tendency to distinguish between management, which was seen as a function focused on industrial or commercial enterprises, and public administration, which was viewed as the art of managing government activities. However, Fayol disagreed with this distinction, believing it to be both misleading and incorrect. He argued that the traditional understanding of "administration" should be broadened to include not only public services but also enterprises of all kinds and sizes. According to Fayol, all types of organizations—whether public or private—require planning, organization, coordination, and control to function effectively. In his view, all undertakings, regardless of their purpose, must adhere to the same fundamental principles. Fayol believed that there should be no separate administrative sciences based on the nature of the activity. He argued that management, whether in industrial, commercial, political, or religious fields, is an essential element of governance and applies universally across various sectors.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on basic ideas of Fayol?

5.4 Fayol's Principles of management

Fayol's principles of management have been regarded as akin to the characteristics of the formal organisation of Bureaucracy laid down by Max Weber although it is believed that Weber's work was not known to him.

Division of activities: Fayol divided all activities of industrial undertaking into six groups.

(1) **Technical activities:** Production Manufacture adaption.

(2) **Commercial activities :** buying, selling exchange.

(c) **Financial activities :** search for an optimum use of capital.

(d) **Security activities** : production of property and persons.

(e) **Accounting activities** : stock taking balance sheets costs and statistics.

(f) **Management activities** : planning organization command coordination and control.

Managerial Qualities

Fayol summarised the qualities required by manager in various undertaking as under;

- (1) **Physical:** health, vigour, address
- (2) **Mental:** ability to understand and lesson, judgment vigour and adaptability.
- (3) **Moral:** energy, firmness, willingness to accept responsibility initiative loyalty tact and dignity.
- (4) **General Education:** general acquaintance with matters not belonging exclusively to the function performed.
- (5) **Special knowledge:** that peculiar to the function, be it technical, commercial, financial, managerial etc
- (6) **Experience:** knowledge arising from proper work.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 What are the six principles of management given by Fayol?

5.5 The need of Administrative Training

Fayol strongly believed in the value of systematic training for effective administration. He criticized French civil engineering schools for neglecting to include administration in their programs, arguing that such training was essential for good management. Fayol felt that administrative skills should be taught more broadly and integrated into educational curricula, as they play a crucial role in the success of both public and private organizations.

He also emphasized that training should be a continuous process, beginning in school and extending into on-the-job learning. According to Fayol, every supervisor in an organization should see themselves as a teacher, helping to develop the skills of their immediate subordinates. This approach, he believed, would foster a more capable and efficient workforce.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 Why we need administrative training?

5.6 Fayol's General Principles of Management

Fayol pointed out some basic principles of administration. These principles of Fayol are flexible and capable of adaption to every need. The most well known principles are following:

1. Division of work
2. Authority & Responsibility
3. Discipline
4. Unity of command
5. Unity of direction
6. Subordination of individual interest to general interest
7. Remuneration
8. Centralisation
9. Scalar Chain (Hierarchy)
10. Order
11. Equity
12. Stability
13. Initiative
14. Spirit-de-crops

1. Division of work : According to Fayol specialization belongs to natural order the division of work between the worker and manager increase their output. He emphasised that division of work principle should be applied both in the case of technical and non-technical organisation.

2. Authority & Responsibility: Fayol defines authority “as the right to give orders and power to exact obedience. By this Fayol means that authority and responsibility must go hand in hand. Fayol is of the view that people in organisation seek more authority and fear responsibility. This fear of responsibility paralyses initiative. He has said that vice-versa is equally true in other words. If he has some authority he should be given certain responsibilities as a corollary with authority.

3. Discipline: Discipline is a necessary element for the smooth running of administration. By this Fayol means that all workers in the organisation should obey the order of superiors in accordance with the standing agreement between the firm and its employees. Obedience should be absorbed in accordance with the standing agreements, for the efficiency and effectiveness in the organisation.

4. Unity of command: This principle is very important for an organisation which is based on a hierarchical basis. Fayol maintains that “an employee should receive orders from one superior only. According to him, a body with two heads in the social as in the animal sphere is a monster and has difficulty in serving.” Fayol is of the opinion that every employee should have only one boss to whom he should be accountable. The principle stresses on the receipt of commands from one superior and subordinate should also be accountable to him.

5. Unity of Direction : Fayol insists that there should be “one lead one plan for a group of activities having the same objective. He has made a distinction between unity of command and unity of direction. For Fayol, “unity of command” cannot exist without unity of direction, but does not flow from it.’ He said that the former is concerned with group the latter with the individual.

6. Subordination of individual to general interest : The interest of the employee or group should not prevail over that of the total organisation. By this he means that in an organisation over all interest of the organisation should get top priority. The interests of one employee or group of employees should not prevail over that of the total organization. He has said that in order to achieve the objective of the organisation and for its progress, if necessary the managers should sacrifice their personal interests for the collective interest.

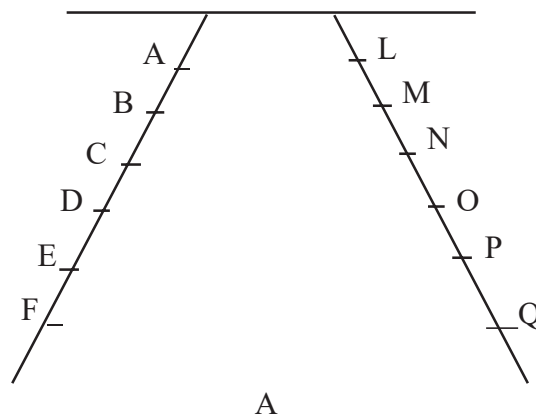
7. Remuneration of personnel : The remuneration for the services should be fair and afford satisfaction to both personal and the firm. From remuneration of personnel Fayol means that each employer should be adequately paid for the services rendered ‘by him. The wages & salary should be such that these provide satisfaction both to employees as well as the firm.

8. Centralisation : According to Fayol, centralization belongs to the natural order. In large organisations

series of intermediaries were necessary. The share of initiative left to intermediaries depends on the character of the manager on the reliability of his subordinates and on the conditions of business. Fayol has not used the word centralisation of power and authority but even then he believed that in order to efficiently run management, a manager must plan, organize, coordinate and control the work of the organisation.

9. Scalar Chain (Hierarchy) : The line of authority of superiors ranging from the ultimate authority to the lowest level. Hierarchy of scalar chain is a system in which there is a chain of officers from above to down below. In other words at the top is the superior whereas at the bottom is the lowest placed employee. Fayol points out the dangers of formalism. He says “it is an error to depart needlessly from the line of authority, but it is an even greater one to do so when detriment to the business ensues.” Thus if the rules of formal organisation are observed communication between two subordinates in different departments may be lengthy.

Each can contact the other only by sending a message up the ladder of command and waiting until it then descends to its destination. Fayol uses a figure to illustrate this problem.



Fayol has said that if the principle of hierarchy is strictly followed and every communication is to follow the method of proper channel then F is to send his message that will have to pass through E, D, C, B etc. It will have to pass through as many as nine channels which obviously is both time consuming and will result in delays, which no organization can afford. If 'F' is allowed to use gangplank i.e. he can level him and is not to pass through these many channels then not only time will be saved for reaching 'P' but delays will also be avoided. Level jumping however, should be allowed in

exceptional cases and that too with the permission of those who are to be level jumped. As said earlier level jumping should be in exception and not the rule.

However, Fayol point out that there is less use of the 'gang plank' in government agencies mainly for two reasons. First, because of vague aim in a government agency, each section tends to regard itself as its own end and neglect its relationship with other section, and second, the supreme authority itself not encourage its own subordinate, to use the 'gang plank' themselves.

10. One : Once the job structure is defined and the right personnel are chosen to fill the roles, each employee should be placed in a position where they can provide the most effective service. Fayol emphasizes the importance of ensuring that the right person is in the right role, which he refers to as proper placement. He believes that organizational order requires a clear understanding of both the human resources needed and the available resources, and that there should be a constant balance between these elements. This approach, he argues, leads to maximum production at minimum cost.

11. Equity : For the personnel to be encouraged to perform their duties with devotion and loyalty there must be equity based on kindness and justice in employer employee relation. It is one more principle of management which Fayol has put forth. According to him in order to encourage the personnel to perform their duties with devotion. This will make the employee loyal to the organisation.

12. Stability : Suitable conditions should be created to minimize turn over of employees. Fayol is for stability for smooth running of an undertaking. He had that instability of tenure is at one and the same time cause and effect of bad running. According to him such a stability is essential not because that the employees should identify themselves with the organisation also that they can easily pick up new assignments and perform their duties efficiently.

13. Initiative : The ability to think fresh would act as a powerful motivation of human behaviour. Initiative consists of thinking out a plan and ensuring its success. It means that an employee should be encouraged to come forward with his positive suggestions for the improvement of work and enthrust him to do more work.

14. Esprit-de-corp : Harmony, among the personnel of an organisation is a source of strength in that organisation. This principle believes that strength lies in unity. Fayol said that when number of persons work in an organisation differences are bound to arise but this principle stresses that factions and differences should be replaced by cooperation and unity.

Elements of management

Fayol made a distinction between general principle of management and elements of

management. He divides management function into five parts.

1. Planning : Fayol considered planning as the most important and difficult management function. For him managing meant “looking ahead” and Foresee meant both to access the future and make provision for it. He considered unity, continuity, flexibility and provision as the four features of a good plan. In his opinion a good plan is a precious managerial instrument.”

2. Organising : Fayol considered the organising function from a broad perspective and pointed out that to organise a business is to provide it with everything useful to its functioning raw materials tool capital personnel.” It should however, be noted that Fayol concerned himself both with structure and process listing sixteen managerial duties and emphasising the sixteen managerial duties and emphasising the necessity for clear objectives authority decision and task.

3. Command : After the organisation is formed it is mission of command to set it going for every manager the object of command is to get the optimum return for the employees of his unit in the interest of whom concern. The art of command, according to Fayol rests on certain personnel quality and a knowledge of general principles of management.

4. Co-ordination : According to Fayol to co-ordinate is to harmonise all the activities of a concern so as to facilitate its working and its process. According to him in a well be centenary the following facts are to be observed.

- (i) Every department works in harmony with rest.
- (ii) Division and subdivision in each deptt. are precisely informed as to the share they must take in the commercial task and the reciprocal and they are to afford one another.
- (iii) The working schedule of the various departments and subdivisions thereof is constantly to circumstances.

5. Control: According to Fayol control consists, in verifying whether ever occurs in conformity with the plan adopted, the instructions issued and the principle established, its object is to point out its weakness and orders to order to rectify them and prevent recurrence. It operates on everything-things people action.

Fayol's contribution to Management Thought:

Henri Fayol contribution to management through can be stated as under:

- (a) Management is a separate skill. It was Fayol who pointed out for the first time that

management function was quite distinct from other functions. This function of manager was considered by him as the most important and most difficult one.

(b) Father of Principles of management.

Fayol's most Important Principles of management

(i) Unity of direction,

(ii) Unity of command,

(iii) Responsibility equal to authority, and

(iv) Scalar Chain

These have been reproduced in almost all standard books on general management and organisation.

(c) Help in Development of Management Theory : One of the greatest contribution of Fayol is that his ideas and thought paved the way for the development of theory of management. Theo Haimann writes "His contribution to the theory of management is probably the most revolutionary and constructive that has ever been made."

(d) Systematic Analysis of the Process-management : The credit of a systematic analysis of a process management for the first time goes to Fayol. It was he who laid emphasis on various functions of management for the efficient functioning of an enterprise.

(e) Management can be and should be taught. It was again Fayol who firmly advocated that there are some general principles of management which can be and should be taught.

(f) Foundation of Classical theory of Organization : It is now widely acknowledged that Fayol's famous work General and industrial management formed the foundation of classical organizational doctrine

(g) Management skills are Universal-Fayol was the first to highlight the universal character of management principles: He said, "All undertakings require planning organization command coordination and control and in order to function properly, all must observe the same general principle".

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 What are the fourteen principles of management given by Henry Fayol?

5.7 Criticism of Fayol's Ideas

Fayolism has faced criticism from various quarters. Structuralists, in particular, argue that while Fayol focused extensively on functional classification, he overlooked the structural aspect of organizations. Peter Drucker, a prominent critic of Fayol's approach, pointed out that some of the most significant errors in organizational development stem from trying to impose a rigid, mechanistic model of an ideal or universal organization onto a dynamic, real-world business.

Norman Cuthbert has pointed out that Fayol's view on management theory contains weaknesses of analysis and assessment

- (i) His principles, elements and duties overlap.
- (ii) He confuses structure and processes.
- (iii) There is vagueness and superficiality about some of his terms and definitions.
- (iv) He hinted at, but did not elaborate the limitations of his view that management can and should be taught.
- (v) Senior managers and administration are imagined as an intellectual elite view which cannot be universal although true of his own circle.
- (vi) He placed a higher value on management theory than it could be expected to support on the importance of administration doctrine, as a contribution to peace.

In spite of some of the above mentioned limitations Fayol's contribution to management theory is regarded as unique and outstanding.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 Write a short note on critical evaluation of ideas of Fayol?

5.8 Taylor Vs Fayol

Fayol and Taylor are often regarded as pioneers of scientific management. Both were trained as scientists before transitioning into management roles, and they based their theories on practical observations. However, their focus areas differed. Taylor's work primarily addressed the operational level, particularly the shop floor, while Fayol's contributions were centered around management at the top level. Taylor's principles were concerned with management from the bottom

up, focusing on improving efficiency at the operational level. In contrast, Fayol, being a top-level manager, was in a better position to observe and analyze the broader functions of management.

1. Henry Fayol (1841-1925):

- Fayol was a French mining engineer and management theorist.
- He is known for his administrative theory of management.
- Fayol's work laid the foundation for modern management theory.

Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856-1915):

- Taylor was an American mechanical engineer and management theorist.
- He is known as the father of scientific management.
- Taylor's work focused on improving industrial efficiency through the application of scientific methods.

2. Approach to Management:

Henry Fayol:

- Fayol proposed a general theory of management that identified five key functions of management: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling.
- He emphasized the importance of managerial authority and the need for a clear organizational hierarchy.

Frederick Winslow Taylor:

- Taylor's scientific management focused on improving productivity and efficiency in industrial settings.
- He advocated for the scientific selection and training of workers, the standardization of tools and processes, and the use of time and motion studies to determine the most efficient way of performing tasks.

3. Division of Labor:

Henry Fayol:

- Fayol recognized the importance of division of labor in organizational efficiency.

- He emphasized the need for specialization and the division of work among employees to improve efficiency.

Frederick Winslow Taylor:

- Taylor's scientific management principles also emphasized the division of labor.
- He believed that work should be divided and standardized to increase productivity and reduce inefficiencies.

4. Worker-Management Relations:

Henry Fayol:

- Fayol emphasized the importance of effective communication and cooperation between workers and managers.
- He believed that a harmonious relationship between workers and managers was essential for organizational success.

Frederick Winslow Taylor:

- Taylor's approach to worker-management relations was more hierarchical.
- He advocated for a clear distinction between the roles of workers and managers, with managers responsible for planning and decision-making, and workers responsible for executing tasks as instructed.

5. Influence on Management Theory:

Henry Fayol:

- Fayol's administrative theory laid the groundwork for modern management theory.
- His principles of management, including the functions of management and the importance of organizational structure, remain influential today.

Frederick Winslow Taylor:

- Taylor's scientific management principles revolutionized the field of industrial engineering and had a significant impact on management practices in the early 20th century.

- While some of Taylor's methods have been criticized for their focus on efficiency at the expense of worker welfare, his ideas laid the foundation for modern operations management.

Henry Fayol and Frederick Winslow Taylor were two of the most influential figures in the development of management theory in the 20th century. While their approaches to management varied, both made lasting contributions to the field. Fayol's theory of administration emphasized the functions of management and the significance of organizational structure, whereas Taylor's principles of scientific management sought to enhance industrial efficiency through the use of scientific techniques. Despite their differing perspectives, both Fayol and Taylor had a profound impact on the evolution of modern management practices.

Self-check Exercise-6

Q.1 Differentiate between ideas of Henry Fayol and FW Taylor?

5.9 Summary

Henry Fayol, a successful executive of a mining company in France, made significant contribution to the management thought and thus considered as the Founder of 'Management Process School'. He emphasized the Universality of management processes and made a distinction between management and Public Administration. Fayol derived fourteen principles of administration. Which are capable of adaptation to various enterprises and settings. He emphasized the importance of training in administration. He suggested gangplank i.e. 'level jumping' to counter the limitation of hierarchy and formations.

5.10 Glossary

Authority- The power or right to give orders, make decisions and enforce obedience.

Control- The power to influencing or direct people's behavior or the losers of events.

Satiability- The state of being stable.

Command- give an authoritative or peremptory order.

5.11 Answer to Self-Check

Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 5.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 5.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 5.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 5.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 5.7

Self-Check Exercise-6

Ans 1. Refer to section 5.8

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5.13 Terminal Questions

- a. What are the managerial qualities recommended by H.Foyol?
- b. Elaborate Fayol's General Principles of Management.
- c. What do you mean by Gangplank?

UNIT 6

FREDERICK WINSLOW TAYLOR

Structure

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Learning Objectives
- 6.3 Taylors concept of Management
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 6.4 Objectives of Scientific Management
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 6.5 Taylors contributions of Management Thought
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 6.6 Criticism of Taylorism
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 6.7 Summary
- 6.8 Glossary
- 6.9 Answer to Self-Check Exercises
- 6.10 Terminal Questions
- 6.11 References/Suggested Readings

6.1 Introduction

The credit of systematic study and practice of management goes to Tredenck W. Taylor very well known in the management literature as the father of scientific management. Administrative science can be said to have truly begun with the writings of Taylor and the work of Henry Ford of Ford Motor

Company U.S.A.

Frederick K. Taylor was born in Germantown, Pennsylvania, on March 20, 1856. He began his career in 1875 as an apprentice in a small machinery manufacturing shop in Philadelphia. Having worked his way up from the lower ranks to a top position, Taylor understood that workers were producing only about one-third of their potential output. He identified the primary reason for this inefficiency as their reliance on traditional methods of production.

Taylor emphasized the importance of management in identifying the precise nature of tasks and determining the most effective ways to perform them. From 1901 onward, he dedicated his time to researching and refining scientific management techniques. His contributions to the field continued until his passing on March 28, 1915.

6.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able-

- To know about Taylors concept of management.
- To understand the principles of scientific management.
- To examine the cooperation between management and works.
- To comprehend the objectives of scientific management.

6.3 Taylors Concept of Management

According to Taylor, the primary goal of management is to ensure maximum prosperity for every employee. His philosophy of scientific management is based on the belief that there is no fundamental conflict between the interests of employers, workers, and consumers. Taylor emphasized that increased productivity should benefit all stakeholders—workers should receive higher wages, employers should earn greater profits, and consumers should enjoy lower prices for products.

Principles of scientific management

Taylor strongly advocated for social prosperity through class collaboration and intentional cooperation between workers and management. He believed that applying scientific methods to work processes required mutual understanding and teamwork. His management philosophy was

rooted in shared interests and was guided by four fundamental principles of scientific management.

1. Development of True science of work

His first principle retained to the development of a science of each task which would replace the rule of thumb in management. This he, observed could be achieved, by scientifically investigating the working conditions and the amount of work to be undertaken and then fixing daily task assignment so that the workers, may work in a planned manner. For this the work operating under the scheme of scientific management to be given higher rate of pay in comparison to one operating in an unscientifically managed factory. Clearly, he however, subscribes to the carrot and stick theory. He believed, that the worker should be penalized if he fails to achieve the desired level of output.

2. Scientific Selection and Training of Worker

Taylor's principle emphasizes the importance of scientifically selecting and placing workers in roles that best match their skills and abilities. This process should consider both their physical and intellectual capabilities. Additionally, management has a responsibility to provide proper training and opportunities for growth, enabling workers to enhance their skills and develop their full potential.

3. Equal Division of Work Between Management and Workers.

The third Taylorian principle was that there should be equal division of work and responsibility between the management and workers the management should take all' the tasks in its hands for which it was suitably prepared. This will mitigate chances of conflict and thus help in creating a peaceful atmosphere for both workers and the management.

Cooperation Between Management and Workers

Taylor's third principle emphasized the need for close cooperation between management and workers to create a healthy work environment and enhance industrial efficiency. He believed that the successful implementation of these four principles formed the foundation of scientific management.

Mechanisms of management:

Taylor distinguished between the “principles” of management and ‘mechanism of management. Some mechanism ensured by Taylor are:

1. The use of the stop-watch was essential for technique of time study.

2. Functional foremanship should be adopted by replacing the system of foremanship.
3. Standardization of all tools and techniques used in traders.
4. Planning of a large daily task should be undertaken in order to promote industrial efficiency. Therefore Taylor favoured the setting up of separate planning cell or a department in every industrial unit.
5. The use of time saving device, e.g. slide rules.
6. The use of instruction card system to record what to do and how to-do particular tasks.
7. Adaptation of proper classification, system of manufactured products as well as implements used in the manufacturing process.
8. Use of the bonus system for the successful performance of the task.
9. Application of the “exception principal under which Taylor called for setting up a large daily task, with reward for meeting it and penalty for not achieving the targets.
10. Promotion of modern costing system.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 What are the principles of scientific management given by FW Taylor?

6.4 Objectives of Scientific Management

The main aims of objectives of Taylor's society were:

1. To help in developing higher standards by increasing the income of worker.
2. To avoid wastage of resources in order to get larger, income from expenditure. This income should be get more income from expenditure. The income should be divided between the management and the workers.
3. Management should assure a happier home and environment to the worker by removing disagreeable factors.
4. Individually and socially, health conditions of work should be to the member of the organisation.
5. Maximum opportunities should be made available for the highest development of, individual's capacity through scientific method of work assignment and selection, training, transfer and promotion.
6. Training should be Imparted to workers so ‘that they may develop newer capabilities and at the

sametime eligible for promotion.

7. Measures should be taken for the development of self-confidence and self-respect among workers.
8. An atmosphere for research should be created where workers could develop of the organisation.
9. In order to promote justice, discrimination in wages would be avoided.
10. Factors which caused conflict and a feeling of intolerance should be eliminated from the environment.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 What are the objectives of scientific management given by FW Taylor?

6.5 Taylors Contribution of Management Thought:

The basic philosophy of Taylor's scientific management was that there was a need of / fundamental change of attitude on the part of both manager and man. He spoke of "mental revolution" on part of both employer and employees.

Mental Revolution :

According to Taylor, the essence of scientific management lies in a complete transformation of mindset for everyone involved in an industry or organization. Workers must rethink their responsibilities toward their tasks, colleagues, and employers, just as management, business owners, and decision-makers must redefine their approach toward employees and workplace challenges. This mutual shift in perspective is essential—without it, true scientific management cannot exist. Taylor believed that this profound change in thinking was the foundation of effective management.

Managerial Responsibilities: Taylor said that under scientific management managers should assume new responsibilities and new burdens. He strongly felt that it was their duty to develop a science of each task element and for selecting and training right persons for the right job. He grouped the new duties h responsibilities under four heads.

- i) They should develop a science of each element of mans work which replaces the old rule of thumb method.
 - They should scientifically select and then train, teach and develop the work man.

- They should heartily co-operate with the men' so as to ensure performance of work in accordance with the principles of the science which have been developed
- iv) There should be almost equal divisions of work and responsibility between management and workman.

Thus, in other words Taylor wanted that management should take the responsibility of planning, directing and organizing work.

II Prosperity of Employees : Taylor defined the art of management as “knowing exactly what you want men to do and then seeing that they do it in the best and cheapest way.”

In order to practice management is an art Taylor advocated the application of principles.

- A Large Daily Task :** Each man in the establishment, high or low should daily have a clearly defined task laid out before him.
- Standard Conditions :** Each man's task should call for a full day's work and, at the same time, the workman should be given some standardised conditions and appliances as will enable him to accomplish his task with certainty.
- High Pay for Success :** He should be sure of large pay when he accomplishes his task.
- Loss in Case of Failure :** When he fails he should be sure that sooner or later he will be the loser by it.
- Separation of Planning From doing :** One of the most important contributions of Taylor was to have highlighted that planning and execution were two different jobs. According to Peter Drucker,

“To have discovered that planning is different from doing was one of Taylor's most valuable insights.
- Functional Foremanship :** To exercise 'strict control over the workers who had systematic considerations. Taylor suggested functional foremanship and the division of function. Foremanship each worker should receive orders directly from different bosses.

In fact, functional foremanship is a byproduct of overspecialization. This being a violation of unity of command there remains greater danger of confusion.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What is the concept of mental revolution given by FW Taylor?

6.6 Criticism of Taylorism

There seems to be a sharp divergence of opinions among experts about the worth of Taylor's work. Opinions concerning the merits of Taylor's contribution to the scientific management movement range from that of exalted worship of his designation as the father of scientific management - to that of exposing his as original recipient of undue credit. Taylor's work criticised on following grounds

Taylor's scientific management faced criticism from several scholars, including British management thinker Oliver Sheldon, American business philosopher Mary Parker Follett, Sam Lewison, Elton Mayo, and Peter Drucker. They argued that Taylor's approach was overly mechanical and failed to consider human and social factors in the workplace. This criticism led to various industrial and psychological studies, most notably the **Hawthorne Experiments** conducted by Elton Mayo. These studies emphasized the importance of human relations and group dynamics in the workplace, ultimately challenging many aspects of Taylorism.

1. Taylor was criticized on the ground that he was excessively utilitarian and impersonal, paying too little attention to the human element and that in his schemes, wages of labour did not increase in direct proportion to productivity increase. His scientific management was considered to be autocratic or at best paternalistic.

2. Taylor's belief that workers are naturally lazy and tend to avoid work has been widely challenged. Brown's analysis suggests that work is an essential aspect of a person's life, as it provides status and fosters a sense of connection to society. When workers seem disengaged or unmotivated, the issue often lies not with them but with the psychological and social conditions of the job itself.

3. Another criticism of Taylor is that he did not properly understand the autonomy of the work. His emphasis on the minute division of the work and the specialization was severely criticized on several grounds.

(a) The work gets depersonalized, the worker becomes a mere cogs in the machine and the relation between the worker and executives become remote as a result of which he lacks the sense of participation in the work more than everything the worker finds no outlets to exhibit all his abilities and potentialities.

(b) Secondly it may be bad to automation of the worker which may have physiological and

neurological consequences.

(c) Thirdly Taylor's division of work people into planning and executive division has severely been criticized proper team spirit and, if planning is totally diverted from to secure the participation of the workers in, the progress of the firm.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Write a short note on critical evaluation of ideas FW Taylor?

6.7 Summary

Despite some limitations in fully understanding human psychology, sociology, and the intricacies of work, Taylor's contributions to management remain highly significant. His work is foundational in several ways: he was the first to apply systematic principles to management problems, emphasizing that it was the responsibility of management to clearly communicate expectations and specify the methods for completing tasks. Taylor also pioneered the idea of a "mental revolution," encouraging both employers and employees to adopt a more cooperative mindset. Furthermore, he introduced the use of time and motion studies to improve efficiency and recognized the importance of separating the planning of work from its execution. One of his key innovations was the concept of the "functional foreman," a role designed to optimize the management of tasks.

6.8 Glossary

Management – The process of dealing with or controlling things or people.

Cooperation- The action or process of working together to the same end.

Managerial- Related to management or managers.

6.9 Answer to self check exercise.

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 6.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 6.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 6.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 6.6

6.10 References/Suggested Readings

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6.11 Terminal Questions

- (a) What are the objective of scientific management?
- (b) Write a note on managerial responsibility.
- (c) Explain the concept of functional foremanship given by F.W. Taylor.

UNIT-7 MAX WEBER

Structure:

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Learning Objectives

7.3 Max Weber on Bureaucracy

Self-check Exercise-1

7.4 Max Weber on Authority

Self-check Exercise-2

7.5 Comments about Weber's Theory and Concept

Self-check Exercise-3

7.6 Challenges of Bureaucracy to Democracy

Self-check Exercise-4

7.7 Appreciations and Criticism of works of Max Weber

Self-check Exercise-5

7.8 Summary

7.9 Glossary

7.10 Answers to Self - Check Exercises

7.11 References/Suggested Readings

7.12 Terminal Questions

7.1 Introduction

Biographical Sketch of Max Weber

Max Weber (1864-1920) was brought up in Germany during the Bismarckian era. He was a

legal practitioner. In the Intellectually stimulating atmosphere of Waberians the young Weber in languages, history and the classics. Weber attended Heidelberg (1882) Gottingen and Berlin universities. Although Weber tried his luck at legal professional but simultaneously he acquired professional competence as an economist, historian and philosopher.

Weber took; this bar examination 1816 and completed his academic training in 1891 but his failing health did not permit him to hold a permanent academic position. After serving as a private docent hold a permanent academic position. After serving as a private docent in law at the university of Berlin and as a government consultant and having completed extensive research projects (this is the years immediately preceding and following his marriage in 1893), he became professor of economics first the university of Fribourg in 1894 and then at Heidelberg in 1896 in 1898 however. Learning Objectives:

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To understand the main features of Bureaucracy.
- To know about the concept and forms of Authority given by Max Weber.
- To analyze about charismatic theory presented by Max Weber.

To analyze about the challenges of Bureaucracy to Democracy.

7.2 Weber on Bureaucracy

In 1920, Weber brought out principles of Social & Economic Organisation in which he discussed bureaucracy is a like a social organisation in hierarchical order. In this individual are placed at different hierarchical order in a ladder in this every person has power and authority. The whole order is move or less permanent in nature and aims at running the state and it's administrative. According to Weber, bureaucracy has very close relationships which democracy. It is believed that a person can occupy any position in bureaucracy provided he is capable and able of doing so.

Max Weber constructed an "Ideal type" of model of bureaucracy it is called an ideal type of pure bureaucracy because it was believed that the bureaucratic necessary and efficient.

Main feature of Bureaucracy: According to Weber, bureaucracy of an ideal type was certain Features

1. There is a clear cut division of Labour with organisation tasks of officially designed as

belonging to various positions and states.

2. This division of labour is linked to specialization and employees are hired on the basis of their technical qualifications for the positions.
3. There is a hierarchy of authority, with officials or superordinates above and subordinates below. The scope of authority each above is clearly defined and limited.
4. There is a formally established system of rules & regulations that ensures co-ordination of activities and promotes stability.
5. Officials are expected to act universally and impersonally and judge others on the basis of their performance that is in terms of their actions rather than their personal traits.
6. Employment by an organisation provides security in that persons are selected according to their qualifications and can expect to advance systematically if they perform their functions correctly. Presumably, persons gain the right to their positions after a trial period are protected against arbitrary dismissal. The principle of job security is most typical of certain kinds of civil service positions and is reflected in seniority rules, and use of tenure in educational institutions. Matured Weber's ideal type is less characteristic of other actual work settings.

Rational Bureaucracy

Weber has defined bureaucracy as administrative body of appointed officials. According to him bureaucracy can be patrimonial which can be found in charismatic traditions societies and legal rational which is based on legal authority. It is also known as Weberian Model of Bureaucracy. He has said that whatever may be form or system of government, if that is to run efficiently for that it is essential that it should have legitimacy. In it obedience is not due to the individual who grants him that. Then he has said that with it a legal code can be possibly developed to which the members of the organisation are required to obey. One more feature of legitimacy is that those individuals who exercise authority should also obey impersonal order: Then it is to be seen that administrative looks after the interests of all in the org with in understood to mean system of abstract rules which are applied to specific cases.

Bureaucracy and Rationalization

Professor Zeithin says that "Growing bureaucratization was one more powerful manifestation of forms and technical rationality of the "rationalization" process in the West. Hence, it was essential, Weber believed to understand the nature of bureaucracy.

Weber is often considered as the main adherent to the theory about bureaucracy as efficient. Weber makes a number of claims in his 'Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft' that point towards some theory about bureaucratic ability or efficiency.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 What are the features of bureaucracy?

7.3 Max Weber on Authority

Power is highly intra going sociological concept. Power holders legitimate power as authority. Authority is power seen holders legitimate power as authority. Authority is power seen as legitimate reasonable too those affected by it. According to Weber, authority has social relationship with social control. It can however, be legal, traditional and charismatic. According to him legal authority is one which a person enjoys because of occupies that position. Traditional authority is one which one uses because traditionally that is being used. As regards charismatic authority, according to him it is an authority which is present in the individual by his own self. Weber identified three Ideal points of authority concerning different communities and Institutions,

1. Traditional Authority
2. Rational Legal Authority
3. Charismatic Authority

1. Traditional Authority : It is characterized by power which people accept because it is backed by customs and long usage. It is a type of authority which one gets not because of one is occupying a particular legal position or status but because traditionally authority or position of the person has a long been accepted. The ruler or a leader in such a system has authority by virtue of the status that he has inherited, and the extent of his authority is fixed by custom usage.

The organisation form under a traditional authority can be either:

- (i) Patrimonial or (ii) Feudal

Under the patrimonial form, the officials are personal servants who depend on their ruler for remuneration. But under the Feudal Form, the official have more autonomy with their own source of income. Two main important attributes of traditional authority one customs and personal attributes. Those who obey the command are called lower and have personal loyalty and regard for the master.

2. Legal Rational Authority : Legal authority is an organisation means use of authority in

accordance with certain well established principles and that too impartially. These principles should be applicable to all members in the organism. Such a type of authority is regarded legitimate because it had been achieved according to "rules and regulations". Specific for the attainment of power. All the regulation and democratic forms of government rest on legal authority.

3. Charismatic Authority : The term **charisma** refers to a unique quality in an individual's personality that sets them apart from others. This trait makes them appear exceptional, often perceived as possessing extraordinary or even superhuman abilities. Such qualities are considered beyond the reach of ordinary individuals and are sometimes believed to have divine or exemplary origins. Because of these attributes, a charismatic person is recognized and treated as a leader.

Administrative Authority

Weber wrote that, "the effectiveness of legal authority rests on the acceptance of the validity of the following mutually interdependent ideas :

1. A legal norm can be established either through agreement or based on one's position, grounded in considerations of expediency, rational values, or both. It carries a claim to obedience, particularly from the members of the corporate group.
2. That every body of law consists essentially in a consistent system of abstract rules which have normally been dimensionally established administration of law is held to consist in the application of these rules to particular cases.
3. The typical person in a position of authority holds an "office." In performing the duties linked to their status, including issuing commands to others, they are guided by an impersonal system to which their actions are aligned.

4. That the person who obeys authority does so as it is normally stated, only in his capacity as a member of the corporate group and what he obeys is only the law.

5. In conformity with point 3. it is held that members of the corporate group in so far as they obey a person in authority do not owe this obedience to him as an individual, but to the impersonal order. Hence, it follows that there is an obligation to obedience only within the sphere of the rationally distinctive authority which in terms of the order has been conferred upon him.

Fundamental Categories of Rational Legal Authority

1. A continuous organisation of official functions bound by rules.

2. A specified sphere of competence-marked of as part of a systematic division of functions in the provision of the incumbent with necessary authority of carry out these functions that the necessary means of compassion are clearly define and their use is subject to definite conditions. A just exercising authority which is organized in this way will be called an administrative organ”.

3. The organisation of officer follows the principle of hierarchy by that is, each lower officer under the control and supervision of higher one.

4. The rules governing office conduct can often be technical in nature, requiring specific expertise. For these rules to be applied effectively and rationally, proper training is essential. Therefore, it is typically expected that only individuals who have received adequate technical training are qualified to become part of the administrative staff in such structured organizations.

5. In the rational type of a matter principle that the members of the administrative staff should be completely from ownership of the mean of production or administrative. Officials, employee and workers attached to the administrative staff do not themselves own the non human means by production and administration.

6. In the rational type case, there is also a complete absence of appropriation of his official position by the Incumbent.

7. Administrative acts, decisions and rules formulated and recorded in writing, even in cases where oral discussion is the rule or is even mandatory.

8. Legal authority can be exercised in a wide variety of different forms which will be distinguished later.

Weber's analysis work deliberately confirmed to the extent of imperative co-ordination is the structure of the administrative staff. Weberian analysis consists in terms of ideal types or official law of bureaucracy.”

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 What are the various types of authority given by Max Weber?

7.4 Comments About Weber's Theory and

concept: Concept of personal Charisma

William Spindler of Adelphi University a Professor for Sociology as a major theme of his article

and in terms of personal charisma has little value for understanding macroscopic political events.

“In the objective is to lease out the more prominent features in his (Webers) formulations, to test their heuristic value as applied by him and others. In specific situations. Typically, he sought to facilitate understanding of reality, not to describe’ reality his ideal type concepts were designated as intellectual guides, not as logically tight categories.

Charisma is a type of authority which induces automatic obedience to an individual outside of and commonly counting obedience rats on the special personal qualities of such individuals inspired by the

early Christian notion of “gilt of grace” is its applicability to many types of social phenomenon often to any purely personal appeal or innovating tactics of a leader. Thus the personality attributes of charismatic suggest a unique human being with a transcendental aura and contain obvious religious implications possessed of a “supernatural and divine force capable of “super human powers inspiring awe and reverence even subjugation to the “Coercions of the gods. Some social scientists have developed more comprehensive lists of personality traits stimulating such observations among followers.

Assessment of Max Weber

Max Weber was highly conscious of power that such elite corps would likely to enjoy. Max Weber asserted that “the power position of a fully developed bureaucracy is always very strong and under normal conditions supreme. The political master finds himself in the position of the “dilettante” is the case of the ‘expert’ when he confronts the trained official established as manager of the “administration”. This remains true whether the political master is the whole people or an elected Parliament.

Weber viewed the bureaucratization of modern society with apprehension. The immense concentration of power in fewer and fewer hands was bound to endanger liberal-democratic institutions and to diminish individual freedom. Increasingly an individual was subjected to an organisation discipline that drastically reduced his initiatives, increasingly he was subjected to a formally rationality that eliminated any opportunities for autonomous genuinely rational conduct.

Max Weber's Assessment of Bureaucratic Power

Weber viewed the bureaucratization of modern society with apprehension. Bureaucratic discipline is nothing but the consistently rationalised, methodically prepared and exact execution of the received order, in which all personal criticisms are unconditionally suspended and the actor is as wearingly and exclusively set for carrying out the command.

Bureaucratic organisations are characterized for “regimentation” and discipline”. A bureaucracy, no less than a factory, tends to mold a person’s psycho-physical being in an effort to adapt it to the demands of the organisation. In short, bureaucracy “functionalized” human beings.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What is meant by personal charisma as per Max Weber?

7.5 Challenges of Bureaucracy to Democracy

Zeitlin says that, “The challenges that bureaucratization poses to democracy are formidable. Weber correctly fore saw that the powerful bureaucratic tendency is bound to bring with it less individual freedom, not more. Yet in no complex, industrial society has bureaucratization been halted, much less reversed. This is true in regardless of whether the societies in question are liberal-capitalist or socialist. Weber persuasive analysis therefore raises fundamental issue of vital concern to all of us.

In modern governance, bureaucracy and democracy often coexist, but their relationship is not without tension. Bureaucracy, characterized by structured and hierarchical organization, specialized roles, and a commitment to procedural correctness, can sometimes pose challenges to democratic ideals such as transparency, accountability, and citizen participation.

Key Challenges

1. Accountability and Transparency

- **Opacity in Decision-Making:** Bureaucratic processes are often complex and opaque, making it difficult for citizens to understand how decisions are made. This lack of transparency can lead to suspicions of inefficiency or corruption.
- **Limited Oversight:** While democratic systems have mechanisms for oversight, the specialized knowledge required to understand bureaucratic operations can make effective monitoring challenging for elected officials and the public.

2. Efficiency versus Responsiveness

- **Rigidity:** Bureaucratic structures are designed to ensure consistency and adherence to rules. However, this rigidity can make it difficult for bureaucracies to adapt quickly to new situations or respond to public needs.
- **Red Tape:** Extensive regulations and procedures can slow down decision-making processes, leading to delays in the implementation of policies and services that citizens rely on.

3. Representation and Inclusiveness

- **Distance from Citizens:** Bureaucrats are typically appointed rather than elected, which can create a gap between the public and those making administrative decisions. This can result in policies that do not fully reflect the needs or desires of the populace.
- **Insulation from Public Opinion:** Because bureaucrats do not face regular elections, they may be less responsive to public opinion and more focused on maintaining internal protocols and standards.

4. Concentration of Power

- **Expertise and Specialization:** Bureaucracies rely on specialized knowledge, which can concentrate power in the hands of a few experts. This can undermine democratic principles of equal participation and shared governance.
- **Administrative Discretion:** Bureaucrats often have significant discretion in how they implement policies, which can lead to inconsistent application of laws and potential abuse of power.

5. Innovation and Adaptability

- **Resistance to Change:** Bureaucracies are inherently conservative institutions, often resistant to change and innovation. This can hinder the adoption of new technologies or approaches that might improve public services.
- **Bureaucratic Inertia:** The large scale and hierarchical nature of bureaucracies can lead to inertia, where changing direction or implementing new policies becomes a slow and cumbersome process.

6. Ethical and Corruption Concerns

- **Ethical Dilemmas:** Bureaucrats often face ethical dilemmas, balancing the need to follow rules with the need to achieve outcomes. This can lead to situations where the most ethical choice is not clear.
- **Corruption Risks:** The concentration of power and lack of transparency in bureaucracies can create opportunities for corruption. Without strong oversight and

accountability mechanisms, unethical behavior can flourish.

Mitigating the Challenges

To address these challenges, various strategies can be employed:

- **Enhancing Transparency:** Implementing open government initiatives and using technology to make bureaucratic processes more transparent can help increase accountability.
- **Improving Responsiveness:** Reforming bureaucratic structures to be more flexible and responsive to citizens' needs can bridge the gap between bureaucracy and democracy.
- **Increasing Public Participation:** Encouraging greater citizen involvement in decision-making processes can help ensure that policies reflect the public's needs and values.
- **Strengthening Oversight:** Establishing robust mechanisms for oversight and accountability can help mitigate risks of corruption and abuse of power.
- **Promoting Ethical Standards:** Developing and enforcing strong ethical guidelines can help bureaucrats navigate complex ethical dilemmas and maintain public trust.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 What are the challenges of bureaucracy?

7.6 Appreciation and Criticism of works of Max Weber

It is significant that some aspect of Weber's work have been used as starting points of scholarly work that goes beyond his own frame of reference. A notable example is the work of Otto Hintze on comparative Constitutional Development (1902-1932). At the theoretical level Talcott Parsons has synthesized Weber's analysis of action in the structural-functional sociology of Durkheim. A third example is the analysis of emerging

poetical communities and the interpretation of charisma b Edward Shift (1956, 1959, 1960). These are only some prominent instances of the remarkable influence of Weber's work: Its many-sided intellectual perspectives and penetrating insights have proved more stimulating than a number of easier as more integrated systems of sociological thought.

Critics of Weber attack his concepts. Some have argued about his purposes, and still others about his model. Most frequently, he has been accused of taking the autocratic Prussian bureaucracy and making this the standard by which the world's organisations should be judged. Without doubt there is considerable truth in this; yet his writing forms the conceptual core of a large part of social science research in this field. The bureaucratic organisation thus viewed by Weber was more rational as compared to other non-rational bureaucratic organisations.

Robert R. Merton in his Classic Essay : Bureaucratic Structure and Personality (social forces 18:560:568) May 1940 felt that Weber had little impact on the more vocational management literature but the social scientists had, in recent past, used his model as a basis for empirical research in large scale organisations.

Weber contrasted bureaucracy and the rule of law with administrative and legal structure under patrimonialism while its analytical power is diminished when he was dealing with the study of politics and bureaucratic behaviour under existing legal systems (this has been pointed out by Bendix 1956, Blau 1963, Crozier 1963, Delan 1963, Luhmann 1964, Jchweitzer 1964).

Peter Blay says³ that Weber's notes explain the social structure only through the function of its elements. It does not investigate into disturbances or dysfunctions' that various produce in the structure of an organisation. Blay points out that Weber could not reorganize that the same factors that enhance efficiency in one respect often threaten it in another, it may have both functional and dysfunctional consequences. According to Blay efficiency in administration can be secured only when an individual is allowed to identify with the purpose of the organisation and to adopt his behaviour to his perception of changing circumstances.

Max Weber's bureaucratic form of organisation based strictly on formalistic structure is criticized by Chester Barnard and Simon. According to Barnard, informal organisations are necessary to the operation of formal organisation.

A close examination of Weber's model shows that it contains some contradictions. The two principles 'Impersonal detachment' and 'esprit de corps', which according to Weber achieve

administrative efficiency are incompatible, since if the relations between the administrative staff and dictated by impersonal detachment, it becomes difficult to see how unspent de crops can emerge. Likewise, rigid adherence to the principle of hierarchical relations between the superiors and the subordinates gives rise to mutual suspicion, as the ablatetends to conceal ordinates in their work and interfere with the upward flow of information. Similarly there is a contradiction between the system of promotion according to seniority and according to merits which again cannot fail to reflect on the hierarchically built relations.

While criticizing rational legal model of democracy as developed by Weber, Merton has said the structure in which Weber has laid stress on hierarchy and rules can easily generate unexpected consequences which can prove detrimental to the attainment of objectives of an organisation. Further, Weber has said stress on the division of function in an organisation. Setzrick while criticizing this has said that in actual practice it has been

found that each sub-unit sets up its own goal which conflict with the goal of the organisation as a whole. Robert Presthus has also criticized Webers concept of bureaucracy by saying that he makes implicit assumptions about human motivations which are not necessary valid in non-western environments.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 Write a short note on criticism of the ideas of Max Weber.

7.7 Summary

Despite all the differences, criticism, Max, Webers model of bureaucracy form of organisation has gained widespread recognition in practice of organisation both in developed and developing countries. His model continues to influence the development of modern organisation and administration. Weber's model still attracts many administrators and researchers. Some social scientists feel that bureaucracy is studying on the way of development and they stand for de bureaucratization. According to Weber, the bureaucratic form makes the members of administration staff work efficiently-men they possess the requisite skills and know-how and use them rationally.

7.8 Glossary

Bureaucracy – a system of government in which most of the important decisions are taken by state officials rather than by elected representatives.

Rationalization- the action of attempting to explain or justify behavior or an attitude with logical

reasons, even if these are not appropriate.

Personal Charisma- magnetic attraction of an individual's which produces an effect on other individuals.

7.9 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 7.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 7.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 7.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 7.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 7.7

7.10 References/Suggested Readings

- Prasad, D. Ravindra, Prasad, V.S. and Satyanaryana, P. 'Administrative Thinkers', Sterling Publishing House, New Delhi, 2009.
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7.11 Terminal Questions

- a. Discuss about the challenges to Democracy?
- b. What are the similarities between charismatic and trait theory of authority?
- c. Write a note on legal rational authority of Max Webers.

UNIT-8

KARL MARX

Structure:

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Learning Objectives
- 8.3 Origins of Bureaucracy
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 8.4 Bureaucracy as an Exploitative Instrument
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 8.5 Parasitic Role of Bureaucracy
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 8.6 Bureaucrat's Private Ends
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 8.7 Characteristics of Bureaucracy
 - Self-check Exercise-5
- 8.8 Glossary
- 8.9 Answers to Self-check Exercises
- 8.10 References/Suggested Readings
- 8.11 Terminal Questions

8.1 Introduction

Marxism, founded on the works of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, has had a significant impact on social sciences across the world. Karl Marx is considered one of the three key figures, alongside Émile Durkheim and Max Weber, who shaped modern social science. As a philosopher, economist,

historian, political theorist, sociologist, communist, and revolutionary, Marx offered a comprehensive critique of the economic and political systems that shape modern organizations. His ideas laid the groundwork for modern communism, and no other thinker has had as profound an influence on 20th-century thought as Marx. His work inspired the formation of numerous political regimes worldwide, making any discussion of state, society, and administration incomplete without considering his contributions.

Beyond his economic theories, Marx's most significant contribution to the social sciences is his theory of historical materialism. This concept attempts to unify all social sciences into one cohesive science of society. Marx argued that human survival is intrinsically linked to social organization, and each mode of production is built upon specific relations of production that form the foundation (or "infrastructure") of society. This infrastructure supports a complex superstructure, which includes the state, law, ideology, religion, philosophy, art, morality, and more. Marx's philosophy offers valuable insights into the functioning of modern organizations, including administrative structures like bureaucracy, which are not new but have existed for thousands of years, particularly in ancient Egypt, Rome, China, and India. In contemporary times, bureaucracy has taken on a special significance and is often seen as a symbol of the modern era.

8.2 Learning Objectives:

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- 8.1.1 To understand the main features of Bureaucracy.
- 8.1.2 To know about the concept and forms of Authority given by Max Weber.
- 8.1.3 To analyze about charismatic theory presented by Max Weber.
- 8.1.4 To analyze about the challenges of Bureaucracy to Democracy.

8.3 Origins of Bureaucracy

In Karl Marx's and Friedrich Engels' theory of historical materialism, the origins of bureaucracy are traced to four key sources: religion, the formation of the state, commerce, and technology. Early bureaucracies were made up of religious clergy, officials, scribes who performed rituals, and armed functionaries tasked with maintaining order. As human societies transitioned from small, egalitarian

communities to more complex, class-based civil societies around 10,000 years ago, authority became more centralized and enforced by a state apparatus that operated separately from society. The state began to create, enforce, and uphold laws, as well as collect taxes, giving rise to an officialdom responsible for carrying out these duties. In this way, the state mediated conflicts among individuals and ensured that they stayed within acceptable limits. It also organized defense efforts and restricted the right of ordinary people to use force, reserving this authority for state authorities.

The rise of trade and commerce added another layer to bureaucracy, as the need for record-keeping, managing transactions, and enforcing trade laws grew. As markets increasingly determined the distribution of resources through pricing, the complexity of commercial administration surpassed that of government administration. In modern capitalist societies, this shift is evident, as private sector bureaucracies often outnumber government bureaucracies in terms of the number of administrative workers. Some corporations even have revenues that exceed the national income of entire countries, necessitating large administrative teams to manage their operations.

A fourth source of bureaucracy, according to Marxist theory, lies in the technologies of mass production, which require standardized routines and procedures. Even with the advent of machines replacing human labor, there remains a need for people to design, control, supervise, and operate the machinery. The technologies chosen for mass production may not necessarily benefit everyone equally, but they often serve the interests of a particular class, maintaining their economic power. This type of bureaucracy, sometimes referred to as a technocracy, derives its authority from control over specialized technical knowledge or access to critical information.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on origin of bureaucracy?

8.4 Bureaucracy as an Exploitative Instrument

In Karl Marx's and Friedrich Engels' theory of historical materialism, the origins of bureaucracy are traced to four key sources: religion, the formation of the state, commerce, and technology. Early bureaucracies were made up of religious clergy, officials, scribes who performed rituals, and armed functionaries tasked with maintaining order. As human societies transitioned from small, egalitarian communities to more complex, class-based civil societies around 10,000 years

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Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 How can you say that bureaucracy is an exploitative instrument?

8.5 Parasitic Role of Bureaucracy

Marx views the political system as a product of the collective activities of people within society. In the Preface to *A Contribution to the Critique of Political Economy* (1859), he asserts that law and the state are not autonomous or merely the products of human thought, but arise from "material conditions of life." This perspective applies not only to the position of rulers, which is shaped by social consent rather than natural law, but also to the state and bureaucracy. For Marx, productive activity is central to understanding human affairs.

He argues that the mode of production should not be seen just as the reproduction of material existence, but as a specific form of human activity and expression. In his words: *"Rather, it is a definite form of their activity, a definite way of expressing their life. As individuals express their life, so they are. What they are, therefore, coincides with what they produce and how they produce."* In this view, the nature of individuals is shaped by the material conditions that govern their mode of production. Marx emphasizes that social structures and the state evolve from the real-life experiences of individuals, not from imaginary ideas or perceptions, but from how people truly exist within their society.

Marx believes that the key to understanding the relations of production lies in recognizing the social classes. In each mode of production, there are two primary classes: one that owns the means of production and one that does not. In a class-based society, Marx argues, bureaucracy does not have an intrinsic role in the production process. He critiques bureaucracy as a "parasite," created to uphold the status quo and protect the privileges of the ruling class, rather than serving as a necessary part of productive labor.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 Write a short note on parasitic nature of bureaucracy?

8.6 Bureaucrat's Private Ends

State power functions for the bureaucracy in much the same way that private property serves the property-owning class. As Marx states, "bureaucracy holds in its essence the state, the spiritual essence of society; it is its private property." He goes on to explain that bureaucracy "constitutes the imaginary state alongside the real state, and is the spiritualism of the state." In the case of individual bureaucrats, the broader objectives of the state become personal ambitions, with the pursuit of higher positions and career advancement taking center stage.

For Marx, the state is not the higher, ethical entity that Hegel suggested, existing above the family or civil society. He rejects the idea that the state has a universal role in harmonizing societal conflicts and uniting people on a higher moral level. In *The German Ideology*, Marx traces the origin of the state and other social institutions to the division of labor. Each historical mode of production creates a political system that serves the interests of the dominant class. Marx argues that the state is essentially the instrument through which the ruling class asserts and defends its collective interests.

Marx saw bureaucracy as a key tool of exploitation within the state. Rather than promoting the public good or fostering communication with citizens, bureaucracy exists to safeguard the private interests of the ruling class. To do so, it cloaks state activities in secrecy, keeping the public in the dark. Marx describes the general spirit of bureaucracy as one of concealment and mystery, noting that it avoids transparency and treats any public awareness of state matters as a form of betrayal.

Bureaucracy's power is rooted in maintaining this secrecy, with a hierarchical structure that keeps information closed off and distant from the public. As a result, people become alienated, seeing bureaucracy as an imposing, remote force. The bureaucrats themselves also suffer from alienation, often unaware of the exploitative and oppressive nature of their roles in perpetuating the system.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 What are the private ends of bureaucracy?

8.7 Characteristics of Bureaucracy

Marx highlights several core features that define bureaucracy, including division of labor, hierarchy, training, and rules. Each of these elements plays a crucial role in shaping the functioning of modern organizations, particularly within capitalist society.

Division of Labor: While Marx acknowledges that the division of labor contributes to increased productivity in capitalist organizations, he also points out a significant oversight—the division between intellectual and material activities. Workers engage in physical labor, while capitalists and bureaucrats handle intellectual tasks. As a result, workers bear the brunt of the hard work, while the gains of higher productivity mainly benefit the capitalists, with bureaucrats receiving their share through higher salaries. In some cases, the introduction of high-tech processes leads to higher unemployment among workers, reducing wages, and leaving them with minimal benefits from the increased productivity.

Hierarchy: Marx criticizes the hierarchical nature of bureaucracy, which he believes does not prevent individuals from pursuing personal career ambitions. He describes bureaucracy as a hierarchy of knowledge, where those at the top entrust lower levels with specific insights, while the lower levels regard the top as holding a broader understanding of the general picture. This creates mutual deception, with all parties deceived by the hierarchical structure. Marx rejects the

idea that any safeguards against bureaucratic abuses can be based on the human qualities of officials, suggesting that the bureaucracy's inherent structure prevents genuine protection from exploitation.

Training: While Hegel argued that liberal education could humanize civil servants, Marx contends that the bureaucratic system dehumanizes workers. The mechanical nature of bureaucratic work and the pressures of office work diminish the individual's humanity. Marx also critiques the system of competitive examinations for selecting bureaucrats, pointing out that they favor individuals from the upper classes who can afford expensive higher education, which also reinforces capitalist values. Education in this system not only creates social distance but also serves the interests of the capitalist system, which is further reflected in the alienation of workers in bureaucratic structures.

Rules: Marx observes that bureaucratic minds, conditioned by subordination and passive obedience, come to view adherence to rules as an end in itself, rather than as a means to achieve a broader goal. Bureaucrats focus on following the rules without regard for human needs, which leads to a dehumanized, rigid system. As a result, "actual knowledge" seems empty, and social life appears lifeless.

Theory of Alienation: Marx's theory of alienation suggests that under capitalist conditions, workers lose control over their lives and work, becoming alienated from their productive activity. In pre-capitalist societies, individuals, such as artisans, had more autonomy in their work, but under modern industrial conditions, workers are reduced to cogs in an impersonal, large-scale production system. This alienation applies to both workers and bureaucrats. The bureaucrat, like the worker, is alienated from the product of their work and from their fellow employees, contributing to a sense of disconnection and loss of autonomy.

Marx identifies four key aspects of alienation within administrative theory:

1. **Loss of Freedom:** Both the exploited and the exploiters suffer from alienation. Workers are forced into jobs and then controlled by management through coercion and threats. Even capitalists lose their freedom, as they are constrained by the demands of their business.
2. **Loss of Creativity:** Bureaucracy stifles creativity by enforcing rigid divisions of labor, where no worker has ownership of the entire product. Hierarchies also limit individual contributions, and the detailed control ensured by rules suppresses the worker's ability to innovate. Even administrators, who might be responsible for policy-making, cannot claim

full credit for their contributions.

3. **Loss of Humanity:** Workers in large bureaucratic organizations become increasingly machine-like in their functions, stripped of their humanity. The office itself becomes an impersonal structure that overlooks the human aspects of its workers. Managers, too, are part of this impersonal system, which diminishes the human values essential for meaningful work.
4. **Loss of Morality:** Marx argues that the loss of freedom, creativity, and humanity leads to a loss of morality. It is immoral to strip workers of their freedom and reduce them to mere tools for production. Likewise, when professionals, such as engineers or doctors, prioritize profits over the safety of others, they become immoral. The lack of sensitivity to others' suffering within bureaucratic systems is also a moral failing.

In essence, Marx's critique of bureaucracy centers on its dehumanizing effects and its role in maintaining capitalist exploitation. Bureaucratic structures, through their focus on hierarchy, rules, and division of labor, alienate individuals from their work, their fellow workers, and their own humanity.

Proletariat's Alienation from Bureaucracy

For Marx, bureaucracy serves as a symbol of alienation for the working class. This alienation has two major implications. Firstly, it suggests that before dismantling the bureaucratic system, the state itself must be abolished. In *The Eighteenth Brumaire*, Marx notes that while past revolutions sought to challenge bureaucratic control, the proletariat must go further by completely eliminating the institution.

On the other hand, Max Weber saw bureaucracy as the rational outcome of social engineering, much like the machines of the Industrial Revolution were the result of mechanical engineering. He argued that bureaucracy advanced primarily due to its technical superiority over previous organizational forms, comparing it to how machines revolutionized production methods. Weber coined the term "rational bureaucracy," highlighting its features: functional specialization, clear hierarchical authority, expert training for managers, and decision-making based on consistent rules. These elements work together to ensure that organizations function efficiently and predictably, achieving their goals with minimal deviation.

Weber also emphasized the importance of merit-based appointments and promotions in bureaucracies, ensuring that individuals are chosen for their expertise rather than personal favoritism. He argued that to maintain order in decision-making, business must be conducted through formal, written rules and records. Hierarchical authority is necessary so that managers with specialized expertise can effectively supervise their departments. Weber further observed that top officials often rotate through different divisions within the organization to understand the diverse issues their subordinates face, ensuring a more comprehensive approach to management.

In contrast, Marx took a class-based approach to understanding bureaucracy, seeing it as directly tied to the social divisions within society. He argued that bureaucracy is not an independent social entity but depends on the division between civil society and the state. According to Marx, bureaucratic recruitment, such as the examination process, is not a means of bridging civil society and the state; rather, it serves to separate individuals and their activities from the common good, placing them within the state apparatus. Marx viewed the examination as nothing more than a “bureaucratic baptism of knowledge.”

Marx’s take on bureaucracy also includes two crucial points about its relationship with other social corporations. First, bureaucracy often perceives other corporations as rivals and actively competes against them. Second, it relies on the existence of corporations or the “spirit of corporations,” aiming to serve its own particular interests, much like the corporate entities it competes with.

Marx’s analysis of bureaucracy has profound implications across sociology, politics, and economics. As Avineri points out, bureaucratic structures do not merely reflect the prevailing social power; they distort and manipulate it. Bureaucracy, in Marx’s view, is not an external or accidental feature of the state but is inherently intertwined with the state’s very existence. Hal Draper further elaborates, stating that bureaucracy is not just an unfortunate byproduct but an essential part of the state's structure.

From a political standpoint, Marx’s theory of bureaucracy carries a clear message for the proletariat. Marx was not content to merely interpret the world; he sought to change it. He believed that the state’s machinery must be violently overthrown, with the level of violence dictated by the strength of the state’s military and bureaucratic apparatus. For Marx, it is essential for the proletariat to assess the nature and power of the bureaucracy in an oppressive state, recognizing it as a central barrier to revolutionary change.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 What are the features of bureaucracy?

8.8 Glossary

Karl Marx, “Bureaucracy is a necessary evil”

“Capitalist society is the one in which large investment of capital is made by small group of persons for production of goods with the aim of maximizing the profit”

8.9 Answers to Self-check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 8.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 8.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 8.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 8.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 8.7

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8.11 Terminal Questions

1. Describe Marx's ideas on Bureaucracy?
2. What do you understand by proletariat?

UNIT-9

ELTON MAYO

Structure

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Learning Objectives
- 9.3 Hawthorne experiments
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 9.4 Special Study as Human Attitudes and Sentiments
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 9.5 Human Factor in Management
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 9.6 Main findings of Hawthorne Experiments
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 9.7 Criticism
 - Self-check Exercise-5
- 9.8 Summary
- 9.9 Glossary
- 9.10 Answer to Self-Check Exercises
- 9.11 References/Suggested Readings
- 9.12 Terminal Questions

9.1 Introduction/Life Sketch

George Elton Mayo (1880-1949) exercised an influence on the management studies which as

overbearing and propound. His influence on research was for more than a century with of course his famous Hawthorne studies. He studied both industrial sociology and psychology and devoted his attention to studying the problems of private Industrial establishments on the one hand and fatigues, industrial accidents, rest period on the other.

Born in 1880 at Adelaide Australia, Elton Mayo received his M.A. degree in logic and philosophy from the

University of Adelaide in 1899. He travelled widely in search of a suitable profession. In this attempt he studied medicine in Edinburgh, Scotland. Mayo also studied Psychology at Adelaide University. After teaching in the University of Queensland in 1919, Mayo emigrated to America and joined the faculty of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. Later in 1926, Mayo became Professor of Industrial Research at Graduate School of Business Administration. He concentrated all his attention on private industrial establishment and was supported by Rockefeller and Carnegie Foundation Grants throughout his career.

In all his research programmes Mayo focused his attention on the behaviour of the workers and their production capacity keeping in view physiological, physical, economic and psychological aspects. He called this approach a clinical method. Mayo published a few books i.e. the Human problems of Industrial Civilization. The Social Problems of Industrial Civilization. The Political Problems of Industrial Civilization, and contributed a number of scholarly articles, to several journals. To name a few i.e. what is Monotony? Changing Methods in Industry, The Frightened People, Supervision — what it means?

Influence on Mayo

Mayo was an original thinker and in his thinking he was very much influenced by Pierre Janet and Sigmund Freud, well known Psychologists of his times. It was under their influence that he paid his attention to the behaviour of the workers. Mayo carried out several experiments with a view to finding out the factors which influence the behaviour of the workers and their effects on production.

The First Inquiry: - It was first major research experiment which was carried out by Mayo, while he was at Harvard. The experiment was in a textile mill near Philadelphia in 1923.

The mill was considered a model organisation and provided many facilities to the workers. The employers were quite cooperative but even then mule spinning department was creating problems for the management where turnover was about 250%. In order to come over difficulties the management introduced 'schemes' but the labourers did not stick to this department of the mill.

Even financial incentives introduced in consultation with efficiency engineer, did not produce the

desired results. The management referred the problem for study results. The management referred, the problem for study to Harvard University.

Mayo's Solution: - After studying the problem he started his experiment by introducing rest periods of 10 minutes each time in the morning and afternoon with every team. He found that results were encouraging. The problem of physical fatigue appeared to have been come over. The labour turn over did not exist and morale of the workers, improved. In addition, production went up. The system of earning bonus was introduced by which those workers who produced more than a certain percentage were paid bonus proportionate to their extra production. This further reduced labour turn over and related in extra production.

After sometime for some reasons the scheme of rest pauses was abandoned, within a week production and fatigue reappeared. Again the Mill had to be shut down for 10 minutes each, four times a day.

9.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To know about the life sketch of Elton Mayo and his Contribution.
- To understand about Hawthorne experiments and their findings.
- To Comprehend about the role of Human factors in Management.

9.3 Hawthorne Experiments:

These experiments were carried out by Mayo and his colleagues and changed radically the thinking of management. The experiments were carried out for about 8 years between 1924-1932 in Hawthorne works of Western Electric Company of the U.S.A. These were carried out jointly by Western Electric Company and Graduate School of Business Administration of Harvard University under the auspices of National Research Council.

The company employed 25,000 workers and was located in the Chicago city. The management of the company believed that there was cause-effect relationship between the physical Work, environment, the well being and productivity the workers. It also believed that given proper ventilation, temperature, lighting and other physical conditions along with wage incentive schemes, the production will go up. Problems which blocked efficiency were believed to be improper job design, fatigues and other conditions of work. Illumination of the workplace was also believed to be an important aspect since it affected the quality, quantity and safety. Therefore, the National Research Council for the National Academy of sciences decided to examine the precise relationship between illumination and the efficiency of the worker with a research programme at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric Company.

Need for Experiments

It may however be mentioned that at the time of carrying out of experiments management properly looked after the interests of the workers. They had fixed working hours, paid reasonably good wages and there was provision for a good canteen and hospital. They also had scope for entertainment. During the last 25 years, the workers had not gone on strike even once. But even then the workers were not satisfied. They had no good social life and were not satisfied. They had no good social life and were always suffering from one disease or the other. There was always a tense atmosphere in the company. In order to find out the causes of the tension the following experiments were carried out.

1. The lighting experiments,
2. The relay Assembly Test room Experiment.
3. Second Relay Ass Group Test.
4. The Mica Splitting Group Test
5. The Bank wiring Group observation

The Lighting Experiments

In one of the experiments two groups of female workers each consisting of six was selected and located in two separate rooms. Each group was required to perform same type of work. The rooms were equally illuminating and the experiments to be carried out were to find out as to what was the effect of light on production. In the beginning in both the rooms same conditions of work were

provided but subsequently whereas in one room no change in light was made during work hour, in the other room light, was increased and decreased. The experiment was carried out for one and a half year and at the end it was found that irrespective of the effect of light, production in both the cases increased. Thus it was concluded that increases in light had no significant effect, hence light experiment was abandoned.

Later Mayo tried to find out the effect of payment of wages rest periods, during working hours, group incentives, individual piece rate on rise and slowing down on production. All changes led to increased production. Production also went on increasing when working hours were reduced and better canteen facilities were provided to the workers. In a bid to find out the causes which adversely affected production the researchers decided to revert the old system by abolishing all the above mentioned privileges and began from the position from which the experiments had been started. 'But even then production went on increasing and this puzzled

the research team. Thus, the researchers concluded that neither light, nor incentive scheme, nor rest period had really any relevance with increased production.

The Relay Assembly Test Room Experiments

These experiments started in 1927 continued till 1932. The outcome was some important findings. In these experiments six girls were picked up for experimentation. These were put in a small room and assigned the duty of assembling small telephone parts. These were never experts nor raw in the work also to them. These were average workers. An observer was appointed to observe their performance. He observed not only when they were at work but also temperature, humidity happenings, conversations in the room and production of girls. The girls were also medically experienced.

Another experiment carried out was that the workers were given minutes in the morning and in the evening and it was found that production remained unchanged. When rest pause was increased from 5 to 10 minutes there was marginal increase in production.

The production however, increased when the workers were given 15 minutes rest in the morning and 10 minutes rest in the evening and also provided hot free food.

Finding: Mayo and his team thus carried out several experiments about rest pauses and working hours and found that for about rest pauses and working hours and found that for about one and a half years production increased and the workers were quite happy. They came close to each other and there was good understanding between the workers and the observers. They also worked in a free

atmosphere and the management did not interfere much in their style of working. Physical atmosphere conditions, it was found could as well as could not adversely affect production. It was also found that the girls which were being experimented showed considerable concern about their job security when the world was faced with serious when the world was faced with serious when the world was faced with serious economic depression of 1929.

The researchers also established that relief from monotony always meant more production as that had nothing to do with physical environments. It was also found that it was not wage it something else that led to greater output. Then Mayo also found that work satisfaction depended to a large extent on the informal social pattern of the working group. The supervisor therefore, should be so trained that they should take personal interest in the subordinates. This can help in increased production. He suggested that an environment should be created by which the workers could openly tell their requirements freely to their superiors in the company. Supervision morale and productivity go hand in hand.

The Second Relay Assembly Group Test

In this test a group of workers were kept away from their main department and made to work as a separate group. For this purpose in 1932 five workers were selected. They were assured monetary incentives and for about nine weeks their work was supervised. A separate account was kept of their output after joining the group. Their working conditions were not materially changed. The only change was that these workers were not allowed to mix with the workers of their main group. It was found that the production increased by about 13%. Mayo and his team thus came to the conclusion that if the workers were kept in separate groups then production could go up.

Some other Experiments:

In an experiment called Mira Splitting group experiment some girls were kept in a separate room where their working conditions were changed five times in a 'gear. It was found that girls did not cherish these changes. The researchers also found that these workers and established social contacts. Mayo and his team came to the conclusion that to a large extent work satisfaction was responsible for this.

During 1928-29 about 1600 workers were interviewed and they were questioned about their working conditions, company's policies and programmes etc. They were asked to express their views freely and frankly. The views expressed by the workers helped in developing certain good

principles to be followed by the company. The Interviews also made it clear that demands of the worker were very much influenced it clear that demands of the workers were very influenced by internal and external forces. It was also found that the adverse feelings of the workers to a large extent could be adjusted.

The last phase of these experiments was Bank Wiring Group observation. The main purpose of the observe was to know the role of informal social relationship on production etc. It was found that in a commercial organization informal social relationship had very important role. It was established that instead of monetary incentives informal social contacts and human approach to the problems of the workers go along way.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Describe the Hawthorne experiments conducted by Elton Mayo.

Q.2 Write a short note on Relay Assembly Test Room Experiment.

9.4 Special Study on Human Attitudes and Sentiments

This study revealed that when workers were given the opportunity to voice their concerns, they experienced a sense of relief, even though no changes were made to their wages or work environment. The research also found that there was no significant correlation between the type of complaint and the outcomes, but it did highlight that workers' personal and family issues negatively impacted their performance at work.

Additionally, the study showed that when workers were encouraged to share their thoughts on company policies, activities, and their personal concerns, they felt a sense of validation. The act of expressing themselves made them feel more respected, as it gave them a voice alongside the management. This sense of being heard brought them a sense of satisfaction, even if no immediate changes were made.

Subordinates, who had previously been intimidated by their supervisors, were now able to openly share their opinions.

In the Bank Wiring Experiment, it was observed that workers had a clear, self-imposed standard of output that was lower than the management's target. Despite some workers being capable of producing more, the group collectively decided not to increase or decrease the output. The group maintained a strong internal cohesion, exerting informal pressure on members to correct any behavior that deviated from their agreed-upon norms. They deliberately kept the workload balanced, avoiding attempts to stand out or show excessive effort. Furthermore, they collectively agreed not to share information with their superiors that

could potentially undermine the group's interests. Interestingly, the behavior of the group had little to do with management directives or the plant's broader economic conditions. The workers were particularly resistant to interference from technologists in their tasks.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Write a short note on Human Attitudes and Sentiments Experiment.

9.5 Human factor in Management

Mayo pointed out that each individual had certain hopes, expectations and aspirations and as such he could not be made to work under the threat or use of force. He was of the opinion that for efficiency and better production human factor played a more important role than technical factors and as such the former should be given maximum importance. He has suggested that at work satisfaction also provides social satisfaction. He has also said that due attention should be paid to individual problems of the workers as well, so that these do not become organizational problems and hamper production.

Mayo also found that during the course of their work the workers themselves developed their cultural and social contacts and that these could be studied and analysed. It was very essential that an administrator, while paying attention to achieving targets of the organisation should try to give social satisfaction to each worker and try to meet his social needs. He has suggested the managers to pay more attention to win the cooperation of the workers and study human aspect in the organisation.

Absenteeism in Industries

Mayo also studied the problem of absenteeism in three industries and found that this could be considerably checked if the management encouraged formation of informal groups and treated the workers with human understanding. He therefore, suggested the management that the workers should not be treated only as one of the factors of production but as human beings. They should not carry the impression that the management is bent upon exploiting them. The management should try to develop human relationship in industry and encourage the workers to take initiative.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 Describe the issue of absenteeism in industries.

9.6 Main findings of Hawthorne Experiments

These experiments which were carried out for years together made Mayo and his team come to the conclusion that human approach of the management not only increase production also gives social satisfaction to the workers. The workers automatically do not develop group feelings but for that the management should make efforts. The demands of the workers are influenced both by internal Condition prevailing in the organisation and those which prevail outside the organisation. Environmental conditions and light does not materially affect output and production. Similarly physical and environmental factors do not adversely affect the efficiency of the worker. The experiments also brought out clearly the role of informal social group in production and output; The experiments also established that the workers did not work simply for the sake of earning money but these were also several other causes for that, which had not much relevance with money.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 What were the major findings of Hawthorne Experiment?

9.7 Criticism

Mayo and his findings faced significant criticism. One major critique was that his theory seemed to promote human relations-focused supervisors as a replacement for union representation. Critics argued that Mayo failed to grasp the importance of unions in a free society. They contended that he never truly incorporated unions into his framework, which led to accusations that he was anti-union and overly supportive of management.

In fact, in 1949, the United Auto Workers union strongly criticized Mayo's ideas, even condemning "Mayoism" as harmful. They branded the Hawthorne researchers as biased sociologists serving management's interests. Another point of criticism was that Mayo drew broad, sweeping conclusions from a relatively small sample of studies, which some critics argued were full of limitations and methodological flaws.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 Critically evaluate the works of Elton Mayo.

9.8 Summary

Mayo's contribution to administrative organization was a significant innovation in modern times. For the first time, he sought to understand the challenges faced by industrial labor from a perspective distinct from the traditional scientific management approach. His focus extended beyond just human relations within the organization.

In addition to human relation in the organisation, Mayo critically examined the employee — employer relations, stability of the labour, supervision, etc. of the industrial workers. The studies, as Drucker has put it “are still the best, the most advanced and the most complete works in the field of human relations and the most complete works in the field of human relations. Indeed it is debatable whether the many refinements added since by the labour of countless people industry, labour unions and academic life, have clarified or observed the original insight.”

9.9 Glossary

Lighting – equipment in a room, building or street for producing light.

Experiment- a scientific procedure undertaken to make a discovery, test a hypothesis, or demonstrate a known fact.

9.10 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 9.3

Ans 2. Refer to section 9.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 9.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 9.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 9.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 9.7

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9.12 Terminal Questions

- a. Write a note on "Human Attitudes and Sentiments".
- b. What do you mean Rabble Hypothesis?

UNIT-10

ABRAHAM MASLOW

Structure

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Learning Objectives
- 10.3 Maslow's theory of Motivation
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 10.4 Pandiculation of needs
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 10.5 Exception to the need hierarchy
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 10.6 Criticism
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 10.7 Summary
- 10.8 Glossary
- 10.9 Answers to Self - Check Exercises
- 10.10 References/Suggested Readings
- 10.11 Terminal Questions

10.1 Introduction/Life Sketch

Abraham H. Maslow (1918-1970) a renowned scholar of psychology based his theory of motivation on the simple assumption that greater pay motivates more work. Maslow, a Brades University psychologist in has famous work of motivates and personality (1954) presents a readable discussion which emphasizes the hierarchy of needs and its relation to motivation. He has been called the "Father of Human Psychology", who laid the foundation for subsequent psychologists i.e. Likert,

Herzberg, McGregor, Porter & Lawler etc. The original paper present very little empirical evidence in support of the theory and no research at all that tests the model in its entirety. Indeed, Maslow argues that the theory is primarily a framework for future research. He wrote many books among which the prominent ones are:

- New know in Human Values (1959 ed).
- Eupsychiun Management(1965)
- Principles of Abnormal Psychology (1965).
- The partner Reaches of Human Nature (1978)

The partner Reaches of Human Nature (1978), published posthumously.

10.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To know about life sketch and various important works of Abraham Maslow.
- To understand about Maslow's Theory of Motivation.
- To comprehend about the hierarchy of needs.

10.3 Maslow's theory of motivation

Although there is a wide consensus among managers and researchers alike that motivation is a critical determinant of behavior in organizations. In general it involves three basic questions i.e. what gets the behaviour started, what determines the magnitude or intensity of behaviour, and what finally causes behavior to stop. To answer these questions psychologists tell us that people behave in certain ways and pursue particular courses of action in order to satisfy their needs; Because behaviour is directed towards need satisfaction, it is of strategic importance to know what people desire from now if we are to motivate them. In terms of motivation equation, the process appears as follows:

Need

Want + incentive =

Action Drive

Ability

On the left side of the equation are those things that people want or need, or the drives that cause

and explain behaviour. So Maslow's theory too is a need based theory. It hypothesizes that people have a variety of different needs and that those needs which are most important and salient to a person at a given time have a critical towards greater financial support.

1. The Social Needs : The needs for contact and interaction with other people in the society are triggered once physiological and safety needs have been met. People need to feel they belong that they are accepted as an important element of the group, and have some influence with other group members. Non-satisfaction of this level of needs may affect the psychology of the individual.

2. The Esteem Needs : Maslow identifies the need for respect and esteem, both from oneself and others, as essential for personal growth. He divides these needs into two categories. The first includes the desire for strength, achievement, confidence, and independence—essentially, the need to feel capable and free. The second category encompasses the desire for reputation, prestige, recognition, and appreciation from others. When these self-esteem needs are met, individuals experience feelings of self-confidence, worth, and a sense of being capable and useful. This framework is visually represented in the figure above.

3. The Physiological Needs : The needs of the body for shelter, food and water are physiological in nature. In such a case, no other needs serve as a basis for motivation. As Maslow states, "A person who is lacking food, safety, love and esteem would probably hunger for food more strongly than for anything else."

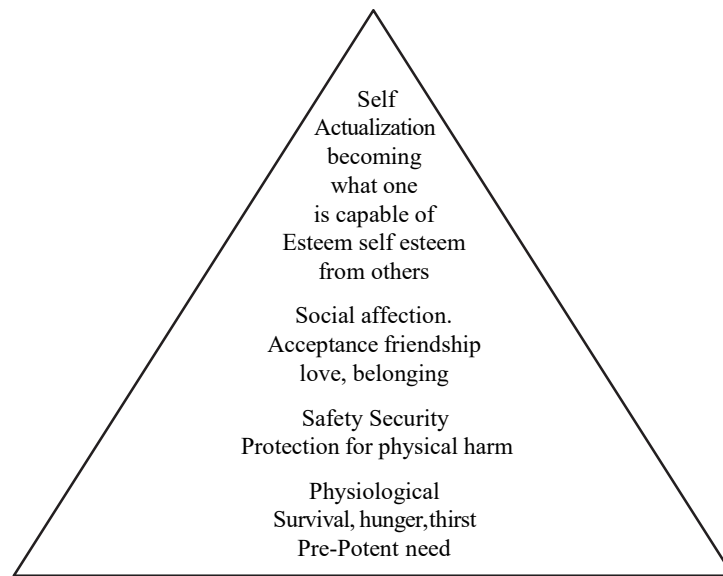
When these basic needs begin to be fulfilled then rest of the levels of needs become important, and these motivate and dominate the behaviours of the individual. The physiological needs, along with their partial goals; when chronically gratified cease to exist as active determinants or organizers of behaviour.

4. The Safety Needs : The two types of security needs are physical and economic. The latter need is the one discussed under safety needs. These needs include protection from physical harm, ill health, economic disaster and the unexpected from a managerial. These also form the basic format of Maslow's theory of motivation which is discussed as follows :

The theory of Motivation

As it is already discussed that unsatisfied needs are starting point in the process of motivation. The need hierarchy theory hypothesize that there are five basic categories of needs and that a person is motivated to engage in behaviour that will lead to the fulfillment of the need or needs which are most salient at a particular time. The needs are arranged in a hierarchy from lower level deficiency needs to higher level growth needs. Maslow believed that five levels of needs exist. These levels are (1) physiological (2) safety (3) social (4) esteem (5) self-actualization.

Fig.: 1. The hierarchy of Needs



8. Any classification of motivations must deal with the problem of levels of specificity or generalization of the motives .

9. Classification motivations should be based upon goals rather than upon instigating

10. Motivation theory should be human- centered rather than animal-centered.

11. The situation in the field in which a person reacts must be taken into account.

12. Not only the integration of the person must be taken into account, but also the possibility of isolated, specific, partial or segmental reactions.

13. Motivation theory is not Synonymous with behaviour theory. The motivations are only one

class of determinants of behaviour while behaviour is almost always motivated it is also almost always biologically, culturally and situationally determined as well.

These propositions provide a guidelines to the management thinkers in the sphere of motivations in organisations necessary in the world. People obtain gratification by becoming members of a group, institution, political party, club, etc.

5. The Need for Self Actualization

Maslow suggests that even if all of a person's needs are met, a new sense of discontent and restlessness may arise unless the individual is engaging in what they are truly meant to do. In other words, people have an inherent drive to realize their full potential. This idea, originally coined by Kurt Goldstein, refers to the desire for self-fulfillment—the drive to become the best version of oneself and fully actualize one's capabilities.

Maslow assumes that the satisfaction of self-actualization needs is possible only after the satisfaction of all other needs.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Describe Maslow's theory of motivation.

10.4 Pandiculation of needs

Maslow had given a five-need theory in 1943, but not content with it, he added two needs more, which are:

- a) Integration or wholeness Needs,
- b) Meta Needs

Integration needs refer to the needs of individuals to maintain an integrated and consistent picture of themselves and their world. This need, arising after fulfillment of esteem needs, comprises the need to resolve conflict, the need to feel that one is fairly and justly treated and the need to make order out of disorganized or chaotic situations.

By meta-motivations, Maslow meant such tendencies that seek certain growth ends as truth, beauty, goodness and order. They are ends in themselves and as such the term. 'Being values' denotes a state of being rather than a state of becoming. Truth, justice, beauty, virtue, perfection, wholeness, richness, simplicity, self-sufficiency and meaningfulness are some of the meta-motive or B-values.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Write a short note on pandiculation of needs.

10.5 Exception to the Need Hierarchy

Though the hierarchy of needs given by Maslow applicable in -a fixed manner in the situations studied, however there have been a member of exception be has outlined:

(1) For some individuals, self-esteem appears to be more important than love. As a result, those who lack love and yearn for it may display outwardly confident or aggressive behaviors as a defense mechanism.

(2) There are other, innately creative people in whom the drive of creativeness seems to be more important than any other.

(3) In certain people the level of aspiration may be permanently deadened or lowered i.e. chronic unemployment, etc.

(4) The so-called psychopathic personality is another example of permanent loss of the love needs. These people have simply lost forever the desire and the ability to give and receive affection.

(5) Another cause of reversal of the hierarchy is that when a need has been satisfied for a longtime, its need may be undervalued for e.g. some people have never experienced chronic hunger thus look upon food as unimportant thing

(6) Perhaps more important than all these exceptions the one that involve ideals, high social standards, high values and the like for e.g. martyrs; ideal, patriotism.

To sum up, Maslow adds that our needs emerge only when more prepotent need ... gratified. This gratification has an important role in motivation theory.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What is the exception to need hierarchy theory?

10.6 Criticism

The theory motivation of Maslow has greatly contributed to the management and also to the individual psychology. Though the need hierarchy theory has enjoyed popularity among practitioners over the past twenty years. Unfortunately, in spite of its considerable popular appeal, the theory has not stood up particularly well to systematic scientific inquiry. The extensive research by American Scholars on the issue of whether or not there are in fact five distinct categories of need arranged in a hierarchy and how people move from one level of needs to the next. The research

conducted by Wahba & Bridwell report that:

There are many factors which complicate the motivate process. The first among them is perhaps that motivators change from time to time. The strong motivators of to-day may not retain their same degree of potency tomorrow. Another factor is that people behave in different ways to satisfy a given need. It is already mentioned earlier, that all of us want recognition and a certain amount of individual attention. A highly qualified person may get recognition and attention through positive behaviour and may be willing to put forth additional effort in an emergency.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Critically evaluate the theory of motivation given by Abraham Maslow.

10.7 Summary

Maslow organized human needs into a hierarchy, with the basic physiological and security needs at the bottom. Above these are social and self-esteem needs, which are considered middle-order needs, while self-actualization sits at the top as a higher-order need. According to Maslow, satisfying the lower-order needs is essential before the higher-order needs can emerge. He refers to the lower and middle-order needs as "deficit needs" or 'D' needs, while self-actualization is categorized as a "being need" or 'B' needs. This represents the desire for personal growth, fulfillment, and leading a meaningful life, although the way this need manifests can differ for each individual.

10.8 Glossary

Integration — the action or process of integrating.

Self-actualization — the realization or fulfillment of one's talents and potentialities, especially considered as a drive or need present in everyone. Esteem need — desire for reputation or prestige.

10.9 Answers to Self-Check Exercise

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 10.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 10.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 10.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 10.6

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10.11 Terminal Questions

- (a) Who coined the term 'self-actualization'?
- (b) Discuss Maslow's hierarchy of need in chronological order?
- (c) What do you mean by Integration needs and Meta need?

UNIT-11
DOUGLAS MCGREGOR

Structure

- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Learning Objectives
- 11.3 Mc. Gregor's Views about Management
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 11.4 The Theoretical Assumptions of Management
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 11.5 Theory 'X': The Coercive Compulsions
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 11.6 Theory 'Y' : The Alternate Assumptions
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 11.7 The Scanlon plan
 - Self-check Exercise-5
- 11.8 Relevance of Theory 'y' is line-staff relationship.
 - Self-check Exercise-6
- 11.9 The Professional Managers
 - Self-check Exercise-7
- 11.10 Summary
- 11.11 Glossary
- 11.12 Answer to the Self-Check Exercises
- 11.13 References/Suggested Readings
- 11.14 Terminal Questions

11.1 Introduction

Douglas M. McGregor, a prominent professor of management, played a key role in the behavioral movement within management theory. As a psychiatrist and academic, he scientifically challenged the outdated assumptions about human nature and behavior control within traditional management models. McGregor was a respected professor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) and a board member of the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior. He demonstrated that relying on authority as the primary form of control in organizations often leads to resistance, restricted output, and a lack of commitment to organizational goals.

His influential book, *The Human Side of the Enterprise*, marked a turning point in management thinking, moving away from traditional models to focus on the human aspects of organizations. His work addressed a broad spectrum of management skills and advocated for a new social framework and value system that managers could adopt to achieve their professional objectives. In his later work, *The Professional Manager*, McGregor took a major leap forward in linking behavioral concepts with organizational behavior. He showed how the human side of organizations could be fostered through appropriate managerial interventions and deeper understanding.

11.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To know about the life sketch of Douglas Mc. Gregor and his contributions.
- To Compretand about the Theory 'x' & theory 'y' propounded by Mc. Gregor.
- To elaborate the Scanlon plan.
- To alalyze the relevance of theory 'y' is line staff relationship.

11.3 Mc Gregor Views about Management

Douglas was of the View that enhance on authority is the man method of control in industry leads to assistance. It restries output and also the worriers become quite indifference to the objective of the organization. Not only was but they begin to clime the authority, which is not conducive to the growth of the organisationand d of workers. He therefore, favours altogether new social architecture and also a new value system. It is a system in which all in the organization at different levels sill commit themselves to professional and organization goals. He has linked behavioral concepts to organisation

behaviour and suggest development of human side of development with the help of appropriate, manageable understanding. He has laid stress on the need of motivation which in his views can attract the people to work. Motivation is linked with human beings.

Mc. Gregor on Managers

Douglas McGregor's influential book *The Human Side of the Enterprise*, published in 1960, is considered a cornerstone of industrial psychology. It challenged long-held assumptions about scientific management, particularly the ongoing debate about whether successful managers are born or made. McGregor directly tackled this issue, stating, "It seems clear to me that the making of managers, insofar as they are made, is only to a small degree the result of formal management development efforts. Much more significantly, it is shaped by management's conception of human nature and the policies and practices constructed to implement that view."

McGregor argued that the way an organization is managed has a profound impact on how people are perceived and how they grow in their roles. He cautioned against focusing solely on formal management training, suggesting that the real key to effective management lies in understanding the assumptions management holds about human nature and how to manage people. The central premise of his work, which introduced the well-known Theory X and Theory Y, was that these assumptions directly shape an organization's culture and effectiveness.

McGregor believed that many of the challenges faced by managers are not about improving technical skills, but about understanding the fundamental beliefs about managing people. For him, the key question was, "What are your assumptions—both implicit and explicit—about the most effective way to manage people?" He believed that the answers to this question would shape the development of managers, influence organizational productivity, and ultimately determine the success of the organization's broader objectives.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on the McGregor's views on Management.

11.4 The theoretical Assumptions of Management

Douglas McGregor's most significant and lasting contribution lies in his work on the development of managerial talent and teamwork within industrial enterprises. He proposed that every managerial action is rooted in a theory, emphasizing that management is not merely a science, as it doesn't fully align with the objectives science seeks to achieve. Instead, McGregor believed that while management

can utilize scientific knowledge to meet practical objectives, it doesn't strictly conform to the definition of a science.

His core hypothesis revolves around the idea that control in management is an act of selective adaptation. He argued that much of our attempts to control human behavior often conflict with the natural tendencies of human nature. Managers, McGregor pointed out, often try to force workers to behave in ways that contradict their natural inclinations. When this happens, it's unrealistic to expect the desired outcomes, just as it would be unreasonable to expect results when a manager's behavior is out of alignment with the natural laws governing human nature.

McGregor also questioned traditional methods of coercive control in the workplace, challenging the underlying assumptions that these approaches are effective. He emphasized that human behavior can be predicted and managed, but only if we recognize that control is about adapting to human nature, not forcing it to fit our expectations. In his view, if people don't behave as we predict, the fault lies not with them, but with our attempts to make human nature conform to our wishes, rather than understanding and working with it.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Write a short note on the theoretical assumption on Management according to McGregor.

11.5 Theory 'X' The Coercive Compulsions

Douglas McGregor was a keen observer of human psychology and social behavior, with his empirical research into organizational conflicts and interpersonal adjustments leading him to develop a unique perspective on control in human affairs. He believed that control could be achieved not through coercion and compulsion, but by integrating human behavior and fostering self-motivation. McGregor explored these ideas through various hypotheses, scientifically testing their validity to create his well-known theories of managerial control, referred to as Theory X and Theory Y.

McGregor's framework does not neatly fit into the traditional dichotomy between conventional and modern management thought. Theory X, which he described as the traditional view of management, is based on assumptions that have long been embedded in organizational literature and the practices of many managers. According to McGregor, the key assumptions of Theory X include:

1. The average person inherently dislikes work and will try to avoid it whenever possible.

2. Because of this, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment in order to motivate them to contribute effectively to organizational goals.
3. The average person prefers to be directed, avoids responsibility, has limited ambition, and seeks security above all else.

Often referred to as the "carrot and stick" approach, Theory X outlines the consequences of this managerial strategy, which, while purporting to explain human nature, actually operates from a very limited view. It relies on the assumption that people are inherently insecure and motivated solely by fear. This view treats individuals as workers who avoid all forms of labor, as seen in outdated models of factory work. These assumptions, McGregor noted, have long been in practice without being rigorously tested or verified. McGregor criticized these assumptions for being overly restrictive and for preventing the development of more effective management strategies. He argued that many contemporary management approaches—such as decentralization, management by objectives, consultative supervision, and democratic leadership—are ultimately just old ideas dressed in new terminology. The procedures used to implement these strategies, he believed, often stemmed from the same outdated assumptions of Theory X.

As a result of his research, McGregor grew increasingly disillusioned with the popular, trendy management practices of his time. He observed that, in essence, these practices merely rehashed the same tactics and tools within the confines of the Theory X mindset. His conclusion was that as long as the assumptions of Theory X continue to shape management strategies, organizations will fail to tap into the true potential of their employees.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What are the features of Theory X given by McGregor?

11.6 Theory Y: The Alternate Assumptions of Integration and Self Control

Looking positively in the of man needs and man's psychological quest for satisfaction of them as wanting animal Me. Gregor consulates this theory Y which offers a number of alternate assumptions for the integration of the individual and organizational goals. According to him creation of conditions is not control in the usual sense. Rather, it does not seem to be a particularly good advice for directive behavior. He has arranged his whole new set of assumptions about motivation and morals in a theory, which he prefers to call theory Y perhaps to dramatize the contrast with the major assumptions of theory X. The assumptions of theory Y as :

- i) The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is play or rest.

- ii) Mass exercises, self direction and self control in the services of the objective to which he is committed.
- iii) Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associate with their achievement.
- iv) The average human being learns under proper conditions not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
- v) The -capacity to exercise d relatively high degree of creativity, imagination and ingenuity in the solutionof organisation problems is wide not narrowly dispirited in the population.
- vi) Under the conditions modem industrial life, the intellectual potentiate of the average human being areonlypartiallyutilized.

Douglas Me. Gregor calls his theory Y an open invitation to Innovation. He does not deny the appropriatenessof authority under certain circumstances, 'but the he does deny its appropriateness foe all purposes and underall circumstances.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 What are the features of Theory Y given by McGregor?

Theory Y in Practice

In his book *The Human Side of the Enterprise*, McGregor discusses the application of Theory Y, offering a critique of traditional managerial strategies and personnel techniques. His research in industry revealed a strong connection between the acceptance of responsibility and alignment with organizational objectives. He found that allowing employees to learn from their experiences brought greater long-term benefits than simply pointing out where their plans had been unrealistic or inadequate.

McGregor also noted that the administrative, informal, and motivational aspects of performance appraisals are more effectively achieved when employees are treated as intelligent adults. These individuals thrive on growth, learning, and improved performance, which can best be fostered through self-control and cooperative behavior. When testing Theory Y in real-world management practices, McGregor discovered that unilateral control over things like salary administration and promotions could be reduced by giving employees more opportunities to actively participate in decisions that affect their careers.

11.7 The Scanlon Plan

The research on Union-Management cooperation, widely known as the Scanlon Plan, was based on a philosophy of management that aligned closely with the assumptions of Theory Y. The two key elements of the Scanlon Plan were (1) profit-sharing based on cost reduction and (2) effective participation. This kind of participation, rooted in Theory Y assumptions, provides workers or subordinates with significant opportunities for ego satisfaction, which in turn boosts motivation toward achieving organizational goals. The Scanlon Plan serves as strong evidence that, when applied thoughtfully and with understanding, participatory management fosters natural commitment through integration and self-control.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 What is Scanlon Plan?

11.8 Relevance of Theory Y in Line-staff Relationship

Modern industrial organizations are largely driven by their staff, who possess the expertise to design and manage the procedures within the company. McGregor believed that, in the long term, authoritative commands are not effective in resolving the complex staff-line conflicts of today's organizations. He argued that line managers who work cooperatively with their employees, within the framework of Theory Y, are able to foster healthy relationships with both their subordinates and superiors, as well as with their colleagues. These conflicts, if left unaddressed, can lead to wasted human resources and a decrease in commitment to the organization's objectives. McGregor emphasized that Theory Y promotes teamwork at all levels of an organization, which in turn helps to improve staff-line collaboration.

Self-check Exercise-6

Q.1 What is the relevance of Theory Y in Line-staff Relationship?

11.9 The professional Managers

if the Human side of the enterprise represents Douglas Mc. Gregor's concern to educate future managers his last book. The Professional Manager, posthumously published, reflects his profession of management through bridging its goals with the methodology of behavioral science. Four major themes recur throughout the volume, which Mc. Gregor left unfinished before his death in the year

1967. He had a great fascination for theory building and cosmology. McGregor believed that the managers' view of organization affects. In his view the manager should meaningfully address itself to the understanding of the manager's behaviour, his identity and his role perceptions of the industrial organization.

Working Through of Difference

Discussion team work and tension in the management of differences he discusses three strategies namely:

- i) divide and rule
- ii) the suppression of differences
- iii) working through the differences.

The first two strategies, grounded in the assumptions of Theory X, have often turned managerial roles into perpetual liabilities. Professional managers, McGregor believed, should not only protect themselves from mutual antagonism, office politics, or currying favor with superiors, but also navigate these differences in ways that allow for innovation, commitment to decisions, and the strengthening of relationships within their teams. While current research in management behavior has evolved beyond Theory Y, McGregor's ideas remain highly relevant. Although many of his theories originated during the early days of industrial society in the United States, they are still influenced by post-war research in industrial sociology and management psychology. As a dedicated researcher, McGregor may not have all the final answers to the enduring challenges of management, but his work offers a wealth of ideas. His writings serve as a valuable resource for management theorists and practitioners, helping them refine their strategies and adapt their approaches to the evolving demands of tomorrow's business world.

Self-check Exercise-7

Q.1 Write a short note on the concept of professional managers.

11.10 Summary

Douglas McGregor, a renowned social psychologist and management consultant, is best known for his Theory X and Theory Y. He made invaluable contributions to understanding human nature and behavior within organizations. McGregor challenged the prevailing theoretical assumptions in

management, firmly believing that every managerial action is rooted in a theory. For him, the crucial question in top management is: "What are your assumptions—both implicit and explicit—about the most effective way to manage people?" His influential work, *The Human Side of the Enterprise*, is widely regarded as one of the most significant contributions to industrial psychology.

11.11 Glossary

Enterprise- a project or undertaking, especially a bold or complex one.
Professional- relating to or belonging to a profession.

11.12 Answers of the Self Check Exercise

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 11.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 11.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 11.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 11.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 11.7

Self-Check Exercise-6

Ans 1. Refer to section 11.8

Self-Check Exercise-7

Ans 1. Refer to section 11.9

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11.14 Terminal Questions

- a. What do you mean by the Scanlon Plan?
- b. Write a note on Professional Managers to keep in view point of Mc Gregor.

UNIT-12 FREDRICK HERZBERG

Structure

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Learning Objectives
- 12.3 Two Factor Theory of Motivation or Motivation Hygiene Theory

Self-check Exercise-1

- 12.4 Job Enrichment

Self-check Exercise-2

- 12.5 Principles of Vertical Job Loading

Self-check Exercise-3

- 12.6 Criticism

Self-check Exercise-4

- 12.7 Summary
- 12.8 Glossary
- 12.9 Answers to Self- Check Exercises
- 12.10 References/Suggested Readings
- 12.11 Terminal Questions

12.1 Introduction

Fredrick Herzberg (b-1923) was a distinguished Professor of Management in the University of Utah. Initially he was trained as a psychologist in Industrial mental Health. He conducted a programme of research for many years, of which the famous Hygiene theory - is attributed only to Dr. Herzberg. He conducted extensive studies on human motivation at work and its effects on the individuals job satisfaction and mental health. He related man's happiness and satisfaction to the current method of organizing work in any business establishment.

12.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able.

- To know about the Fredrick Herzberg and his work.
- To understand two factor theory of motivation assessed by Fredrick Herzberg.
- To differentiate between job enrichment and job enlargement in the organization.

12.3 Two Factor Theory of Motivation or Motivation Hygiene theory

Fredrick Herzberg and his colleagues conducted research on two hundred engineers and account representing a cross section of eleven industries in Herzberg. These research studies and surveys led to the theory of motivation which was later called motivation - Hygiene theory.

In the interviews, they were asked about what kinds of things on their job made them unhappy or unsatisfied and what things made them happy or satisfied in analysing the data from these interviews.

Herzberg concluded that people have two distinct categories of needs that influence their behavior in different ways. He found that when individuals felt dissatisfied with their jobs, their concerns were often related to the environment they were working in. On the other hand, when they felt satisfied, it was typically because of the work itself.

He labeled the first category of needs as "hygiene" or "maintenance factors." These factors are related to the work environment and serve to prevent job dissatisfaction; however, they are never fully satisfying and must be continually maintained. The second category, which Herzberg referred to as "motivators," are the factors that drive individuals to achieve superior performance and job satisfaction.

Herzberg's research revealed that the factors responsible for job satisfaction are completely different from those that lead to job dissatisfaction.

. The following figure lists on the. Left side the items that were mentioned in the interviews when dissatisfaction occurred when the respondents experienced satisfaction factors such as those on the right were usually present.

Figure 1.

Dissatisfies and satisfiers on the job

Dissatisfies (Hygiene)

1. Company Policy and
2. Supervision -Technical
3. Salary
4. Interpersonal relations
5. Working Conditions

Satisfiers (Motivators)

1. Administration
2. Recognition
3. Workitself
4. Responsibility
5. Advancement

(Source: Adopted from Fredrick Herzberg. et. al. all. The Motivation to Work, Ne Your : Gohn Wiley & Sons, 1959).

Some of important concepts developed by Herzberg studies are summarized below :

1. There are two distinctive dimension to motivational problem. On the one end of the continue are those factors which can either cause on prevent dissatisfaction. But positive attitude are not produced if motivational factors are absent.

2. When hygiene factors are adequately taken care of dissatisfaction will disappear, but no positive attitudes and motivation results. Thus, hygiene factors are preventive. They can prevent the satisfaction but do not act as personal incentives which motivates people to high levels of productivity.

3. The motivational factors those which lead to the development of positive attitudes and motivation and act as individual incentives. As Herzberg notes there are things which surround the job while the hygiene factors satisfy and physiological a security need the motivational factors are concerned with psychological and self-fulfillment needs

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Explain two factor theory of motivation given by Herzberg.

12.4 Job Enrichment.

Herzberg concludes that job enrichment aims to enhance job satisfaction by incorporating both task efficiency and, more importantly, greater opportunities for personal achievement and recognition. It focuses on providing employees with more challenging and responsible work, as well as offering greater chances for individual growth and advancement. While job enrichment acknowledges the importance of factors like pay, working conditions, organizational structure, communication, and

training, these elements are seen as secondary, though still necessary, to fostering a more fulfilling work experience.

The concept of job enrichment that encompasses job loading holds the key to creating meaningful work which can satisfy the workers full range of needs on the job.

The experiment under discuss was conducted by Frednck Herzberg among a group of stockholders,correspondents employed by a very large corporation.

Herzberg says that horizontal job loading is when an employee's job is increased or the amount of work to be done by him is enriched, the management only reduces the personal contribution of the person, rather than creating his interest in his present work Horizontal Job loading is when employee is given more of the same kinds of activities to perform with a resulting increase in the scope of the job. Whereas the vertical job loadings Is just the reverse, it provides motivating factors. These factors give greater responsibility, autonomy, healthy interaction and immediate response to the individual or the group.

In summary, vertical job enrichment tends to increase the overall level of responsibility in the job horizontal job enlargement merely Increases the member of activities included.

The concept of vertical job enrichment is the one that seems to possess man of the factors that correlatemost highly with worker motivation. If we examine the idea of job enrichment in conjunction with the motivating factors defined b Herzberg there begins to emerge a series of guidelines for management to follow if job redesign is to maximize higher-level need satisfaction. It allows greater degree of control over his or her own work situation.

The control can take many forms, but it generally includes increasing the workers power to influence the planning and organization of the work cycle. The worker comes to understand not only how the job is to be done in a certain manner and how it fits into the overall work situation.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Explain the concept of Job Enrichment given by Herzberg.

12.5 Principle of Vertical Job Loading

Principle

Motivators Involved

1. Eradicating some controls while retaining	1. Responsibility, and personal accountability
2. Enhancing the account ability of individuals	2. Responsibility and Recognition for their own
3. Giving a person a complete natural unit of Work - (module, division, area and so on.	3. Responsibility achievement and recognition. +
4. Granting additional authority to an employee in	4. Responsibility achievement and recognition.
5. Making periodic reports directly available to the worker himself rather than to the supervisor	5. Internal recognition.
6. Encouraging New and more difficult task not previously handled.	6. Growth and learning.
7. Assigning individuals specific or specialized tasks enabling them to become experts.	7. Responsibility, growth and advancement,

Job enrichment, as Herzberg concludes seeks to improve both task efficiency and human satisfaction by means of building into people's jobs, quite specifically, greater scope for personal achievement and

recognition, more challenging and responsible work,' and more opportunity for individual advancement and growth. It is concerned more incidentally with matters such as pay and working conditions, organisational structure, communication, and training, important and necessary though these may be in their own right.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 Explain the principles of vertical job loading given by Herzberg.

12.6 Criticism

Herzberg's motivation -hygiene theory has received a great deal of attention both in management literature in management development training. Due to its prominence it has also been critically discussed by many management thinkers:

1. One limitation of Herzberg's original study and conclusions is that the subjects consisted of engineers and accountants. Their response may not hold true for non professional worker's. In fact, some testing of Herzberg's model on blue collar worker showed that some of Herzberg's maintenance factors (pay, job security) are regarded as motivational factors by blue collar workers.

2. A method bias led to the result Herzberg obtained. The research technique Herzberg and his associates used was a semi-structured “incident call” method. A subject was asked to remember either a ‘good’ or ‘Bad’ experience at work, which is usually influenced by the employee’s memory. The criticism of such research method is that a person attributes successful event to oneself and unsuccessful ones to others.

3. Hunt and Hill doubted whether the factors leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction are really different from each other. It has been seen through various studies that achievement, recognition and responsibility seem important for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction while such dimensions as security, salary and working conditions are less important. Locke says, that the individual characteristics and personality differences would lead different reactions to the factors classified as motivators and hygiene factors.

4. Another group reviewed several studies which showed that one factor can cause job satisfaction for one person and job dissatisfaction for another. They concluded that further research is needed to be able to predict in what situations worker satisfaction will produce greater performance. Herzberg assumes that there is a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. But the research methodology he used looked only at satisfaction not at productivity. To make such research relevant, one must assume a high relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

5. Herzberg has based his studies which were based on one or the other types of ‘employees in an organisation. The conclusions which were derived cannot have universal application. Some studies were conducted in another cultural context his theories are not the answer for all motivational problems in an organisation, but may provide a fair idea to make an attempt to understand a work situation in a particular environment.

6. In addition to criticism of the two factor theory that underlies job enrichment, some important issues are raised against the latter. The job enrichment cannot make no allowance for difference among people in their reactions to enriched work. Job enrichment is probably appropriate for some individuals and inappropriate for others.

7. Herzberg’s job enrichment has to do with the measurement of the presence or absence of motivating factors but does not provide with systematic method or technique through which their extent can be seen. Consequently, no accurate empirical tests can be carried out to see the level of motivation and satisfaction.

8. Job enrichment is successful only when it increases responsibility, increases the employees freedom and independence, organizes task so as to allow workers to do a complete activity, and provides feedback to allow individuals to correct their own performance. Furthermore, job enhancement efforts will only be successful if the individuals in the enriched job find their means enrichment’.

9. The contribution of Fredrick Herzberg in the field of motivation at work cannot be ignored, while even considering the strong criticism sighted above... Maslow’s ideas have been further extended by him and made more applicable to the rock situation. In adaptation, he has drawn attention to the critical importance of job centered factor in work motivation which not beer given much attention by behavioral scientists.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Critically evaluate the concepts given by Herzberg.

12.7 Summary

Herzberg conducted studies using ‘critical incidents’ method and developed theories of motivation-hygiene and job enrichment. *Herzberg* found in his studies duality of attitudes and called them dissatisfies and satisfiers. The dissatisfies are called as ‘hygiene factors’ and satisfiers ‘motivational factors’. Herzberg divides people working in organizations into two groups and calls them ‘hygiene seekers’ and ‘motivation seekers’ and also explain their characteristics. Herzberg two factor theories are criticized based on methodology and conclusion. Many consider the existence of separate scale of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as not valid. It is argued that some factors may be satisfiers and dissatisfies depending on the levels of works and context of work.

12.8 Glossary

Satisfiers — Satisfiers are motivation givers. Dissatisfies — Dissatisfies are hygiene givers.

12.9 Answers to Self - Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 12.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 12.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 12.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 12.6

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12.11 Terminal Questions

- a. What are the process of enriching job?
- b. Make a chart of satisfiers factors and dissatisfiers factors?
- c. Describe about the characteristics of hygiene and motivation seekers?

UNIT-13

MARRY PARKER FOLLETT (1868-1933)

Part-1

Structure

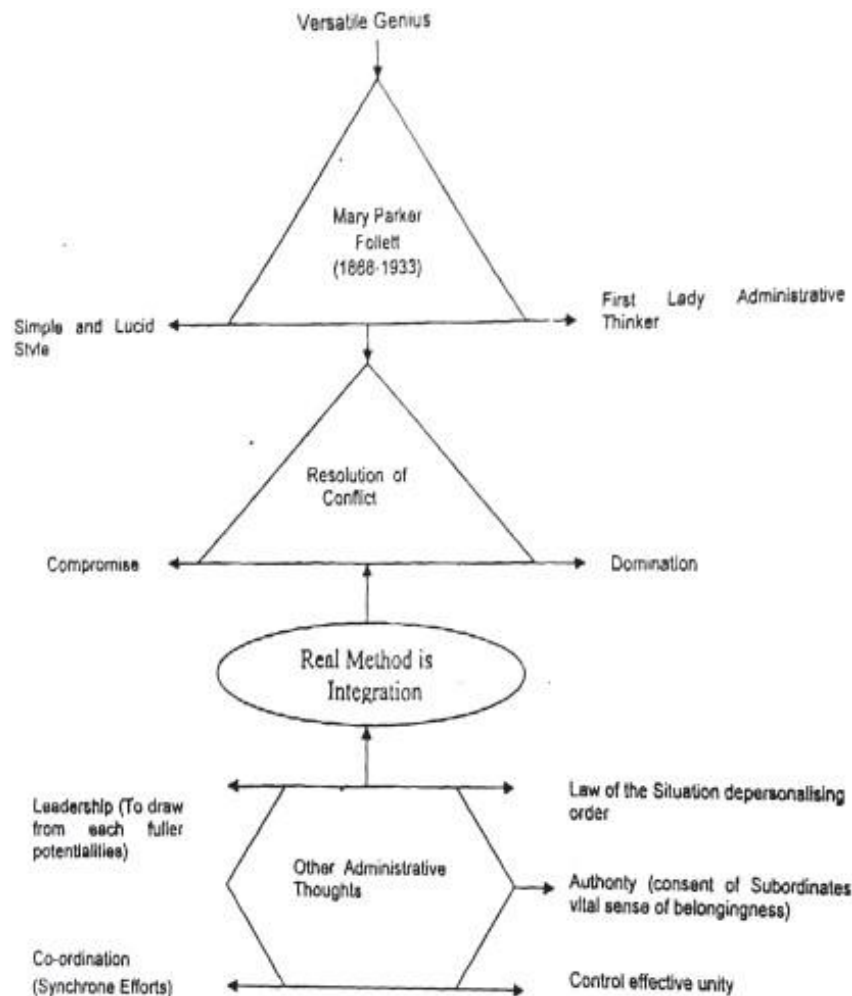
- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Learning Objectives
- 13.3 Constructive Conflict
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 13.4 Resolution of conflict
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 13.5 Bases of Integration
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 13.6 Obstacles to Integration
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 13.7 Summary
- 13.8 Glossary
- 13.9 Answer to Self-Check Exercises
- 13.10 References/Suggested Readings
- 13.11 Terminal Questions

13.1 Introduction

Mary Parker, Follett, a versatile genius having keen and deep insights into the issues of management and industry was born in 1868, in Boston, USA. She got education in Political economy, Political Science, Philosophy, and Law from Cambridge College. Her approach to management was

psychological and social. It is surprising

that she had no contact with those who were concerned with the Hawthorne Experiments. “But the findings of those in when they appeared in their full form in 1930s the conclusions drawn from the Hawthorne Studies can be recognized as reflecting principles of a fundamental tenet that Follett had advanced from her own observations of the industrial situation.”



She was a great writer. She took care to present her original ideas in simple and lucid style. Her main concern was human philosophy and character. She believed in togetherness and group thinking in management. She felt the need of harmony between owners and labourers which she thought is possible through integration.

Follett firmly believed that individuals could only become whole persons through their relationships with others within organizations. She saw management as “the art of getting things

done through people,” and felt that the distinction between managers (order-givers) and subordinates (order-takers) was artificial, overshadowing the natural partnership that existed between labor and management. Follett believed strongly in the power of groups, where individuals could combine their unique talents to achieve something greater. Her "holistic" model of control didn't just focus on individuals and groups, but also considered the broader influences of factors like politics, economics, and biology.

Follett's approach was ahead of its time, recognizing that management wasn't just about what happened within an organization but also about its relationship with the external environment. By incorporating the wider organizational environment into her theory, she laid the foundation for management theories that recognized the importance of both internal and external relationships. Many modern management theories now draw from Follett's ideas in acknowledging the broader context of management.

(Henry C.-Metcalf); Chicago A.W. Shah & Co.

‘The collected Papers of Mary Parker Follet (Edited by M. Metcalf and L. Urwick) London, Pritman-iN.Y., Harper & Sons.

Lectures in Business Follet (Edited by L U Pitman.

Follett is regarded as ‘prophet’ in management philosophy. Harold Pollard whole; “In the field of management thought there can be no one more deserving of this title than Follett. Almost everything she said and wrote in the 1920s has been ‘rediscovered’ and amplified by the psychosociologists of the 1950s and 1960s. But in her day and age, she was almost a lone voice crying in the wilderness.

13.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To Know about the life sketch of M.F.
Follett
- To feel about the constructive conflict in the organization.
- To comprehend about the bases of Integration.

- To discuss about the Follett's Theory of Administration and law of the situation.

13.3 Constructive Conflict

Conflict is inevitable in life and at work.

Marry Parker Follett advances the idea of “constructive conflict recognizing thereby that conflicts should be regarded as a normal process in any activity of an organization by which socially valuable differences register themselves for the enrichment of all concerned.” It can be used constructively or destructively.

For Follett, conflict is neither inherently good nor bad and should be approached without emotion or moral judgment. She viewed conflict not as a form of warfare, but as a manifestation of differences—whether in opinions, interests, or perspectives—not only between employers and employees but also among managers, directors, or any individuals where differences arise.

Integrationists not only accept conflict, but also encourage it in a regulated way. This approach that a minimum level of conflict needs to be maintained to shake the group out of its complacency and to make them innovative and creative. A large number of social scientists like Robins (1973.), Boulding (1971), Dalton (1950), Katz (1974), McGor (1967), Schimidt (1974), Pareek (1982), and others opine that ‘conflict generates a climate, wherein stagnant organizations are rejuvenated.’

While the behavioural approach accepted conflict, the integrationist view encourages conflict on the ground that a harmonious, peaceful, tranquil and cooperative group is prone to becoming static, apathetic and non responsive to need for change and innovation.” Thus, groups require disharmony as well as harmony, dissociation as well as association and conflicts within them are by no means altogether disruptive factors.”

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Explain the concept of constructing conflict given by MP Follett.

13.4 Resolution of Conflict

Follett feels that conflicts can be solved by the following three methods, i.e. Domination, Compromise and integration.

(a) Domination

Dominance is identical with “power over” that is “the power of some person or groups over some other person or group.” Dominance leaves habits and beliefs unchanged. Domination is based ‘on the huge power available with one party as compared to the other. It makes use of this power to manipulate and exploit individual. In this way, the less powerful party cannot dictate and hence accept domination even without liking it.

(b) Compromise

In this method both parties part with something and compromise is reached at some point which they are supposed to agree. This is traditional method of resolving conflicts. There is no distinct winner or loser or because each party is expected to give up something of value for a concession. It is based on a simple give and take process and typically involves negotiation and a series of sacrifices. The amount given up by each party in conflict, however, will be in direct relation to its strength.

Bargaining can help resolve a conflict, but it often lacks transparency and real problem-solving. Typically, each side starts by demanding more than what they actually expect to receive. For bargaining to be effective as a conflict resolution strategy, both parties must have relatively equal power. Otherwise, the stronger group may simply impose its will, leaving the weaker group without any leverage for concessions. Bargaining is also more likely to succeed when there are multiple acceptable alternatives that both groups are willing to explore. Without such options, bargaining may lead to a deadlock.

(c) Integration

In Follett’s words, “the first rule for obtaining integration is to put your cards on the table, face the real issue, uncover the conflict, bring the whole thing into the open.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 What are the various methods of resolving conflicts in an organization?

13.5 BASES OF INTEGRATION

Follett describes three steps for integration.

1st Step

In the first step, there is a need to bring the differences in the open rather than suffering with them. We cannot hope to integrate, she asserts, “sour differences unless we know what they are.”

Care must be taken to bring the vital points in the open rather than unimportant points. It means to analyse real issues affecting conflict.

2nd Step

The second step is the breaking up the whole into their constituent parts. It means analyzing the concrete issues in question.

To Follett, all language used is symbolic, and therefore, one should be on one’s guard to ‘know as to what is being symbolized. Integration not only involves breaking up of the whole but sometimes one has to do the opposite. It is necessary to articulate the whole demand, the real demand which is being obscured by miscellaneous minor claims or by ineffective presentation.

3rd Step

Anticipation of conflict is the third step. Anticipation of conflict does not mean the avoidance of conflict but responding to it differently. The responses and reactions of the two parties to each other and the way that those responses and reactions affect the evolving situation must be fully realized. According to Follett, the major objective of management should be the attainment of integrative unity. A business should function smoothly and noiselessly like a well-designed, well-, constructed, well-lubricated machine. There should be perfect coordination between its various parts. There will be some amount of friction, for no movement is possible without friction. There are conflicting interests in every business but these should be so reconciled as to achieve maximum efficiency.

By dominance only one side gets what it wants by compromise neither side gets what it wants: by integration we find a way in which both side may get what they wish. In this way one is domination, which means a victory for one side or the other. The second is compromise which means each side gives up something in order to have peace. The third is integration which means neither side sacrifices anything and both sides gain. Integration occurs when differences are brought into the open when facts are presented. The first rule then for obtaining integration, is to put your cards on the table, face the real issue, uncover the conflict and bring the whole thing into the open. In this way this involves breaking the demands and interests of the both sides and finding the whole demand, which is being

obscured by miscellaneous minor claims or by ineffective presentation. Thus integration means the creation of a novel solution that penalizes no one and that becomes the only sure base for progress.

Mary Parker Follett says it is realized that greater participation in the affairs of the organizations is not a simple matter and for it to be effective, not only will it be necessary to create appropriate machinery and procedures but changes will also have to be brought about in the management attitudes and skills of staff in upper echelons of administration. The polarization of differences of views of the management and the employees can only be avoided by using the medium of staff organizations for the better ventilation of their grievances and the expression of their needs and problems. We must encourage the process of integration of management as it would lay the solid foundations for harmonious relationships and lesser staff problems.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What are the various steps for integration as suggested by MP Follett?

13.6 Obstacles to Integration

Integration is difficult to achieve as it requires, interference, and an art and science to solve the obstacles in the way of integration. Only deep insight and mature judgment can help to reach integration. The difficulty to integration arises from the fact that people enjoy and like domination rather than integration. Another difficulty in achieving integration is the emphasis laid on theory rather than practical solution.

“Fourth problem is the use of language. Language used, Follett says, must be suitable to reconciliation and should not arouse antagonism and perpetuate the conflict. Sometimes language used even results in new disputes which were not there earlier and making situation more complicated.

Other obstacles are the undue influence exerted by leaders and lack of training to those who are engaged in the process of integration. Training is needed in the art and science of co-operative thinking, to understand the technique of integration.

Follett says that there are four important steps in giving orders: (1) a conscious attitude—realize the principles through which it is possible to act on in any matter; (2) a responsible attitude to decide which of the principles we should act on; (3) an experimental attitude—try experiments and watch results; (4) pooling the results. In order that the orders are accepted.

Follett suggests three things viz., (1) building up of certain attitudes; (2) providing for their release; and (3) augmenting the released response as it is being carried out.

To Follett, both giving and receiving orders is a matter of integration through circular behaviour. There are two dissociated paths in the individual. Therefore, before integration can be made between order giver and order receiver, there is need for integration to be made within the individual. An order should seek to unite, to integrate the dissociated paths.

Follett creative experience discusses about circular response..She says:

“The concept of circular response developed in creative experience in later essays and lectures, is her principal contribution to the analysis of failures of integration. Circular response rests upon the theory that the unit of social analysis is the pattern of relations between actor conceived as a single situation produced by a union of their interests. No response by an actor is wholly predictable for he must continually modify his behaviour to adjust to expect responses of others, who constitute his environment. This modulation to both the activity and the sentiments of the actors in an environment, constitutes circular response. As Follett puts it “The most fundamental thought about all this is that reaction is always reaction to relating. I never react to you but you plus me; or to be more accurate, it is plus—you reaction to a you—plus—me.” Yet the actual response is still more circular. I can never fight you. I am always fighting you plus me. Employees do not respond only to their employers, but to the relation between themselves and their employer circular behaviour on the basis of integration gives us the key to constructive conflict.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Explain the concept of constructing conflict given by MP Follett.

13.7 Summary

Mary Parker Follett's concept of constructive conflict highlights the potential for conflicts to drive positive change and innovation within organizations. By advocating for integrative solutions where parties collaborate to find mutually beneficial outcomes, Follett emphasized the importance of

viewing conflicts not as disruptions, but as opportunities for growth and improvement. Her ideas encourage a shift from adversarial approaches to conflict resolution towards more cooperative and inclusive strategies, which can lead to enhanced creativity, better decision-making, and stronger organizational cohesion. Follett's pioneering thoughts on constructive conflict remain highly relevant, offering valuable insights for modern management practices and the fostering of healthy, dynamic workplaces.

13.8 Glossary

- Obstacles- a thing that blocks one's way or prevents or hinders progress.
- Integration- The action or process of integrating.

13.9 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 13.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 13.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 13.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 13.6

13.10 References/Suggested Readings

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13.11 Terminal Questions

- a. What are the resolution of conflict as per the view point of M.F. Follett?
- b. Discuss about the obstacles of integrations.
- c. Critically examine the differences between fact control and then control.

UNIT-14

MARRY PARKER FOLLETT (1868-1933)

Part-2

Structure

14.1 Introduction

14.2 Learning Objectives

14.3 The Law of Situation

Self-check Exercise-1

14.4 Follet on Principles of Organization

Self-check Exercise-2

14.5 Summary

14.6 Glossary

14.7 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

14.8 References/Suggested Readings

14.9 Terminal Questions

14.1 Introduction

Mary Parker Follett, a versatile genius with profound insights into management and industry issues, was born in 1868 in Boston, USA. She was educated in political economy, political science, philosophy, and law at Cambridge College. Her approach to management was both psychological and social. Remarkably, she had no contact with those involved in the Hawthorne Experiments. However, when the findings from the Hawthorne Studies were fully published in the 1930s, it became evident that their conclusions reflected principles that Follett had already identified through her own observations of the industrial landscape.

14.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To Know about the life sketch of M.P. Follett
- To tell about the constructive conflict in the organization.
- To comprehend about the bases of Integration.
- To discuss about the Follett's Theory of Administration and law of the situation.

14.3 LAW OF THE SITUATION: (Depersonalizing Order)

Mary Parker Follett, a pioneering figure in the field of administration, introduced the concept of the "law of situation." According to this idea, true authority comes from the situation itself, rather than being tied to any inherent authority of the administrator. Follett expressed that, "One person should not give orders to another; instead, both should agree to take their orders from the situation." She suggested that the challenge lies in avoiding two extremes: excessive bossiness in giving orders, or the complete absence of orders. Her solution was to depersonalize the process of giving orders and to involve everyone in understanding the situation at hand. By focusing on the situation, everyone could agree to follow the orders that emerge naturally from it, eliminating the need for one person to give commands to another.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on law of situation given by MP Follett?

14.4 MP Follett on Principles of Organization

Power

She defines power as "the ability to make things happen, to be a causal agent, to initiate change. Power is the capacity to produce intended effects. It is an instinctive urge inherent in all human beings. She makes a distinction between power over and power with.' The former may tend to be 'coercive-power' while the latter is a jointly developed coactive power'.

Management

Writers and political scientists talk about "the delegation of power" or the separation, transfer, or conferring power. Follett maintains and they are wrong and they fail to distinguish between power and

authority. Power is defined by Follett, "simply the ability to make things happen, to be a casual agent, to initiate change." Its sources and uses should be carefully studied. In any case, whether it is good or bad depends on the purposes for which it is used.

Follett believed that "power with" is superior to "power over," as it fosters self-development, enhances understanding, reduces friction and conflict, and encourages collaboration. While she acknowledged that it may not be possible to completely eliminate "power over," she advocated for minimizing its presence. According to Follett, this could be achieved by integrating desires, following the law of situations, and through functional unity. In a system of functional unity, each individual has their own specific role and should be granted the authority and responsibility that aligns with their function. She also argued that power cannot simply be delegated, handed out, or taken from someone, as it arises from knowledge and competence. However, she believed that we can create conditions that facilitate the growth of power.

Authority

Mary Parker Follett analyses the underlying forces which find their expression in what is popularly referred to as authority. It is her conclusion that the influence exerted by an individual is derived ultimately from the nature of the task itself and from the situation in which the task is to be performed. Furthermore what appears as authority and is displaced in a specific decision is in reality but the final outward expression of an entire series of tasks, action, and decision which have preceded this is so called decision or act of authority. Although she discusses delegation and acknowledge expertise as a base for authority. Miss Follett makes the point that authority is a far more complex concept than had previously been believed and its roots lie deep in the task and the situation in which it occurs. This belief in function as source of authority and responsibility, and the conclusion that final authority as evidenced by the decision itself is but one step in an entire process of particular importance to anyone studying organization behaviour and structure.

Follett believed that authority arises from the task being carried out and the situation at hand, suggesting that authority is derived from function. She argued that central authority, which comes from the Chief Executive, should be replaced by authority based on function, where each individual holds final authority within their assigned responsibilities. In her view, authority can be entrusted to others, but this process should not be confused with delegation. She clearly stated that the term "delegation of authority" should become an outdated concept.

Control

Control is an important method to achieve organizational goals. Unlike classical thinkers, Follett believes in fact-control rather than man-control and in correlated-control rather than super-imposed control.

Her concept of control was based on unity and cooperation among all elements, material and people, in a given situation. She said that 'the aim of organization engineering is control through effective unity.' She argued that control cannot be established without bringing the integrative unities, which are self-regulating, self-directing organisms. The managers must not pay attention to single elements, but complex interrelationships; not persons, but situation. In business, social control must develop from the process of integration.

Co-ordination

Perhaps the most original and constructive thought on the concept of coordination has been that of Mary Parker Follett, who has shifted principles from techniques and clarified the conditions for creating synchronized effort.

Follett favours "collective planning on a national or even international level," but at the same time she feels that central government planning imposed the top down is doomed to failure. She said, "The opposition of *laissez faire* is not coercion but coordination," and "coordination is by its very nature a process of autogoverned activity the reciprocal relating of all the factors in situation." She pointed out three principles for achieving coordination as follows?

1. Direct Contact

The principle of direct contact states that coordination must be achieved through interpersonal vertical, and horizontal relationships of the people in an enterprise: "Cross relations between heads of departments instead of up and down the line through the chief executive." People exchange ideas, ideals; prejudices, and purposes, through direct personal communication much more efficiently than by any other method, and with the understanding gained in this way, they find means to achieve both common and personal goals.

2. Co-ordination in the Early Stages

The second principle stresses the importance of achieving coordination in the early stages of planning and policy-making, so that policy may be created by responsible people, rather than later meetings and then can only try to resolve differences between policies already evolved by isolated groups. Follett said that, "The process of the interpretation of policies must begin before they are completed, while they are still in the formative stage."

3. Reciprocal Relationship

The third principle states that all factors in the situation are reciprocally related. This means equal attention to all variables in the social system.

“Coordination in these various forms is a continuing process since in any complex social environment there exists many points of creativity and established policies can never be executed as designed but must constantly be reformed in consonance with basic goals.” Finally, all those principles must be underpinned by information based on continuous research. Follett said that “the information itself would not be a form of control, for there would be a tendency to act in accordance with information given if it were accepted as accurate.”

Planning

According to Follett, national planning need not be in opposition to individual. If national planning is based on the principle of “the interpenetration of authority instead of super-authority it could give scope to individual initiative by showing in the way to combine effectively with other individual initiative by a process not of compromises but integration.”

Leadership

The leaders' main function is to evoke, that is to draw out from each of his people, their fullest potentialities. Everybody has some capacity, some ability and some potential for development. The leader sees to it that he develops and uses it for organizational work. The leader is like a good teacher. He guides and inspires his subordinates. His men therefore work with him enthusiastically. The Annual Report of Larsen and Tubrd Ltd., 2006-07 follows the ideas of Follett. To quote the report: The quality of leadership more than any other single factor determines the success or failure of an organization. People whose talent are not exploited become disenchanted and disruptive. The important thing is that managers must involve employees; employees' lead employees.

Follett has very perceptively observed that the skills of the executive are not painted on the outside. A good executive is like an iceberg. His skills and abilities are not immediately visible. He needs to possess many intangible qualities, such as good judgment, foresight, understanding of men, courage and coolness. These qualities are not immediately evident.

Follett believed that traditional views of leadership were evolving due to shifts in human relations and advancements in management practices. For her, a leader wasn't simply the president of an organization or the head of a department, but rather someone who could see the broader context of a situation. A true leader understands how different elements are interconnected and how to transition smoothly from one situation to another. Leadership, according to Follett, involves inspiring others to willingly work towards shared goals. She described a leader as someone who can energize the group, encourage initiative, and bring out the best in each individual.

Follett emphasized that a leader must have a clear understanding of the bigger picture and recognize the interrelations of all factors involved. She believed leaders could be found throughout an organization, not just at the top. For Follett, coordination, defining purpose, and anticipation were the key functions of a leader. Leaders also need to organize the group's experiences and transform them into collective power.

Follett argued that leadership is not just a trait people are born with; it can be cultivated through education and training in organizational management. She asserted that the true role of a leader is to enhance individuality, draw out the potential of others, and create group power, rather than focusing on personal power. She was an advocate for multiple leadership, rooted in integrative thinking and the ability to adapt to changing situations.

Her biographer, Pauline Graham, captures Follett's contribution by saying that her achievement lay in creating a management philosophy that deeply understood human nature. Follett aimed to integrate and unify all aspects of management to form a more effective and cohesive whole.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Write a short note on co-ordination as given by MP Follett.

Q.2 Write a short note on Leadership as given by MP Follett.

14.5 Summary

Professor Wills comments, “Much of what Follett said in her writings has become accepted and may now seem commonplace. But the interested managers in problems which writers such as Taylor were not dealing with, and indeed, considered unimportant. She took large questions and tried through examples and - suggestions to make the problems susceptible to science. Her writings are a rich reward for anyone who takes them up. The simplicity of the analysis must not be allowed to conceal their true value and relevance.

The ideas of Mary Parker Follett were accepted by eminent thinkers later on as highly relevant. Mary Parker Follett, in *Creative Experience and Dynamic Administration*, writes that it is possible to conceive conflict as not necessarily as wasteful outbreak of incompatibilities, but a normal process by which socially valuable differences register themselves for the enrichment of all concerned.

Rensis Likert in his book, “*New Patterns of Management*”, has rightly said that conflict and differences of opinion always exist in a Healthy, virile organization, for it is usually from such differences that new and better objectives and methods emerge. Differences are essential for progress, but better, unresolved differences can immobilize an organization. The central problem, consequently, becomes, not how to reduce or eliminate conflict, but how to deal constructively with it. Effective Organizations have extra-ordinary capacity to handle more conflict.

Mary Parkert Follett ideas are relevant in 21st Century. She advocated ideas far ahead of her times. The dynamics of the conflict plays a vital role in the modern analysis of organizational behaviour. Conflict can lead to innovation and change; it can energize people to activity, develop protection for something else in the organization (in the divide and conquer sense), and be an important element in systems analysis of the organization. Traditionally the Management of Organisational conflict was based on simplistic assumptions. Formal authority and classical restricting were used in an attempt to eliminate it. The more modern approach is to assume the inevitability of conflict, recognize that it is

not always bad for the organization, and try to manage it effectively rather than merely try to eliminate it. Even we may promote conflict for temporary purpose to ensure organizational efficiency.

14.6 Glossary

- Reciprocal- bearing on or binding each of two parties equally.

14.7 Leader: The leader is like a good teacher. He guides and inspires his subordinates. His men therefore work with him enthusiastically.

14.8 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 14.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 14.4

14.9 References/Suggested Readings

- Prasad, D. Ravindra, Prasad, V.S. and Satyanaryana, P. 'Administrative Thinkers', Sterling Publishing House, New Delhi, 2009.
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14.10 Terminal Questions

1. What is the law of situation as per the view point of M.F. Follett?
 2. Critically examine the differences between fact control and then control.
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UNIT-15

PETER DRUCKER

Part-1

Structure

15.1 Introduction

15.2 Learning Objectives

15.3 Contribution to Management Thought

Self-check Exercise-1

15.4 Top Management-Need of Team Structure

Self-check Exercise-2

15.5 Need of Attending on Priority Top Managerial Challenges and Opportunity.

Self-check Exercise-3

15.6 Planning

Self-check Exercise-4

15.7 Summary

15.8 Glossary

15.9 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

15.10 References/Suggested Readings

15.11 Terminal Questions

15.1 Introduction

His major contribution is in providing excellent literature in management and administration serving as a reputed journalist, consultant and an eminent scholar and teacher. He has been awarded with national and international awards.

15.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learners will be able:

- To understand the role and significance of Management.
- To analyze top Managerial Challenges and Opportunities.
- To Know about decentralized Model of Peter Drucker
- To state that whether Management by objectives can Promote efficiency?

15.3 Contribution to Management Thought

His contributions is immense and everlasting. His ideas have inspired large number of “students, Manager, Business Organizations and teachers. He is a prolific writer

Role and Significance of Management (Drucker)

Management is work, and as such it has its own skills, its own tools, its own techniques. For Management is the organ, the life-giving, acting, dynamic organ of the institution it manages.

Without management, a business cannot function effectively, and without an enterprise, there would be no need for management. However, in the absence of structured management, what remains is not an organized institution but merely a disorganized crowd. An institution, by its very nature, serves as an integral part of society and exists solely in relation to individuals. The role of any institution or organization is not determined by its mere existence or activities but by the value it contributes to society and the economy.

Management, the Drucker maintains throughout, is a discipline, or at least is capable of becoming one. It is not just common sense. It is not just codified experience, it is at least potentially an organized body of knowledge.

The emergence of management in this century may have been a pivotal event of history. It signaled a major transformation of society into a pluralist society of institutions of which management is the effective organ. Management, after more than a century of development as a practice and as a discipline, burst into public consciousness in the management boom that began after World War II and lasted through the 1960s. What has the boom accomplished? What have we learned? and what are the new knowledge we need, the new challenges we face, the new tasks ahead, now that the management boom is over?

“The manager is the dynamic, life-giving element in every business. Without his leadership the ‘resources of production’ remain resources and never become production.”

Peter F. Drucker has rightly pointed out that “Management is the crucial factor in economic and social development. It was obvious that the economists’ traditional view of development as a function of savings and capital investment do not produce management and economic development. On the contrary, management produces economic and social development and with its savings and capital investment. It becomes apparent that the developing countries are not underdeveloped, they are under managed.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 What is the role of management according to Drucker?

15.4 Top Management-Need of Team Structure

Top management is inherently a team effort rather than the responsibility of a single individual. It is rare for one person to possess all the diverse qualities required for such a role. Additionally, when the responsibilities of top management are carefully examined, it becomes clear that the workload is far too extensive for a single person to handle alone. In all but the smallest organizations, at least one dedicated individual is needed to focus entirely on these tasks. Moreover, one or two others must also contribute significantly, taking on specific responsibilities where they act as leaders and hold primary accountability.

There are additional reasons why the one-man top management tends to malfunction. Every top- management succession in a one-man top management is a “crisis” and a desperate gamble. No one in the business except the former top man has really done the top-management work and proven himself in it.

To recognize the team nature of the top-management job is particularly important in the small business the one- man top management is a major reason why business fail to grow.

But the job itself is a team job to begin with. Whatever the titles on the organization chart, the top-management job in a healthy company is almost always actually done by a team.

We can now summarize the basic specifications for a functioning top-management structure: The starting point is an analysis of the top-management tasks.

Each top-management task must be clearly assigned to someone who has direct and full Responsibility for it. This requires a top-management team, with responsibility assigned to fit the personalities, qualifications, and temperaments of the members.

Whoever has assigned responsibility for a top- management activity is “top management” whatever his title. Except in the small and simple business no one who has top management responsibilities does any but top- management work.

The complex business requires more than one top- management team, each structured according to these rules.

No business can do better than its top management will permit; the “bottleneck” is, after all, always

“at the head of the bottle.” Of all the jobs in the enterprise the top- management job is the most difficult one to organize. But it is also the most important one to organize.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Write a short note on top management given by Peter Drucker.

15.5 Need of Attending on Priority Top Managerial Challenges and Opportunities

The job, task, and responsibilities of worker and foreman in the plant, key-punch operator, and secretary in the office, metallurgist in the engineering lab, field salesman and branch manager of a bank or insurance company are little affected by size, complexity, growth, or diversity. Even innovation has an effect on most people in an organization only after it has become an accomplished fact. But the structure, the behaviour, the tasks, and the strategies of top management are profoundly molded by changes in size and complexity, by diversification, growth, and innovation. And, in turn, top management-and only top management-can make the strategic decisions that lead to growth, diversification, or innovation. The managerial strategies that relate to a company's basic structure have received almost no attention. They may, however, be of greater importance than strategies with respect to finances, product-development, or marketing on which the discussion has focused. Size, diversity, complexity, growth, and innovation are, above all, managerial challenges and opportunities to top management and make managerial demands on it.

Specifically, there are five major areas to be considered:

1. Managing smallness and bigness-that is, the management requirements of size by itself. “How big is big?” “What are ‘right’ sizes and what are ‘wrong’ sizes?” What are the limits beyond which further growth is degenerative?” And, “What are the implications of size for business strategy?”

2. The second major area is the management of complexity and diversity. “How complex is complex?” “How complex is too complex?” And, “What requirements does complexity make?”

A separate problem in complexity that deserves some discussion is that of the limits on the family-owned business. “Can it perpetuate itself, “Can it grow beyond small size?” And, “What are its limits in time and size?”

3. A special case of complexity, so important as to deserve a separate UNIT, is the most complex of business organizations, the multinational corporation. For here is added to complexities of size, markets, products, and technologies, the complexities of cultures and the complexities of multiple

political and governmental relationships and restraints.

4 Managing change and growth is the next major topic. “At what point in change and growth does management have to change its characteristics, its structure, its behaviour?” And, “How can it prepare itself so that it is ready for change and for growth without, at the same time, overloading the company with functions and complexities which, at the present state of the business, it does so require and can ill afford?”

5. Managing innovation is a topic in itself.

“Man is the only animal capable of purposeful evolution; he makes tools.” This insight of Alfred Russel Wallace, co-discoverer with Darwin of the principle of evolution, means that man and his social organizations can innovate. They can create, so to speak, a different animal. Indeed, in a changing environment their survival depends on their capacity to innovate. What does an innovative organization have to be and how does it have to be structured and managed?

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What are the major challenges to management as per Drucker?

Not in Favour of Bureaucratic Management

Peter F. Drucker is against bureaucratic management. He emphasizes creative management, i.e., the manager should be an innovator. In his book, ‘Practice of Management’ he wrote, “a business cannot be a bureaucratic, administrative, or even a policy-making job... (it) must be a creative rather than an adaptive task.

In his words, “in the last analysis, management is practice, its essence is not but doing, its not logic but results, its only authority is performance.

15.6 Planning

There has been a tremendous upsurge in long-range planning these last twenty years. The very idea was practically unknown a few decades ago. Now it is the rare large company (at least in the U.S. and in Japan) that does not have a long-range planning staff and elaborate long-range plans.

It is true that practically every basic management decision is a long-range decision—ten years is a rather short time span these days. Whether concerned with research or with building a new plant, designing a new marketing organization or a new product, every major management decision takes years before it is really effective. And it has to be productive for years thereafter to pay-off the investment of men and money. Managers, therefore, need to be skilled in making decisions with long

futurity on a systematic basis.

Management has no choice but to anticipate the future, to attempt to mold it, and to balance short-range and long-range goals, it is not given to mortals to do well any of these things. But lacking divine guidance, management must make sure that these difficult responsibilities are not overlooked or neglected but taken care of as well as is humanly possible.

“To plan is to produce a scheme for future action, to bring about specified results, at specified cost, in a specified period of time. It is a deliberate attempt to influence, exploit, bring about, and control the nature, direction, extent, speed and effects of change. It may even attempt deliberately to create change. It is a carefully controlled and co-activity.”

Strategic planning does not substitute facts for judgement, does not substitute science for the manager. It does not even lessen the importance and role of managerial ability, courage, experience, intuition, or even hunch—just as scientific biology and systematic medicine have not lessened the importance of these qualities in the individual physician. On the contrary, the systematic organization of the planning job and the supply of knowledge to it strengthen the manager’s judgement, leadership, and vision.

Decisions Need be Based on Developing Alternatives

Making decisions without considering alternatives can lead to undesirable consequences. Peter Drucker emphasizes this point clearly, stating that sound judgment requires having multiple options to choose from. If a decision only allows for a simple "yes" or "no," it is not truly a judgment but rather a risky gamble. Having alternatives provides deeper insight into what is truly at stake. Even when a decision is well thought out, having explored different possibilities ensures that there is a backup plan in case the original choice proves ineffective. Without such alternatives, one risks being unprepared and struggling to adapt when faced with unforeseen challenges.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Write a short note on Planning in the management.

15.7 Summary

Drucker states, "In the course of human history, few institutions have emerged as swiftly as management or had such a profound impact in such a short period. In under 150 years, management has radically reshaped the social and economic landscape of developed nations, creating a global economy. The core objective of management remains unchanged: to enable people to work together

effectively by fostering common goals, shared values, the appropriate structure, and the necessary training and development to perform and adapt to change. However, the very nature of this task has evolved, largely because management has transformed the workforce from one dominated by unskilled labor to one primarily composed of highly educated knowledge workers. After World War II, it became clear that management is not limited to business management; it applies to all human endeavors that bring together people with diverse knowledge and skills into a single organization."

He is rightly called the man who invented the corporate society. He is recognized management thinkereven in the USSR. D. Gvishiani, the Soviet author in his book, "*Organisation and Management: A Sociological Analysis of Western Theories*", has mentioned the contributions of Peter brucker very prominently.

15.8 Glossary

- Efficiency- an action designed to achieve efficiency or the state or quality of being efficient.

15.9 Answer to Self Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 15.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 15.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 15.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 15.6

15.10 References/Suggested Readings

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15.11 Terminal Questions

1. Write a short note on Management by Objectives (MBO).
2. “The Manager is the dynamic, life giving element in every business” Discuss.

UNIT-16
PETER DRUCKER
Part-2

Structure

16.1 Introduction

16.2 Learning Objectives

16.3 Decentralized Model

Self-check Exercise-1

16.4 Need of Good Organization

Self-check Exercise-2

16.5 Management by Objectives can Promote Efficiency

Self-check Exercise-3

16.6 Business Mission-Customer Satisfaction

Self-check Exercise-4

16.7 Poor Performance of Services Institution: Need of Research and Consultancy

Self-check Exercise-5

16.8 Summary

16.9 Glossary

16.10 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

16.11 References/Suggested Readings

16.12 Terminal Questions

16.1 Introduction

Peter Drucker, often regarded as the father of modern management, was a visionary thinker whose ideas have profoundly shaped contemporary business practices and management theory. Born in 1909 in Vienna, Austria, Drucker pursued a diverse academic background in law, economics, and political science, which laid the foundation for his groundbreaking work. His extensive writings, including seminal books like "The Practice of Management" and "Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices," introduced key concepts such as management by objectives, decentralization, and the knowledge worker. Drucker's insightful analysis and innovative perspectives on management continue to influence and inspire leaders, managers, and organizations worldwide, underscoring his enduring legacy in the field of management.

16.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learners will be able:

- To understand the role and significance of Management.
- To analyze top Managerial Challenges and Opportunities.
- To Know about decentralized Model of Peter Drucker
- To state that whether Management by objectives can Promote efficiency?

16.3 Decentralized Model

In simple words, an organization is said to be centralised, if most of the powers of decisions are vested in the top level. A decentralized organization, on the other hand, is 'the one, in which the lower level managers are allowed to decide. Simply stated, Sloan's General Motors Model utilizes centralized control of decentralized operations. Many large industrial organizations have designed themselves, after the Sloan Model. One important way, these complex organizations in USA have overcome breakdowns in communication, control and managerial effectiveness is through centralized control of decentralized operations.

Peter Drucker interviewed several GM executives who had worked under the Sloan type of structure. He found that some practical and day-to-day benefits have resulted from this model. These advantages are summarized by Peter Drucker:

1. The speed and lack of confusion with which a decision can be made.
2. The absence of conflict of interest between corporate management and the divisions.
3. The-sense of fairness, appreciation, confidence, and security that comes when organizationa politicsare kept under control.
4. The democracy and informality in management where everyone is free to criticize but no one tries to sabotage.
5. The absence of gap between “the privileged few” top managers and the “great many” subordinates managers in the organization.
6. The availability of large supply of goods, experienced leaders capable to take top responsibility.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 What is the decentralized model given by Drucker?

16.4 Need of Good Organisation

Organizational analysis is a technique to ensure the achievement of maximum results with minimum costs, in terms of human and material resources of the organizations. The objective of organizational analysis is to improve pattern of relationships between persons in an organization and to create harmonious arrangement of work with reference to its main objectives. The need for the design of sound organizational structures for

an enterprise and their continual evaluation in terms of suitability through organizational analysis has been recognized as an effective means to promote improvement in corporate performance. Peter F. Drucker has rightly observed: “Good organization structure does not by itself produce good performance-just as good constitution does not guarantee great Presidents, or good laws and a moral society. But a poor organization structure makes good performance impossible, no matter how good the individuals may be.

He states, “the alternative to autonomous institutions that function and perform is not freedom. It is totalitarian tyranny. The large organisation makes a living possible through knowledge. Knowledge is the very foundation of the modern organisation.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Why there is a need for good organization?

16.5 Management by Objectives can Promote Efficiency

For organizational success work activities should be so designed and directed as to support each other towards the achievement of objectives. It also implies that working relations should contribute to the success of each activity and thus to general effectiveness. The working relations between people are usually described as functional, and structural. Functional relations are derived from the technical nature of the work and where, when and in which sequence it takes place. Structural relations pertain to administrative rules and standards and in particular to the authority and responsibility assigned to individuals. This is known as convergence of work.

Management by objectives is one of the techniques by which executives can improve organizational performance and effectiveness.

According to George Odiorne, "MBO (Management By Objectives) is a system wherein the superior and the subordinate managers of an organization jointly define its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members.

Drucker's MBO, in his opinion, is a philosophy. "It rests on a concept of human action, human behaviour and human motivation. Finally, it applies to every manager, whatever his level of function, and to any business enterprise whether large or small. It ensures performance by converting objective needs into personal goals."

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 How can MBO promote efficiency?

16.6 Business Mission-Customer Satisfaction

A crucial step in defining what our business is, what it will become, and what it should be is conducting a thorough analysis of our existing products, services, processes, markets, end users, and distribution channels. Are they still relevant? Will they continue to be viable in the future? Do they still provide value to customers, and will they do so moving forward? Do they align with the evolving realities of population trends, market demands, technological advancements, and economic conditions? If not, how can we phase them out or at least stop investing resources in them?

If these questions are not asked seriously and systematically, and if management is unwilling

to act on the answers, then even the best definition of our business will remain nothing more than an empty statement. Energy will be wasted on defending outdated practices, leaving no time, resources, or strategic vision to capitalize on present opportunities—let alone prepare for the future.

‘Planned abandonment was first discussed and advocated in Peter’s book “Managing for Results.” It first was adopted as a systematic policy a few years later by the General Electric Company. Most long-range planning in large companies, like’ Unilever, focuses on the question “What will our business be?” GE’s strategic business planning developed in the late sixties is an exception. Its aim is to answer “What should our business be?” Yet GE’s planning does not start out with “What existing product lines and business should we abandon?” and “Which ones should we cut back and deemphasize?”

Defining a business's purpose and mission is a challenging, demanding, and uncertain process.

However, it is the foundation that allows a business to establish clear objectives, formulate effective strategies, focus its resources, and take meaningful action. Only with a well-defined mission can a business be managed with a focus on performance and long-term success.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Write a short note on Business Mission-Customer Satisfaction?

16.7 Poor Performance of Services Institution: Need of Research and Consultancy

Yet the evidence for performance in the service institutions is not impressive, let alone overwhelming. Schools, hospitals, and universities are all big today beyond the imagination of an earlier generation. Their budgets have grown even faster. Yet everywhere they are in crisis. A generation or two ago their performance was taken for granted. Today they are being attacked on all sides for lack of performance. Services which the nineteenth century managed with aplomb and apparently with little effort—the postal service, for instance, or the railroads—are deeply in the red, require enormous and growing subsidies and give poorer service everywhere. Government agencies, both in national and in local governments, are constantly being reorganized so as to be “more efficient. Yet in every country the citizen complains ever more loudly of bureaucracy in government. What he means by this complaint is that the government agency is being run for the convenience of its employees rather than for contribution and performance. This is mismanagement.

The most persistent critics of bureaucracy in government and in the public service institutions tend

to be business executives. But it is by no means certain that business's own service institutions are any more effective than the public-service bureaucracies.

The service institutions themselves have become "management conscious." Service institutions increasingly turn to business to learn management. In all service institutions, manager development, management by objectives, and many other concepts and tools of business management are now common.

This is a healthy sign but it does not mean that the service institutions understand the problems of managing themselves. It only means that they begin to realize that at present they are not being managed.

But the service institution is different fundamentally from business in its "business." It is different in its purpose. It has different values. It needs different objectives, and it makes a different contribution to society. Performance and results are quite different in a service institution from what they are in a business. Managing for performance is the one area in which the service institution differs significantly from a business.

We have no coherent theory of institutions and their management that would encompass the service institution. Compared to the work done in business management over the last seventy years, little has been done on the management of the service institution. All we can attempt so far is a first sketch.

We do understand why the service institution has difficulty in performing. And we can define what is needed to offset the built-in obstacles in the service institution to performance and results.

There are three popular explanations for the common failure of service institutions to perform:

- their managers aren't businesslike;
- they need better men; and
- their objectives and results are intangible.

All service institutions are threatened by the tendencies to cling to yesterday rather than to slough it off, and to put their best and ablest people on defending what no longer makes sense or serves a purpose. Government is particularly prone to this disease.

Underlying traditional political theory is the axiom that the functions of government are eternal. There is an implicit belief, held almost with the strength of dogma, that whatever government does is for all times. Yet government is a human activity. Everything human beings do, except their biological and

spiritual functions, obsolesces sooner or later. The proper rule for governed today, as for all other institutions, is not, “Whatever we do we’ll do forever”; the proper rule is, “Whatever we do today will in all likelihood be a candidate for abandonment within a fairly short period of years.”

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 What are the reasons of poor performance of service institutions?

16.8 Summary

Moved by the desire to strengthen the position of capitalism he endeavours at the same time to give due consideration also to some objective trends in production management. Drucker, therefore, tells the industrialists not to fear a limited participation of the workers in the management of production processes. He warns them that if they do not abandon that fear, the consequences may be fatal to them. Drucker realizes that the progress of industrial production demands that the sphere of management be extended and that it should enlist the help of more people at present engaged in the process of production, since isolated individuals are unable to carry out the complex state of operations linked with the management of modern industry. Drucker fails to see, however, that the capitalist mode of production is organically hostile to this objectively developing tendency. On the contrary, he endeavours to prove that the capitalist system of management promotes a democratization of management.

- “He is certainly the greatest management philosopher of any time. He has had extraordinarily perceptive insights ‘management -by objectives’, ‘control by self-control’, ‘federal decentralization’ and many others. These insights have had great impact on practice and on management thinking.”

16.9 Glossary

- Priority- The fact or conditions of being regarded or treated as more important than other.

16.10 Answer to Self Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 16.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 16.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 16.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 16.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 16.7

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16.12 Terminal Questions

3. Explain the Decentralized model given by Peter Drucker.
4. Discuss 'Poor Performance of Services Institution'.

UNIT -17

CHESTER I.BARNARD

Part-1

Structure

17.1 Introduction

17.2 Learning Objectives

17.3 Organization as a cooperative system

Self-check Exercise-1

17.4 Formal and Informal Organization

Self-check Exercise-2

17.5 Important elements for a good formal organization

Self-check Exercise-3

17.6 Summary

17.7 Glossary

17.8 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

17.9 Terminal Questions

17.10 References/Suggested Readings

17.1 Introduction

Chester Irvising Barnard is a well known theorists and considered spiritual father of social system school. He has built up theory of organisation and rejected its only definition which held stress on membership. He is one of the very few administrative thinker who propounded organizational principles and theories based on

person experience. A Bertram Gross co put it, is one of the few theorist in modern administrative thought that was highly successful as a man of affairs and also as a theoretician.

Chester Barnard was born in 1866 in Malden, Massachusetts, U.S.A., into a financially struggling family. Due to his circumstances, he faced numerous hardships, even as a student. After completing his early education at Mount Hermon Academy, he enrolled at Harvard University in 1906. However, he left in 1909 without earning a degree and began working as a clerk in the Statistical Department of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company in Boston. From that point onward, he held various positions within the Bell Company until his retirement in 1948.

Following his retirement, Barnard served as the President of the Rockefeller Foundation from 1948 to 1952. Despite not having a formal degree, he received seven honorary doctorates and secured a distinguished place in the history of administrative thought. His ideas were significantly influenced by the works of Oliver Sheldon, Elton Mayo, and Mary Parker Follett.

Alongside his managerial roles, Barnard also taught at various universities across the United States and authored several influential books on management. His most renowned work, *The Functions of the Executive* (1938), remains a key reference in management studies today. In 1948, he published *Organization and Management*, followed by *Elementary Conditions of Business Morals*. Although he did not write extensively, his contributions had a profound impact on both management theory and practice, inspiring numerous scholars and thinkers. His approach to problem-solving was interdisciplinary, making his studies comprehensive and widely respected.

17.2 Learning Objectives

After Studying this lesson the learner will be able:

- To know about the life sketch of charter I. Barnard and their contributions.
- To understand about the organization as a cooperative system.
- To differential formal and informal organization .
- To Comprehend about the important elements for a good formal organization.

17.3 Organization as a Co-operative System

According to Barnard an organization comes into existence till such time when the people willing to work in close cooperation with each other, because individuals functions in it. Why and under what motivation the people work in an organisation that cannot be understood simply by understanding the functioning of the organisation? No study of understanding will be complete unless human behaviour is studied or analysed. He has therefore laid stress on the study of organisational pattern and human behaviour.

While exploring human behavior, Chester Barnard emphasized the importance of studying organizations. He defined an organization as a system of consciously coordinated activities involving two or more individuals. In this definition, he highlighted the system of interactions, viewing an organization as a network of human activities where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Each element within this system is interconnected, contributing to the overall structure in a meaningful way.

According to Barnard, an organization functions effectively when three key elements are present: a shared purpose, the willingness of individuals to contribute, and effective communication among members. He also questioned why individuals choose to remain engaged in an organization's operations. Rejecting the traditional concept of the "economic man," he proposed the *contribution-satisfaction equilibrium* theory. This theory suggests that people contribute to an organization only when they find personal satisfaction in doing so. The benefits they receive in return may not always be in the same form as their contributions but must ultimately provide them with a sense of fulfillment. From an organization's perspective, these benefits are seen as incentives or inducements that encourage continued participation and commitment.

Barnard's main emphasis was on the multiplicity of satisfactions and identifies four specific inducements:

- a) material inducements such as money and physical conditions;
- b) personal non-material opportunities for distinction, prestige and personal power;
- c) desirable physical conditions of work and;

d) ideal benefactions, such as the pride of workmanship, sense of adequacy, altruistic service for family or others, loyalty to organisation and patriotism and aesthetic or religious feelings and the satisfaction of the motives of faith or revenge.

Since Barnard rejected the economic man, he also mentions four types of “general incentives”. They are;

- a) associated attractiveness based on compatibility with associates
- b) the adoption of working conditions to habitual methods and attitudes.
- c) the opportunity for the feeling of enlarged participation in the course of events; and
- d) the condition of communing with others, a condition teased upon personal comfort in social relations and mutual support in person attitudes.

Chester Barnard, in analyzing the relationship between specific incentives, argued that financial rewards become ineffective once individuals' basic needs are met. He also emphasized that incentives cannot be applied in a rigid or one-size-fits-all manner. Their effectiveness depends on various factors, including the specific situation, timing, and the individuals involved.

According to Barnard, one of the key responsibilities of executives is to manage and balance these incentives within an organization. Their role is to ensure that the right mix of inducements is offered to motivate employees effectively and sustain their commitment to the organization's goals.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on organization as a cooperative system.

17.4 Formal and Informal Organisation

According to Chester Barnard, a formal organization is a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces involving two or more individuals. It takes shape when people within the organization can communicate effectively, are willing to collaborate, and work towards a shared goal.

A formal organization operates within a structured framework, where rules and regulations are systematically planned and documented. These rules derive their authority from the positions and roles

individuals hold within the organization. It follows an organizational hierarchy, often represented through an organizational chart, which helps define its structure and objectives. Additionally, there is a clear division of labor, ensuring that responsibilities are assigned based on functions, creating a structured relationship between tasks and the individuals responsible for them.

An informal organization believes that an organization is very much influenced by the personality of the people who work in it and what is their behaviour in the organization. The relationship is based on external factors, environment and human relationship. He has said that informal organization is an absolute necessity.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 Write a short note on Formal and Informal organizations.

17.5 Important elements for a good formal organisation.

a) Communication : According to Barnard a common purpose can be achieved through communications. The method of communication can be verbal or written or observational. Communication is important for the organisation because it is through it that activities of the organisation can be expanded. The problem of communication is always much more serious in big as compared with small organisations.

b) Willingness to Serve : Willing to serve is an important element of formal organisation. This can be expressed in terms of loyalty, solidarity and strength of the organisation. According to Barnard it also means surrender of personal conduct and depersonalisation of personal action. But commitment or willingness goes on fluctuating which creates instable conditions in an organisation. It can be both positive as well as negative which can be because of satisfaction dissatisfaction of the people working in the organisation.

c) Common Purpose: The objective to be achieved may be called 'Purpose'. It may not always be specific and can be inferred in some cases as well. Unless the purpose for which the people are to work is not accepted by all there can be no cooperative efforts. The purpose can be cooperative or subjective. According to Barnard a co-operative purpose remains cooperative as long as the participants note that there is no serious

divergence of their understanding of that purpose, remaining the basis of their cooperative action as

regard subjective purpose, it determines the purpose of the organization.

A distinction has to be made between organizational purpose, and individual motive. Individual notice is internal, personal and subjective. Common purpose is impersonal, external and objective. The one exception to the general rule is that the accomplishment of an organisation purpose becomes itself a source of personal satisfaction and a motive for many individuals in many organisations.

Informal organizations: According to Barnard along with formal organization, there is informal organizations which primarily comes to the fore when formal set up becomes somewhat less effective. But it does not mean that both do not work in close cooperation with each other. In an informal organization there is definite good will for each other and respect for customs and traditions. In it people always interact with each other because of their being social on the one hand and fulfillment of some personal desire on the part of each on the other. Barnard describes informal organisation as the aggregate of personal contacts and interactions and the associated groupings of the people. Such organisations are indefinite, structure less and are a shapeless mass of varied densities.

Informal organizations have a significant influence on members of formal organizations, creating a continuous interaction between the two. For an informal organization to be effective, it must integrate structured communication channels within the formal organization. This helps protect individuals from being overly controlled by formal structures while fostering a more dynamic and cooperative environment.

According to Chester Barnard, informal organizations serve several key functions. They facilitate communication, promote cohesiveness by influencing individuals' willingness to learn and accept authority, and help maintain a sense of personal integrity. Additionally, they contribute to self-respect and independent decision-making, ensuring that individuals feel valued and empowered within the organization.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What are the differences between formal and informal organizations?

17.6 Summary

Chester Barnard, an American business executive, is considered as the spiritual father of 'Social system' school. His Classic "The functions of the executives" is the most influential work in Administrative and management Theory. To conclude Barnard has rejected traditional concept of include Barnard has rejected traditional concept of economic man. His sides are a bountiful

combination of interties and expertise's. His approach to every problem is social and human. It has rightly been said that he was human relations school and a bridge between formal and informal system of organizations.

17.7 Glossary

- Consistency- Consistence behavior or treatment.
- Informal organizations: According to Barnard along with formal organization, there is informal organizations which primarily comes to the fore when formal set up becomes somewhat less effective

17.8 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. 17.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. 17.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. 17.5

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17.10 Terminal Questions

1. Elaborate the 'Theory of Authority' according to Charter I. Barnard.
2. Write a note on the zone of indifference.

UNIT -18

CHESTER I. BARNARD

Part-2

Structure

- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 Learning Objectives
- 18.3 The Theory of Authority
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 18.4 The zone of Indifference
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 18.5 The system of Coordination
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 18.6 Criticism
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 18.7 Summary
- 18.8 Glossary
- 18.9 Answer to Self-Check Exercises
- 18.10 References/Suggested Readings
- 18.11 Terminal Questions

18.1 Introduction

Chester Barnard was born in 1866 in Malden, Massachusetts, into a poor family, which made his early life quite challenging. Despite these difficulties, he persevered through his education, initially attending Mount Hermon Academy. In 1906, Barnard enrolled at Harvard University but left in 1909

without completing his degree. That same year, he began working as a clerk in the Statistical Department of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company in Boston.

Barnard continued to work for the Bell Company in various roles until 1948. After retiring, he served as the President of the Rockefeller Foundation from 1948 to 1952. Over the years, he held numerous important positions and earned seven honorary doctorates, despite never having a bachelor's degree. His contributions earned him a prominent place in the history of administrative thought.

18.2 Learning Objectives

After Studying this lesson the learner will be able:

- To know about the life sketch of charter I. Barnard and their contributions.
- To understand about the organization as a cooperative system.
- To differential formal and informal organization.
- To Comprehend about the important elements for a good formal organization.

18.3 The Theory of Authority

According to Barnard authority is the “Character of a communication (order) in a formal organization by virtue of which it is accepted by a contributor or run of the organisation -as- governing or determining what he does or is not to do in so far as organisation is concerned.” It implies acceptance of communicating as authority and why the communication is at all accepted by the members of the organization. Individualism the organizations accept authority only when the following four, conditions obtains simultaneously:

i) When the communication is understood:

Communication must be clear and understandable to be effective; otherwise, it lacks authority. Barnard suggests that a significant amount of time is spent interpreting and reinterpreting instructions to fit specific situations.

ii) Consistency with the organisational purpose:

Any communication, not compatible with the purpose of the organisation, is unlikely to be

accepted. Because of the cross purposes, it may result in frustrated action. An intelligent person will deny authority if he understands that it is a contradiction with the purposes of the organisation.

iii) Compatibility with Personal Interests:

If the communications are detrimental to the personal interests of the individuals, they have little chance of acceptability. Similarly, the orders should also provide positive inducements to the individual to motivate them.

iv) Physical and mental ability to comply:

In cases where a person is unable to comply with an order, it will generally be disobeyed or disregarded.

Therefore, orders should not be beyond the mental and physical capacity of individuals.

From the foregoing, it is evident that the determination of authority lies with the subordinate individual then the question that arises is how to ensure enduring cooperation of an individual in an organisation. According to Barnard, it is possible under three conditions;

- (a) When the orders issued in organisations are in accordance with the four conditions discussed above;
- (b) When the orders fall within the zone of indifference and;
- (c) When the group influences the individual resulting in the stability of the zone of indifference.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on Theory of Authority given by Chester Barnard.

18.4 The Zone of Indifference:

According to Barnard, the acceptance of authority in organizations is influenced by the "zone of indifference." He categorizes orders based on their level of acceptability to individuals affected by them into three groups:

1. Orders that are clearly acceptable,
2. Orders that are neutral, meaning they are either just acceptable or just unacceptable, and
3. Orders that are unquestionably unacceptable.

Orders that fall into the third category fall within the zone of indifference. As long as the orders remain within this zone, individuals will accept them regardless of the nature of the authority issuing them. The size of this zone will vary depending on the incentives provided and the personal

sacrifices made by individuals within the organization.

The Fiction of Authority : It is presumed that in an organisation for various reasons the individuals will accept authority. One reason the individuals will accept authority. One reason being that they want to avoid making issue of such orders and also desire to avoid loss of personal status with their colleagues. The fiction of superior authority is nice because that enables the individual to delegate responsibility and also because it is understood that goodwill of the organisation is at stake.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 What is zone of indifference according to Barnard?

18.5 The system of Coordination

Barnard believes that a superior does not automatically possess authority, and in some cases, they may not have any authority at all. A communication cannot be considered authoritative unless it is backed by the actions or efforts of the organization. Ultimately, the authority of a message is determined by the assent of those to whom it is directed. Official communications that carry authority are directly related to organizational actions. For example, the laws of one country do not hold authority over the citizens of another.

This is particularly so with codes have substantially equal validity. Such conflicts may result in;

1. the paralyses of action accompanied by emotional tension, and ending in a sense of frustration;
2. there is conformance to one code and violation of the other, resulting in a sense of guilt, discomfort etc.;
3. there is sound some substitute action which satisfies, immediate desire or impulse or interest:

Barnard suggests that executive actions are always influenced by moral considerations. However, he notes that business, as a whole, is often disconnected from higher moral principles. As a result, he emphasizes the need for further research into the relationship between executive behavior and moral principles, highlighting this as an important area for exploration.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 Write a short note on system of coordination.

18.6 Criticism

Barnard has been called as fore-runner of human relations school and also spiritual father of social systemschool of thought, get has not been spared by his critics.

While Barnard views purpose as central to cooperative efforts, Kenneth Andrews believes that Barnard has not fully addressed the process of formulating that purpose, either descriptively or prescriptively. Andrews also argues that Barnard's definition of authority downplays the role of objective authority. Instead of focusing on how authority can actively integrate conflicting alternatives and interpretations, Barnard seems to give individuals the option to either accept or reject it. Additionally, Andrews feels that Barnard's examination of leadership, although effective in theory, lacks an analysis of the practical problems that arise within leadership roles.

It is said by his critics that in his presentations he lacks practical examples from day to day experience and as such these are abstract thoughts devoid of practical outlook. His style of presentation is difficult and noteasily understandable. In fact, Barnard himself believes that abstractness is inevitable when so many problemsare to be discussed. He has also been criticized for not giving full attention to the process of formulation ofpurpose, though purpose is centre of his cooperative efforts. It is also said that in his concept of authority he has not paid full attention to the role of objective authority.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Critically evaluate the works of Barnard.

Summary

Chester Barnard, an American business executive, is regarded as the founding figure of the 'Social System' school of thought. His seminal work, *The Functions of the Executive*, remains one of the most influential contributions to administrative and management theory. Barnard rejected the traditional concept of the "economic man," instead focusing on the complex interplay of interests and skills within organizations. His approach to problem-solving was deeply rooted in social and human considerations. It is often said that he represented the human relations school and acted as a bridge between the formal and informal structures of organizations.

18.7 Glossary

- Compatibility- a state is which two things are able to exist or occur together without problems

or conflict.

18.8 Answer to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 18.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 18.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 18.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 18.6

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- Prasad, D. Ravindra, Prasad, V.S. and Satyanaryana, P. 'Administrative Thinkers', Sterling Publishing House, New Delhi, 2009.
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18.10 Terminal Questions

1. Discuss the 'Theory of Authority' according to Charter I. Barnard.
2. Write a note on the systems of coordination in an organisation.

UNIT-19
HERBERT SIMON
Part-1

Structure:

- 19.1 Introduction
- 19.2 Learning Objectives
- 19.3 Classical theory: An Indictment
 - Self-check Exercise-1
- 19.4 Decision – Making
 - Self-check Exercise-2
- 19.5 Rationality in Decision – Making
 - Self-check Exercise-3
- 19.6 Hierarchy in Decision
 - Self-check Exercise-4
- 19.7 Summary
- 19.8 Glossary
- 19.9 Answers to Self-Check Exercises
- 19.10 References/Suggested Readings
- 19.11 Terminal Questions

19.1 Introduction

Administrative studies in the 1930s and 1940s marked a shift toward empiricism, leading to significant changes in how we understood people within organizations. These studies contributed to the development of theoretical frameworks for social systems and offered new insights into human behavior. Several efforts were made during this period to conceptualize and develop theories based on

emerging findings about people at work, which paved the way for the later growth of organizational theory. Known as "behavioral studies," these investigations used an interdisciplinary approach, drawing from anthropology, sociology, and psychology, and played a key role in what we now call Behavioral Science.

In the field of administrative behavior, much of the focus was on areas such as bureaucracy, human relations, motivation, and decision-making. Herbert A. Simon made especially noteworthy contributions to the study of decision-making. Born in 1916 in Wisconsin, Simon was an influential American political and social scientist. He earned his Ph.D. in Political Science from the University of Chicago and began his career in municipal government, writing extensively on the subject. Throughout his career, Simon served in various academic and consulting roles, and his extensive body of work has been translated into multiple languages, including Turkish, Persian, and Chinese. His contributions to administrative thought are widely recognized and remain influential in the field today.

19.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- To know about the life sketch and works of Herbert A. Simon.
- To understand about classical theory, human relations theory and behavioral theory.
- To analyze about decision making process and the contributions of Herbert A. Simon.
- To comprehend about modes of organizational influence.

19.3 Classical Theory: An Indictment

Simon criticizes traditional administrative concepts, calling them proverbs and myths. He argues that principles like the division of labor, unity of command, and span of control are vague and often contradict each other, making them more like folk wisdom than practical guidelines. He attributes this ambiguity to insufficient analysis of situations, unclear definitions of key terms, and a lack of in-depth research into real-world scenarios. According to Simon, these principles resemble abstract designs for organizational structures, created with a certain logical order but lacking human-centered

consideration. He finds a disconnect between the idealized administrative processes outlined in the POSDCORB formula and their practical effectiveness in achieving organizational goals.

Through his critique, Simon highlights the gap between theory and practice in administration. He believes the key missing element is effective decision-making, which he defines as the rational selection of the best course of action from various alternatives. This realization sparks his pursuit of rational decision-making models that can offer practical guidance for real-world decision-making in organizations.

Key Criticisms by Herbert Simon

1. Over-Simplification of Human Behavior

- **Rationality Assumptions:** Classical theory assumes that individuals within organizations are perfectly rational actors who always make decisions to maximize efficiency and effectiveness. Simon argued that this view is unrealistic, as humans operate with "bounded rationality"—their decision-making is limited by the information they have, their cognitive limitations, and the time available to make decisions.
- **Ignoring Psychological and Social Factors:** Classical theory largely ignores the psychological and social dimensions of human behavior. It fails to account for factors such as emotions, cultural influences, and interpersonal dynamics, which significantly impact decision-making and organizational performance.

2. Inadequate Decision-Making Model

- **Simplistic View of Decision Processes:** Simon criticized the classical theory for its overly simplistic view of decision processes. He argued that decisions in organizations are not always clear-cut and straightforward but are often complex, involving multiple variables and uncertainties.
- **Sequential Decision-Making:** Classical theory tends to portray decision-making as a linear, sequential process. Simon contended that this does not reflect the reality where decisions are often iterative, requiring ongoing adjustments and revisions based on feedback and changing circumstances.

3. Neglect of Informal Organization

- **Emphasis on Formal Structure:** Classical theory places heavy emphasis on formal organizational structures, rules, and procedures. Simon pointed out that this overlooks the importance of informal networks, relationships, and social norms that play a crucial role in organizational functioning.
- **Influence of Informal Groups:** Informal groups within organizations can significantly influence behavior and decision-making. By ignoring these groups, classical theory fails to provide a comprehensive understanding of organizational dynamics.

4. Lack of Attention to Contextual Factors

- **One-Size-Fits-All Approach:** Classical theory often advocates for universal principles of management that can be applied across different types of organizations and environments. Simon criticized this approach for failing to consider the unique contextual factors that influence organizational behavior and effectiveness.
- **Environmental Adaptation:** Organizations must adapt to their specific environments and contexts. The rigid, prescriptive nature of classical theory does not adequately address the need for flexibility and adaptability in the face of changing external conditions.

5. Inadequate Consideration of Organizational Goals

- **Goal Ambiguity:** Classical theory assumes that organizational goals are clear, unambiguous, and agreed upon by all members. Simon highlighted that, in reality, organizations often face goal ambiguity and conflict, with different stakeholders having different priorities and objectives.
- **Complex Goal Setting:** The process of setting and achieving goals is more complex than classical theory suggests. It involves negotiation, compromise, and alignment of diverse interests, which classical theory does not fully address.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on classical theory of organisation?

19.4 Decision-Making

Simon perceives an organization as a network of decision-makers. He asserts that decisions are made at every level, with some having a broad impact on numerous members, while others involve minor details. Each decision is influenced by a set of underlying premises, and Simon emphasizes understanding how these premises are established.

Simon explains that decision-making fundamentally involves selecting between alternative courses of action, a process influenced by both facts and values. Every decision, according to him, is a combination of factual and value-based considerations. Facts represent objective reality—statements that can be verified through observation and measurement. Values, on the other hand, reflect personal or collective preferences and cannot be objectively proven. While Simon acknowledges that most premises contain both factual and value components, he differentiates them to clarify their distinct roles in decision analysis. He highlights that scientific methods, especially empirical observation, cannot validate ethical judgments, though values and facts are often intertwined.

To illustrate the distinction between facts and values, Simon refers to the means-ends framework. He argues that facts can be evaluated through rational analysis, while values often stem from non-rational sources such as beliefs or societal norms. This blend of factual and value considerations complicates administrative decision-making, as organizations exist to achieve collective goals that individuals cannot accomplish alone. Within this framework, Simon introduces the concept of a "hierarchy of decisions," where each decision serves as a step toward a broader objective. He asserts that decision-making within organizations is inherently rational, though it is continuously shaped by evolving goals. Simon further clarifies that each decision involves selecting a goal and determining the necessary actions to achieve it. These goals may be intermediate, leading toward a final objective. The distinction between means-ends and fact-value relationships is key to his analysis. He states that when decisions define ultimate goals, they predominantly reflect value judgments, while decisions that implement those goals are based on factual judgments. However, he avoids categorizing decisions strictly as "value decisions" or "factual decisions," instead emphasizing that all decisions contain varying degrees of both elements. Through his framework, Simon demonstrates that administrative decisions always involve a complex interplay of factual and value-based considerations.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 What is decision making according to Simon?

19.5 Rationality in Decision-Making

After establishing the continuum of decision-making, Simon shifts his focus to another crucial aspect—the concept of rationality in decision-making. He emphasizes the importance of making rational choices and defines rationality as the selection of the most suitable course of action based on a system of values that allows for evaluating the consequences of a decision. According to him, true rationality requires complete knowledge and the ability to anticipate the outcomes of each possible choice. It also involves selecting the best option from all available alternatives.

Simon explains rationality through the means-ends framework. In this construct, "means" refers to an action or situation that precedes another in a sequence, serving as a step toward a goal. "Ends," on the other hand, represent the ultimate objectives to be achieved. He highlights that the same action can function as a means in one context and as an end in another, depending on perspective. If the chosen means effectively lead to the desired ends, the decision is considered rational. However, Simon acknowledges that this test of rationality is not as straightforward as it seems. The distinction between means and ends is often blurred, as what appears to be an ultimate goal may, in fact, be a stepping stone toward another objective. This concept is known as the means-end hierarchy.

Simon notes that this hierarchy is rarely a seamless, fully connected chain. In many cases, the link between an organization's activities and its ultimate objectives is unclear. Additionally, organizations may struggle with poorly defined goals, conflicting priorities, or inconsistencies between chosen methods and desired outcomes. He also warns that decisions, even when seemingly rational, can lead to unintended or undesirable consequences if they are based on flawed assumptions or incomplete information.

To summarize the challenges of means-ends analysis, Simon presents three key points:

1. The goals associated with a particular decision are often inadequately defined, as decision-makers may fail to consider alternative objectives that could be achieved through a different course of action.
2. In real-world scenarios, it is nearly impossible to draw a clear distinction between means and ends, as they are often interdependent.
3. The means-end approach tends to overlook the role of time in decision-making, as the long-term consequences of a decision may not always be immediately apparent.

Through this analysis, Simon underscores the complexity of rational decision-making, highlighting the challenges that arise when attempting to apply logical frameworks to real-world organizational processes.

Simon differentiates between different types of rationality. A decision is:

- 19.4.1 objectively rational where it is correct behaviour for maximizing given values in a given situation;
- 19.4.2 subjectively rational if the decision maximises attainment relative to knowledge of the subject:
- 19.4.3 consciously rational where adjustment of means to ends is a conscious process;
- 19.4.4 deliberately rational to the degree that the adjustment of means of ends has been deliberately sought;
- 19.4.5 organizationally rational to the extent that it is aimed at the organisation's goals; and
- 19.4.6 personally rational if the decision is directed to the individual's goals.

Simon challenges the idea of complete rationality in administrative behavior, arguing that human decision-making is neither entirely rational nor entirely irrational. Instead, he introduces the concept of **bounded rationality**, which acknowledges the limitations individuals face in processing information and making decisions. He also dismisses the idea of optimizing decisions, which stems from the assumption of total rationality.

The concept of total rationality is based on three key assumptions:

1. Decision-makers have complete knowledge of all possible alternatives.
2. They fully understand the values and consequences associated with each alternative.
3. They possess a clear, ranked preference order among all available options.

Simon finds these assumptions fundamentally flawed and, therefore, rejects the theory of total rationality. Instead of **optimizing decisions**, which require selecting the absolute best option, he proposes the concept of "**satisficing**." The term, derived from "satisfaction" and "sufficing," refers to choosing an option that is satisfactory or **good enough**, rather than the best possible one.

Following his discussion of the means-ends framework, Simon explores various decision-making models before ultimately developing his own model that integrates his key concepts, emphasizing realistic and practical approaches to decision-making.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 Write a short note on rationality in decision making.

19.6 The Hierarchy of Decisions

Organizations naturally function within a hierarchical framework, consisting of multiple levels arranged in a structured order. This hierarchy ensures that tasks are systematically divided and assigned to different units, which are further broken down into smaller components as they move downward. The ultimate goal of this structured division is to efficiently achieve the organization's objectives.

A key aspect of this hierarchy is the **decision-making process**, where each level is responsible for implementing the goals set by the level above it. In this way, decision-making follows a structured progression, ensuring that actions at the lower levels align with the broader objectives of the organization. **Purposive behavior** in an organization refers to actions that are guided by overarching goals, while **rational behavior** involves selecting the most effective alternatives to achieve these objectives.

However, in reality, organizational goals are rarely perfectly aligned. A single agency or department often has to balance multiple objectives simultaneously. For example, a city's recreation department may aim to improve children's health, provide constructive leisure activities, reduce juvenile delinquency, and promote similar programs for adults. The presence of multiple, sometimes competing, objectives makes it challenging to achieve complete integration within the hierarchy.

Nevertheless, a certain level of integration is necessary in practice for any purpose to be achieved. This discussion unveils two important dimensions of the behavioral approach:

1. The distinction between policy-making and implementation.
2. The involvement of facts and values in decision-making.

It emphasizes that decisions at lower levels primarily involve factual judgments. In the decision-making process, the selection of goals requires the evaluation of alternatives based on value judgments, while the selection of means to achieve these goals relies on factual judgments.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 Write a short note on Hierarchy of Decisions.

19.7 Summary

Despite its limitations, Simon's work represents a significant breakthrough in the evolution of administrative theory. His insights into decision-making processes have had a lasting impact on the field. However, it is regrettable that after his seminal work, *Administrative Behavior*, Simon shifted his focus away from public administration and directed his attention toward economic and business systems.

Equally unfortunate is the fact that subsequent administrative theories have not sufficiently expanded upon or addressed the depth of Simon's contributions to decision-making in organizations. His work laid a strong foundation, but later developments in administrative thought have not fully built upon the critical aspects he explored.

19.8 Glossary

- Rationality- the quality of being based on or in accordance with reason or logic.
- Efficiency- the state or quality of being efficient.

19.9 Answers to Self-Check

Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 19.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 19.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 19.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 19.6

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19.11 Terminal Questions

- (a) Discuss Simon's view on Decision-Making process in the organization?
- (b) Describe about programmed and non-programmed decisions in the organization?

UNIT-20
HERBERT SIMON

Part-2

Structure:

20.1 Introduction/Life Sketch

20.2 Learning Objectives

20.3 Models of Decision- Making Behavior

Self-check Exercise-1

20.4 Models of Organizational Influence

Self-check Exercise-2

20.5 Organizational Loyalties

Self-check Exercise-3

20.6 The Criterion of Efficiency

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20.7 Types of Decisions

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20.9 Administrative
Efficiency

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20.10 An Evaluation

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20.11 Summary

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20.13 Answers to Self-Check Exercises

20.14 References/Suggested Readings

20.15 Terminal Questions

20.1 Introduction

Herbert A. Simon was a renowned American political and social scientist, recognized for his groundbreaking contributions to administrative thought. Born in 1916 in Wisconsin, he earned his Ph.D. in Political Science from the University of Chicago. Simon began his career in municipal government, a field on which he authored several influential books. Throughout his career, he held various distinguished positions, serving as both an academic and a consultant. His work has had a profound impact on the study of administration, with numerous publications covering a wide range of subjects. Many of his works have been translated into multiple languages, including Turkish, Persian, and Chinese, further highlighting the global influence of his ideas.

20.2 Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, the learner will be able:

- a. To know about the life sketch and works of Herbert A. Simon.
- b. To understand about classical theory, human relations theory and behavioral theory.
- c. To analyze about decision making process and the contributions of Herbert A. Simon.
- d. To comprehend about modes of organizational influence.

20.3 Models of Decision-Making Behaviour

There are various models of decision-making behavior, each attempting to assess the level of rationality exhibited by decision-makers. These models range from complete rationality, as seen in the concept of the "economic man," to complete irrationality, represented by the "social man." In contrast, Herbert Simon introduces the "administrative man" as a more realistic representation of decision-makers within organizations.

Unlike the economic man, who is assumed to have complete knowledge of all possible alternatives and their consequences, the administrative man operates with limited information. Instead of striving for an optimal solution, he settles for one that is "good enough" or simply feasible, a process Simon refers to as "satisficing." Since the administrative man recognizes that his perception of reality is only a simplified version of the complex world, he makes decisions based on a limited set of factors that he considers most relevant. His choices are guided by basic rules of thumb rather than an exhaustive evaluation of all possible alternatives.

Simon also highlights the obstacles that prevent decision-makers from achieving maximization. Factors such as resistance to change, a desire for status, and conflicts arising from specialization can hinder optimal decision-making. To address these challenges, Simon differentiates between two types of decisions—programmed and non-programmed. Programmed decisions involve routine, repetitive tasks for which predefined procedures can be applied, reducing the need for individual judgment. In contrast, non-programmed decisions are novel, complex, and require unique solutions, necessitating higher levels of creativity and strategic thinking from executives.

Simon suggests that advancements in technology, particularly in mathematical modeling, operations research, electronic data processing, and computer simulations, can significantly enhance decision-making processes. The increasing use of computers can help automate routine decisions, allowing for greater efficiency and rationality within organizations. However, he also acknowledges that this shift toward automation may lead to recentralization, altering traditional concepts of delegation and decentralization.

Ultimately, Simon envisions a future where computerized decision-making enhances rationality, streamlining executive functions and improving overall organizational efficiency. By leveraging technology, organizations can make more informed and coordinated decisions, transforming the administrative landscape in fundamental ways.

Self-check Exercise-1

Q.1 Write a short note on decision making behaviour.

20.4 Modes of Organizational Influence

The behavior of individuals within an organization is shaped by both internal and external influences. Internal influences focus on cultivating attitudes and habits in employees that align with organizational goals. This is achieved through fostering loyalty, emphasizing efficiency, and providing proper training. On the other hand, external influences involve directives and decisions imposed from higher levels within the organization. These are enforced through mechanisms such as authority, advisory roles, and informational support.

Employees generally accept these influences because the organization's objectives often become intertwined with their own personal goals. Adapting to these influences also fulfills individual motivations, making compliance more natural. However, these influences are neither exhaustive nor strictly separate; they often overlap and interact in complex ways.

One of the key mechanisms ensuring compliance is authority. Contrary to the common belief that authority flows solely from the top down, Simon argues that authority ultimately depends on the willingness of subordinates to accept it. Authority operates at multiple levels within an organization and is not strictly hierarchical. Organizations function through both formal and informal relationships, and authority often plays a crucial role in resolving disputes.

Building on Chester Barnard's concept of the "zone of indifference," Simon introduces the idea of the "zone of acceptance." According to him, employees comply with authority when directives fall within this acceptable range. However, when authority is exercised beyond this zone, subordinates are more likely to resist or disobey. The extent of an individual's zone of acceptance is influenced by various factors, including the consequences of non-compliance and the legitimacy of the authority figure.

Self-check Exercise-2

Q.1 What are the modes of decision-making influence?

20.5 Organizational Loyalties

It is commonly observed that individuals within an organization develop a strong sense of identification with it. This sense of loyalty is essential for the smooth functioning of any organization. Organizational loyalty plays a crucial role in ensuring that members stay focused on their assigned tasks rather than questioning the foundational aspects of various issues.

However, excessive or narrow loyalties can lead to internal conflicts and heightened competition

for limited resources. Despite these challenges, organizational loyalty remains a key factor in fostering teamwork and collective effort. Alongside loyalty, internal influences within an organization also play a significant role in shaping employee behavior and maintaining organizational cohesion.

Self-check Exercise-3

Q.1 What are decision making loyalties?

20.6 The Criterion of Efficiency

While authority and organizational loyalty shape an individual's value system, the criterion of efficiency affects their ability to manage facts. Efficiency refers to the use of the most direct and cost-effective methods to achieve desired outcomes. The principle of "being efficient" is a significant influence on the organizational member. This focus on efficiency leads to more rational behavior in decision-making and action.

Herbert Simon's exploration of "The Criterion of Efficiency" represents a fundamental critique and rethinking of traditional notions of efficiency within organizational theory. Simon, a Nobel laureate in Economics and a pioneer in the fields of decision-making and management science, challenged the simplistic view that efficiency should be solely measured by how well organizations achieve their goals with minimal resources. Instead, he introduced a broader and more nuanced perspective on efficiency, which considers the complexities of human cognition and organizational dynamics.

1. Bounded Rationality and Decision-Making

- Simon introduced the concept of "bounded rationality," which acknowledges that human decision-makers are limited by cognitive constraints such as incomplete information, cognitive biases, and time constraints.
- According to Simon, decisions made under bounded rationality are "satisficing"—aiming for satisfactory solutions that are good enough, rather than optimal solutions that may be unattainable due to these limitations.

2. Adaptive Behavior and Organizational Efficiency

- Simon argued that organizational efficiency should not only focus on optimizing

processes and outputs but also on the adaptive behavior of organizations in response to changing environments.

- Adaptive efficiency involves the ability of organizations to learn from experience, adjust strategies, and innovate in order to maintain effectiveness over time.

3. Redefined Criteria for Organizational Success

- Traditional measures of efficiency often prioritize quantitative outcomes such as cost reduction or productivity gains. Simon expanded this view to include qualitative aspects such as the ability to innovate, respond to unexpected challenges, and maintain resilience.
- He advocated for a balanced approach that considers both short-term efficiency gains and long-term organizational sustainability and adaptability.

4. Complexity and Organizational Design

- Simon's perspective on efficiency challenged simplistic views of organizational design that emphasize rigid hierarchies and standardized procedures.
- He suggested that effective organizational design should accommodate the inherent complexity of human behavior and decision-making processes, fostering environments where creativity and adaptive responses can flourish.

5. Implications for Management Practice

- Simon's Criterion of Efficiency has profound implications for management practice, urging leaders to adopt more flexible and adaptive approaches to decision-making and organizational design.
- Effective management, according to Simon, involves creating environments that support continuous learning, experimentation, and the integration of diverse perspectives to enhance overall organizational effectiveness.

Herbert Simon's Criterion of Efficiency represents a paradigm shift in organizational theory, moving beyond narrow definitions of efficiency to embrace a more holistic and dynamic understanding. By integrating principles of bounded rationality, adaptive behavior, and the importance of organizational learning, Simon's work continues to influence contemporary

management practices, encouraging organizations to prioritize resilience, innovation, and long-term sustainability alongside traditional measures of efficiency. This broader perspective not only enhances organizational performance but also fosters environments where individuals and teams can thrive in the face of complexity and uncertainty.

Self-check Exercise-4

Q.1 What is the criterion of efficiency?

20.7 TYPES OF DECISIONS

Herbert Simon distinguishes between two types of decisions: programmed and non-programmed. These terms, which have their origins in computer science, offer a useful way to categorize the decision-making process.

Programmed Decisions:

Programmed decisions are routine and repetitive. In the context of computers, a program is essentially a predefined solution, and similarly, programmed decisions in organizations follow established procedures. These decisions are not novel, so there is no need for spontaneous or ad hoc approaches. Instead, a set procedure can be applied to resolve recurring issues. Programmed decisions help administrators address common tasks such as managing contracts, handling compensation policies, and administering salaries.

Non-Programmed Decisions:

On the other hand, non-programmed decisions occur in situations that are new, unstructured, and don't rely on established rules or past practices. These decisions require creativity, innovation, and judgment, as they are not repetitive and cannot be resolved with pre-existing procedures. Non-programmed decisions often involve a high degree of uncertainty and risk, as each situation is unique and requires a tailored solution. These decisions are critical for addressing special, one-time challenges that an organization might face.

Simon suggests various approaches for handling both types of decisions. For programmed decisions, relying on habits, expertise, and informal communication channels can be effective. For non-programmed decisions, it is crucial to have skilled and innovative executives who are trained to tackle complex and novel problems.

Furthermore, Simon believes that the use of advanced tools like mathematical models, computer

simulations, and electronic data processing can greatly enhance rational decision-making, providing a more structured and informed approach to decision processes.

Effective communication, both upward, downward, and across the organization, is vital to ensure decisions are well-informed. The type and reliability of information needed will vary depending on the situation. Therefore, gathering accurate data and using it wisely is crucial to effective decision-making and maintaining strong lines of communication within the organization.

Self-check Exercise-5

Q.1 Write a short note on types of decisions.

20.8 Training

Training is an essential tool that prepares individuals within an organization to tackle its challenges effectively. A well-designed training program empowers individuals to exercise greater discretion in their decision-making. Training is particularly beneficial in decision-making when similar elements recur across multiple decisions. Additionally, training provides valuable information, establishes a frame of reference, and instills desirable values, all of which contribute to enhancing the quality of decision-making.

Herbert Simon emphasized the importance of training in enhancing the decision-making capabilities of individuals within organizations. He recognized that traditional training programs, which often focused on rigid procedures and technical skills, were insufficient for addressing the complexities of real-world problems. Simon advocated for training that would develop cognitive skills and foster an understanding of bounded rationality—the concept that decision-makers operate within the constraints of limited information, time, and cognitive resources. He suggested that effective training should include problem-solving techniques, critical thinking, and the use of decision-support tools to help individuals make better-informed and more adaptive decisions. By integrating these elements, Simon believed that organizations could cultivate a workforce better equipped to navigate the uncertainties and dynamic challenges of contemporary environments.

Self-check Exercise-6

Q.1 Write a short note on training?

20.9 Administrative Efficiency

According to Simon, administrators should always be guided by the principle of efficiency in their decision-making. However, he acknowledges the complexity of applying this principle, especially in government organizations, which are not profit-driven like commercial entities. Efficiency, as a guiding principle, calls for selecting the alternative that yields the highest output for a given amount of resources. It suggests that if two options have the same cost, the one that better achieves the organization's objectives should be chosen. Similarly, if two alternatives achieve the same level of goals, the one with the lower cost should be preferred. Thus, efficiency is closely tied to both maximizing the organization's output and conserving resources, ensuring that there is a positive balance between input and output. However, when resources, costs, and objectives are not fixed, decisions cannot solely rely on efficiency as a criterion. While efficiency plays a key role in decision-making when these factors are stable, Simon later revises his stance, suggesting that the efficiency criterion is more applicable to lower-level decisions, whereas higher-level decisions cannot always be measured or compared in the same way.

Self-check Exercise-7

Q.1 What is administrative efficiency?

20.10 Evaluation

Herbert Simon's extensive study sheds light on the complexities of decision-making processes and their role in organizations. His work provides valuable insights into administrative behavior and how decision-making interacts with organizational dynamics. However, while focusing on these processes, Simon somewhat downplays the influence of social, political, economic, and cultural factors, which are also crucial in understanding administrative behavior. By excluding value premises, which are essential in policy-making, Simon's approach risks reducing the study of public administration to a mechanical and routine focus, similar to the one found in business administration. Critics of Simon argue that, while decision-making is undeniably important, it alone cannot explain the entirety of organizational behavior. They contend that decision-making should encompass both emotional and rational dimensions. Simon's study incorporates the logical positivist distinction between facts and values, but this approach has faced criticism for potentially reviving the discredited politics-administration dichotomy. Some argue that this separation could harm decision-makers and make Simon's primary thesis less relevant.

Norton E. Long criticizes Simon's effort to create a value-free science of administration, suggesting it

could inadvertently reinforce the politics-administration divide. Long also points out that bureaucracy cannot be purely neutral or instrumental, solely focused on presenting facts and executing political orders. Similarly, Philip Selznick argues that the rigid separation of fact and value, as it is often interpreted, leads to a harmful disconnection between means and ends.

Another critique of Simon's work comes from the observation that administrative systems in developing countries do not function in the same way as those in developed nations. As such, developing a theory based solely on the American experience of administration may not be universally applicable.

Simon's concept of efficiency also draws frequent criticism. Some critics equate efficiency with economy, while others argue that focusing on efficiency leads to a mechanical view of administration and creates an inconsistent relationship between means and ends. Efficiency cannot be the sole goal of administration, as organizations often pursue a variety of objectives, such as satisfying different interests, producing goods and services, or adhering to established codes. Under certain circumstances, these objectives may take precedence over efficiency. Moreover, the importance of efficiency diminishes when resources are not scarce, and it can only be accurately measured when both inputs and outputs can be quantified. This led Simon to conclude that efficiency is more applicable to lower-level decisions, where measurable outcomes are more achievable.

One of the challenges in studying decision-making is that executives often refrain from disclosing the reasons behind their decisions or the procedures they followed. By the time such details are shared, the decision is no longer relevant. Despite this, it remains valuable for future executives to understand the decision-making process.

Simon's decision-making theory is sometimes criticized for being too general. While it offers a broad framework, it does not provide enough practical guidance for organizational planners. His focus on rationality has also been questioned, with critics like Chris Argyris arguing that intuition, tradition, and faith also play significant roles in decision-making. Some see Simon's focus on satisficing as an attempt to rationalize incompetence, as it allows decision-makers to settle for solutions that are "good enough" rather than striving for the best possible outcomes.

Despite these criticisms, Simon's contributions to the study of decision-making remain invaluable. His concepts of maximizing and satisficing, and his use of fact-value distinctions in decision-making analysis, continue to serve as useful tools for academics and professionals seeking to understand organizational decision-making processes.

Self-check Exercise-8

Q.1 Critically evaluate the works of Herbert Simon.

20.11 Summary

Despite the imperfections in Simon's work, his contributions represent a significant breakthrough in the development of administrative theory. However, it is unfortunate that, after his major work on administrative behavior, Simon shifted his focus primarily to economic and business systems, leaving public administration somewhat underexplored. Moreover, it is equally disappointing that later administrative theories have not adequately addressed the critical insights Simon provided regarding decision-making processes within organizations.

20.12 Glossary

- Influence- the capacity to have an effect on the character, development, or behavior of someone or something, or the effect itself.
- Programmed decisions: Programmed decisions are essentially standing decisions. In computer literature, a program is a plan for an automatic solution

20.13 Answers to Self-Check Exercises

Self-check Exercise-1

Ans 1. Refer to section 20.3

Self-check Exercise-2

Ans 1. Refer to section 20.4

Self-Check Exercise-3

Ans 1. Refer to section 20.5

Self-Check Exercise-4

Ans 1. Refer to section 20.6

Self-Check Exercise-5

Ans 1. Refer to section 20.7

Self-Check Exercise-6

Ans 1. Refer to section 20.8

Self-Check Exercise-7

Ans 1. Refer to section 20.9

Self-Check Exercise-8

Ans 1. Refer to section 20.10

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20.15 Terminal Questions

- (c) What are the types of decisions given by Herbert Simon?
- (d) Elaborate about different stages of Decision-Making suggested by Simon?
